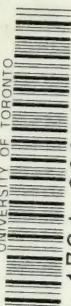


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THE  
BRITISH CYCLOPÆDIA  
OF  
BIOGRAPHY.





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THE  
BRITISH CYCLOPÆDIA  
OF  
BIOGRAPHY:

CONTAINING THE

LIVES OF DISTINGUISHED MEN OF ALL AGES AND COUNTRIES,

WITH

PORTRAITS, RESIDENCES, AUTOGRAPHS, AND MONUMENTS.

EDITED

BY CHARLES F. PARTINGTON,

PROFESSOR OF MECHANICAL PHILOSOPHY, AUTHOR OF VARIOUS WORKS ON NATURAL AND EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY, &c.  
ASSISTED BY AUTHORS OF CELEBRITY IN THE VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS OF LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC BIOGRAPHY.

“Biography may be said to approach, and even to touch, follow, observe, and see the individuals in all places and in every instant of their lives, offering examples profitable to all men and in all conditions, and furnishing to the moralist matter for profound meditation.”—BACON.

COMPLETE IN TWO VOLUMES.

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BRITISH CYCLOPEDIA

BIOGRAPHY



THOMS,  
12, WARWICK SQUARE.

BY CHARLES F. TILLYARD

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1851

THE

# BRITISH CYCLOPÆDIA.

## DIVISION IV.—BIOGRAPHY.

**AA, CHRISTIAN CHARLES HENRY VANDER**, a learned divine of the Lutheran persuasion, was born at Zwolle, a town of Overijssel, in 1718, and was a preacher in the Lutheran church at Haerlem for fifty-one years, where his public and private character entitled him to the highest esteem. He was mainly instrumental in establishing the Haerlem Society of Sciences, to which he acted as secretary for many years; and, besides a collection of sermons, published a variety of scientific papers in the Transactions of that society. He died at Haerlem in 1795.

**AA, PETER VANDER**, an eminent bookseller, who was born at Leyden in 1661. Nearly all the early publishers and printers possessed considerable literary attainments, of which a very striking example occurs in this distinguished bookseller, who, in point of industry, at least, surpassed all his predecessors. He had a large printing office, was eminent as a map engraver and geographer, and besides managing a very extensive bookselling business contrived, in less than half a century, to compile nearly 100 folio volumes. His principal work is "A Gallery of the World," in sixty-six volumes, which he completed a short time prior to his death in 1730.

**AAGARD**.—There are two brothers of some celebrity of this name. They were born at Wibourg, in Denmark, and the eldest was professor of poetry at the university of Sora. Nicholas was librarian in the same learned establishment, and is best known as the author of a "Treatise on Subterranean Fires."

**AAGESEN, SUEND**, a Danish historian, who flourished about the year 1186. He appears to have been secretary to the archbishop Absalon, by whose orders he wrote a history of Denmark, intitled, "Compendiosa historia regum Daniæ à Skioldo ad Canutum VI." This work is inferior in point of style to that of Saxo Grammaticus; but, in some respects, his opinions are in strict conformity to those now entertained by the northern historians and antiquaries.

**AARON**, a presbyter of Alexandria, the author of thirty books on medicine, in the Syriac language. The period when he lived is not precisely known, and he is remarkable only as the first author who accurately described the symptoms of the small pox. He is supposed to have flourished early in the seventh century.

**AARON, PIETRO**, a Florentine musician and vo-

luminous writer on music. His principal work is entitled, "Toscanello della Musica, libri tre." This treatise was first printed at Venice, in 1523; then in 1529, and lastly, with additions, in 1539. In the dedication he informs us that he was born to a slender fortune, which he wished to improve by some reputable profession, that he chose music, and had been admitted into the papal chapel at Rome during the pontificate of Leo X., but that he sustained an irreparable loss by Leo's death.

**AARSENS, FRANCIS**, lord of Someldyck and Spyck, one of the most celebrated negociators of the United Provinces of Holland. He was the son of Cornelius Aarsens, and was born at the Hague in 1572. His father placed him under the care of Duplessis Mornay, at the court of William I., prince of Orange. The celebrated John Barneveldt sent him afterwards as agent into France; and, after residing there some time, he was recognised as ambassador, and the king, Louis XIII., created him a knight and baron. After holding this office for fifteen years, he became obnoxious to the French court, and was deputed as ambassador to Venice, and to several German and Italian princes. But such was the dislike the French king now entertained against him that he ordered his ambassadors at those courts not to receive his visits. One cause of this appears to have been a paper published by Aarsens in 1618, reflecting on the French king's ministers. In 1620 he was sent as ambassador to England, and again in 1641: the object of this last embassy was to negotiate a marriage between prince William, son to the prince of Orange, and a daughter of Charles I. Previous to this, however, we find him again in France, in 1624, as ambassador extraordinary, where it appears that he became intimate with and subservient to the celebrated cardinal Richelieu, who used to say that he never knew but three great politicians, Oxenstiern, chancellor of Sweden, Viscardi, chancellor of Montferrat, and Francis Aarsens.

**ABATI, ANTONY**, an Italian poet of the seventeenth century. He was for many years in the service of the archduke Leopold of Austria, and travelled in France and the Netherlands. On his return to Italy, he was successively governor of several small towns in the ecclesiastical states, and died at Sinagaglia, in 1667, after a long illness. The emperor Ferdinand III. made a bad acrostic in

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honour of his memory, but does not appear to have been a very liberal patron while he was living. His principal poetical work is entitled "Ragguaglio di Parnasso contra poetastri e partegiani delle nazioni."

ABAUZIT, FIRMIN, a French writer of considerable talents who was born at Uzès on the 11th of November, 1679. His parents were protestants, and, on the death of his father, his mother caused him to be removed from France, to prevent his being educated in the catholic faith; but, it being difficult to find a secure retreat, he was sent from one place to another, and at last was obliged to wander among the mountains of Cevennes, and to change his residence as often as his concealment was discovered, until at length he found a safe asylum in Geneva. In the mean time his mother was confined in the castle of Somieres; but nothing could shake her fortitude, or alter her resolution to have her son educated in her own persuasion. Her health was much impaired by confinement, under which she probably must have died, had not a fortunate occurrence required the commander of the fort to visit Paris. His brother, who occupied his place, interested himself strongly in behalf of his prisoner, and ultimately obtained her enlargement. Having surmounted various perils, she arrived at Geneva two years after her son. The small pittance which she had been able to save from the wreck of a fortune which once had been considerable she expended in the education of young Abauzit, who made a very rapid progress in his studies. Mathematics and natural history chiefly attracted his attention; but he cultivated almost every department of literature. In 1698 he visited Holland, where he became acquainted with the most celebrated literary characters of the country, Bayle, Jurieu, and the Basnages. From Rotterdam he came to this country, where he became acquainted with St. Evremond and Sir Isaac Newton. With the latter he afterwards engaged in an epistolary correspondence, and received a compliment which must be considered as highly honourable. "You," says Sir Isaac, "are a very fit person to judge between Leibnitz and me." William III. invited Abauzit to settle in England, and ordered Michael le Vassor to offer some advantageous proposals, which, however, were not accepted. Filial affection, or attachment to the country in which he had obtained a refuge, soon recalled him to Geneva, where, in 1723, the university offered him the chair of philosophy, which he declined, pleading the weakness of his constitution and his inability to do credit to the appointment. In 1726 he lost his mother, to whom he had ever been most affectionately attached. In the same year he was admitted a citizen of Geneva, and appointed librarian to the city. He profited by such a favourable opportunity to increase his knowledge of useful literature. Principally attached to history, he now dedicated to his newly-adopted country the fruit of his labours and his talents. In 1730 he published a new edition of the History and State of Geneva, which had been originally written by David Spon, and printed in two vols. 12mo. The work, having already passed through three editions, was committed to Abauzit. Not contented with the mere republication, he corrected the errors, gave two dissertations on the subject, and annexed the public acts and memorials that were necessary as proofs and illustrations. To these were added a copious

variety of learned and useful notes, in which he gave an ample detail of facts which were but imperfectly related in the text. Modest himself, he was not ambitious of fame, but assisted others by his labours. As a citizen of Geneva, the philosopher was active in the dissensions of 1734. He exerted himself in support of the aristocratic party, though he had much of republican zeal, and he was highly praised by Voltaire. His industry was indefatigable, and he seemed to have written and acted from the conviction of his own mind. In religion he adopted and supported the doctrines of Arianism. Though declining praise, he acquired the esteem of many of the most eminent characters in Europe, and received an elegant compliment from Rousseau. "This age of philosophy," exclaimed Rousseau, "will not pass without having produced one true philosopher. I know one, and, I freely own, but one; but what I regard as my supreme felicity is that he resides in my native country: it is in my own country that he resides. Shall I presume to name him whose real glory it is to remain almost in obscurity? Yes, modest and learned Abauzit, forgive a zeal which seeks not to promote your fame. I would not celebrate your name in an age that is unworthy to admire you. I would honour Geneva by distinguishing it as the place of your residence: my fellow-citizens are honoured by your presence. Happy is the country where the merit that seeks concealment is the more revealed." The reader will appreciate the merit of Abauzit in proportion to the value he sets on the esteem of Voltaire or the praises of Rousseau. He, however, who could gain the approbation of two such opposite characters could be no ordinary person.

Abauzit left behind him several works, which have been often reprinted. Of these the principal was an "Essay upon the Apocalypse," written to show that the canonical authority of the book of Revelation was doubtful, and to apply the predictions to the destruction of Jerusalem. This work was sent by the author to Dr. Twells, in London, who translated it from French into English and added a refutation, with which Abauzit was so well satisfied that he desired his friend in Holland to stop an intended impression. The Dutch editors however, after his death, admitted this essay into their edition of his works, which, besides, comprehends "Reflections on the Eucharist," "On Idolatry," "On the Mysteries of Religion," "Paraphrases and Explanations of sundry parts of Scripture," &c. An edition without the Essay on the Apocalypse was printed at Geneva in Oct. 1770, and translated into English in the same year by Dr. Harwood.

These writings afford an idea of the merit of Abauzit as a divine. To judge of the depth of his physical and mathematical knowledge, it must be remembered that he defended Newton against father Castel, that he discovered an error in the "Principia" at a time when there were few people in Europe capable of reading that work, and that Newton corrected the error in the second edition. Abauzit was one of the first who adopted the great conceptions of Newton, because he was a geometrician sufficiently learned to see their truth. He was perfectly acquainted with many languages; he understood ancient and modern history so exactly as to be master of all the principal facts and dates; he was so accurate a geographer that the celebrated



Pococke concluded, from his minute description of Egypt, that he must, like himself, have travelled in that country; he had a very extensive knowledge of physics; and, lastly, he was intimately conversant with medals and ancient manuscripts. All these different sciences were so well digested and arranged in his mind that he could in an instant bring together all that he knew upon any subject. Of this the following example has been given:—Rousseau, in drawing up his Dictionary of Music, had taken great pains to give an accurate account of the music of the ancients. Conversing with Abauzit upon the subject, the librarian gave him a clear and exact account of all that he had with so much labour collected. Rousseau concluded that Abauzit had lately been studying the subject; but this learned man, of whom it might almost literally be said that he knew every thing and never forgot any thing, unaffectedly confessed that it was then thirty years since he had enquired into the music of the ancients. Abauzit died at Geneva in 1767.

ABBADIE, JAMES, a learned protestant divine, was born at Berne, in Switzerland, in 1658. He studied successively at Puy Laurent, at Saumur, at Paris, and at Sedan, at which last place he received the degree of doctor in divinity. He intended to have dedicated himself very early to the ministry in his own country; but, the persecutions directed against the protestants rendering it impracticable there, he accepted the offer of the count d'Espeuse, an officer in the service of the elector of Brandenburg, by whom he was settled at Berlin, as minister of the French Church. Here he resided many years, and his congregation, at first very thin, was greatly increased by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. In 1688 the elector, Frederic William, died, and our author accepted an invitation from marshal Schomberg to go with him first into Holland, and then into England, with the prince of Orange. In 1689 he went to Ireland, and was there, in the following year, when his patron was killed at the battle of the Boyne. On his return to England he became minister of the French church at the Savoy, but, the air disagreeing with him, he went again to Ireland, and would have been promoted to the deanery of St. Patrick's had he been acquainted with the English language. He obtained, however, that of Killaloe, the value of which was far inferior, and never had any other promotion. He occasionally visited England and Holland for the purpose of printing his works, which were all in French. In one of these visits to London, he died at a small country-house in Mary-le-bone parish, September 25, 1727. Abbadie was strongly attached to the cause of king William, as appears by his elaborate defence of the revolution, and his history of the assassination-plot. He had great natural abilities, which he cultivated with true and useful learning. He was a most zealous defender of the primitive doctrines of the protestants, as appears by his writings; and that strong nervous eloquence, for which he was so remarkable, enabled him to enforce the doctrines of his profession from the pulpit with great spirit and energy. His treatise on the truth of the Christian religion has passed through many editions, has been translated into English and Dutch, and has long been esteemed an able confutation of infidel principles. The abbé Houteville, a steady catholic, gives it the following character:—"The most shining of those treatises in defence of

the Christian religion which were published by the protestants is that published by M. Abbadie. The favourable reception it obtained, the almost unexampled praise it received on the first publication, the universal approbation it still preserves, render it unnecessary for me to join my commendations, which would add so little to the merit of so great an author. He has united in this book all our controversies with the infidels. In the first part, he combats the atheists; the deists in the second; and the Socinians in the third. Philosophy and theology enter happily into his manner of composing, which is in the true method, lively, pure, and elegant, especially in the first books."

ABBATI, NICOLO, a distinguished historical painter, was born at Modena in 1512. Little is known of his progress at Modena, except that, in conjunction with his fellow pupil Alberto Fontana, he painted the panels of the Butcher's Hall in that place; and at the age of thirty-five, for the church of the Benedictines, the celebrated picture of the martyrdom of St. Peter and St. Paul, now in the Dresden gallery, with some fresco paintings, drawn from Ariosto and Virgil, in the palace Scandiano. Of his works at Bologna tradition has left a very distinguished account. We may particularly enumerate his large symbolic picture in the Via di St. Malo, the nativity of Christ, and four groups executed with great taste, in the Academical Institute. Notwithstanding the innate vigour of his style, and the facility with which he coloured his pictures, he owes his fame mainly to his coalition with another artist; and in our own time some of the most important works of art have been indebted for their celebrity to this sort of division of labour.

ABBO, CERNUUS, a monk of St. Germain-des-Pres, was the author of a poetical relation of the siege of Paris by the Normans and Danes, towards the end of the ninth century. He was himself of Normandy, and an eye-witness of the extraordinary feats of valour performed by the Parisians; and, if not eminent as a poet, is at least a faithful and minute historian.

ABBO, FLORIACENSIS, a Benedictine monk of the tenth century, was born in the territory of Orleans, and educated in the abbey of Fleuri, and afterwards at Paris and Rheims, where he distinguished himself in all the learning of the times, and particularly in mathematics, theology, and history. Oswald, bishop of Worcester, in 985, applied to the abbey of Fleuri to obtain a proper person to preside over the abbey of Ramsay, which he had founded, or rather re-established. Abbo was sent over to England for this purpose, and much caressed by king Ethelred and the nobility. Returning to Fleuri, upon the death of the abbot, he was declared his successor. Here he experienced many vexations from some of the bishops, against whom he asserted the rights of the monastic order, and, in his justification, he wrote an apology, which he addressed to the kings Hugh and Robert. Some time afterwards he dedicated to the same princes a collection of canons on the duties of kings and the duties of subjects. King Robert having sent him to Rome to appease the wrath of Gregory V., who had threatened to lay the kingdom under an interdict, the pope granted him all he requested. Abbo, on his return from this expedition, set about the reform of the abbey of Reole, in Gascony. He was here slain in a quarrel that rose between the French and the Gascons, in 1004. His principal works are



"*Epitome de vitis Pontificum*," taken from Anastasius Bibliothecarius, and published with an edition of that author by Busæus, and "*Vita S. Edmundi Anglorum Orientalium regis et martyris*," printed in the *Lives of the Saints*.

ABBOT, CHARLES.—This distinguished parliamentary speaker, who was afterwards created baron Colchester, was born in 1757. He received the rudiments of a good classical education at Westminster school, and afterwards attained considerable distinction at Oxford. He entered into parliament in 1790, when he was chosen representative of the borough of Helstone, after a contest followed by a petition to the House of Commons. In 1796 he was elected again for Helstone; and in 1802 for the borough of Woodstock. In February, 1800, he made a motion in the House of Commons for the appointment of a committee to enquire into the state of the national records; and its researches were carried on under his direction till 1817. In 1802 he was elected speaker of the House of Commons, and in this very important office he distinguished himself by giving the casting vote against the ministry, on the motion of Mr. Whitbread for a censure on Lord Melville for malversation while treasurer of the navy. In 1806 Mr. Abbot was elected representative of the university of Oxford, which seat he retained till 1810, when, on his resignation of the office of speaker of the Commons, he was raised to the peerage by the title of lord Colchester. His death occurred in 1829, and at that time he held many important political appointments.

ABBOT, GEORGE, archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Guildford, in Surrey, on the 29th of October, 1562. He was the son of Maurice Abbot, a cloth-worker in that town, and Alice March, who, having been sufferers by the persecution in Queen Mary's reign, educated their children in a steady zeal for the protestant religion. George was sent, with his elder brother Robert, to the free-school of Guildford, where he was educated under Mr. Francis Taylor, and in 1578 was entered of Baliol College, Oxford. After taking a degree, he entered into holy orders, became a celebrated preacher in the university, and was appointed chaplain to Thomas Lord Buckhurst.

In 1599 he was installed dean of Winchester, and in 1600 was appointed vice-chancellor of Oxford, and while in this office decided a dispute, which at that time engaged the attention of the public, respecting the repairing of the cross in Cheapside, which was ornamented with catholic symbols. The citizens of London requested the advice of both universities; and Dr. Abbot, as vice-chancellor of Oxford, gave it as his opinion that the crucifix with the dove upon it should not be put up again. Dr. Bancroft, bishop of London, was of a different opinion; but Dr. Abbot's advice was followed, as expressed in a letter printed many years after.

In 1608, on the death of his patron, Lord Buckhurst, earl of Dorset, he became chaplain to George Hume, earl of Dunbar and treasurer of Scotland, and went home with him, in order to establish a union between the churches of England and Scotland. King James's object was to restore the ancient form of government by bishops; and, notwithstanding the aversion of the people of Scotland to this measure, Dr. Abbot's skill, prudence, and moderation succeeded so far as to procure an act of the General Assembly, which was afterwards ratified and

confirmed by the parliament of Scotland. By this it was enacted that the king should have the calling of all General Assemblies,—that the bishops or the deputies should be perpetual moderators of the diocesan synods,—that no excommunication or absolution should be pronounced without their approbation,—that all presentations of benefices should be made by them, and that the deprivation or suspension of ministers should belong to them,—that every minister, at his admission to a benefice, should take the oath of supremacy and canonical obedience,—that the visitation of the diocese should be performed by the bishop or his deputy only,—and, finally, that the bishop should be moderator of all conventions for exercisings or prophesyings which should be held within their bounds.

This service advanced Dr. Abbot's character very high in the opinion of king James, and an accidental affair about this time brought him yet more into favour. While he was at Edinburgh, a prosecution was commenced against a notary of Aymouth, named Sprot, for having been concerned in Gowrie's conspiracy eight years before, for which he was now tried before Sir William Hart, lord justice general of Scotland, and condemned and executed. A long account of the affair was drawn up by the judge, and a narrative prefixed by Dr. Abbot, describing the precise nature of the conspiracy, about the reality of which doubts had previously been entertained, and perhaps were afterwards.

Soon after this, the king being engaged in the mediation of peace between the crown of Spain and the United Provinces, by which the sovereignty of the latter was to be acknowledged by the former, he demanded the advice of the convocation then sitting, as to the lawfulness of espousing the cause of the States; but, instead of a direct answer, the members entered upon a wide field of discussion, which excited new jealousies and apprehensions. On this occasion the king wrote a confidential letter to Abbot, reflecting on the convocation for not being more explicit in their answer to his question, "how far a Christian and a protestant king may concur to assist his neighbours to shake off their obedience to their own sovereign." This curious letter was first published during the dispute between Dean Sherlock and his adversaries on his taking the oaths to King William, and it is so characteristic of his majesty's political dealings that we subjoin it entire.

"Good Dr. Abbot,

"I cannot abstain to give you my judgment on the proceedings in the convocation, as you will call it; and both as *rex in solio*, and *unus gregis in ecclesia*, I am doubly concerned. My title to the crown nobody calls in question, but they that love neither you nor me, and you may guess whom I mean. All that you and your brethren have said of a king in possession (for that word, I tell you, is no more than that you make use of in your canon) concerns not me at all. I am the next heir, and the crown is mine by all rights you can name, but that of conquest; and Mr. Solicitor has sufficiently expressed my own thoughts concerning the nature of kingship, and concerning the nature of it *ut in mea persona*; and I believe you were all of his opinion, at least none of you said any thing contrary to it at the time he spoke to you from me. But you know all of you, as I think, that my reason for calling you together was to give your judgments how far a Christian and a protestant king

may concur to assist his neighbours to shake off their obedience to their own sovereign, upon account of oppression, tyranny, or what else you please to name it. In the late queen's time, this kingdom was very free in assisting the Hollanders both with arms and advice; and none of your coat ever told me that any scrupled at it in her reign. Upon my coming to England, you may know that it came from some of yourselves to raise scruples about this matter; and, albeit I have often told my mind concerning *jus regium in subditos*, as in May last, in the star-chamber, upon the occasion of Hale's pamphlet, yet I never took any notice of these scruples, till the affairs of Spain and Holland forced me to it. All my neighbours call on me to concur in the treaty between Holland and Spain; and the honour of the nation will not suffer the Hollanders to be abandoned, especially after so much money and men spent in their quarrel; therefore I was of the mind to call my clergy together, to satisfy not so much me, as the world about us, of the justness of my owning the Hollanders at this time. This I needed not to have done, and you have forced me to say I wish I had not. You have dipped too deep in what all kings reserve among the *arcana imperii*; and, whatever aversion you may profess against God's being the author of sin, you have stumbled upon the threshold of that opinion, in saying upon the matter that even tyranny is God's authority, and should be remembered as such. If the king of Spain should return to claim his old pontifical right to my kingdom, you leave me to seek for others to fight for it; for you tell us upon the matter beforehand his authority is God's authority if he prevail.

"Mr. Doctor, I have no time to express my mind further on this theory business. I shall give you my orders about it by Mr. Solicitor, and, until then, meddle no more in it; for they are edge tools, or rather like that weapon that is said to cut with one edge and cure with the other. I commit you to God's protection, good Dr. Abbot, and rest your good friend,  
JAMES R."

Dr. Abbot now stood so high in his majesty's favour that on the death of Dr. Overton, bishop of Lichfield and Coventry, he promoted him to the vacant see, May 27, 1609. Before he had held this above a month, he was translated to the bishopric of London. During the short time that he held the office, he distinguished himself by the diligent performance of his functions, and by frequent preaching and patronizing learning and learned men. In private life he was equally celebrated for piety, generosity, and gentleness of manners.

In the following year he was preferred to the see of Canterbury, and shortly after he was sworn one of his majesty's most honourable privy council. At this time he was in the highest favour both with prince and people, and appears to have taken an active part in all the great transactions in church and state. Although not thought excessively fond of power, or desirous of carrying his prerogative, as primate of England, to an extraordinary height, yet he was resolute in maintaining the rights of the high commission court, and would not submit to Lord Coke's prohibitions. In the case of Vorstius his conduct was more singular. Vorstius had been appointed to a professorship in the university of Leyden, and was an Arminian. King James, by the archbishop's advice, remonstrated with the States on this appoint-

ment, and the consequence was that Vorstius was banished by the synod of Dort. This conduct on the part of the archbishop alarmed those who were favourers of Arminianism, and who dreaded Calvinism from its supposed influence on the security of the church; but their fears as far as he was concerned appear to have been groundless, his attachment to the church of England remaining firm and uniform. He had soon, however, another opportunity of testifying his dislike of the Arminian doctrines. The zeal which the king had shown for removing, first Arminius and then Vorstius, had given their favourers in Holland so much uneasiness that the celebrated Grotius, the great champion of their cause, was sent over to England to endeavour to mitigate the king's displeasure, and, if possible, to give him a better opinion of the remonstrants, as they then began to be called.

In 1619 he executed a design which he had long formed, of founding an hospital at Guildford. The archbishop endowed it with lands to the value of three hundred pounds per annum, one hundred of which were to be employed in finding employment for the poor, and the remainder for the maintenance of a master, twelve brothers, and eight sisters, who were to have blue clothes, and gowns of the same colour, and half-a-crown a week each. Towards the end of this year the elector palatine accepted the crown of Bohemia, which occasioned great disputes in king James's councils. Some were desirous that his majesty should not interfere in this matter, foreseeing that it would produce a war in Germany; others were of opinion that natural affection to his son and daughter, and a just concern for the protestant interest, ought to engage him to support the new election. The latter were the archbishop's sentiments; and, not being able at that time to attend the privy council, he wrote to that effect with great boldness and freedom to the secretary of state. The archbishop, now in a declining state of health, used in the summer to go to Hampshire for the sake of recreation; and, being invited by Lord Zouch to hunt in his park at Branzill, he there accidentally killed that nobleman's keeper by an arrow, from a cross-bow, which he shot at one of the deer. This accident threw him into a deep melancholy, and he ever afterwards kept a monthly fast on Tuesday, the day on which this fatal mischance happened. He also settled an annuity of twenty pounds on the widow. There were several persons who took advantage of this misfortune to lessen him in the king's favour; but his majesty said, "An angel might have mis-carried in this sort." But his enemies representing that, having incurred an irregularity, he was thereby incapacitated for performing the offices of a primate, the king directed a commission to ten persons to enquire into this matter. The points referred to their decision were, 1. Whether the archbishop was irregular by the fact of involuntary homicide. 2. Whether that act might tend to scandal in a churchman. 3. How his grace should be restored, in case the commissioners should find him irregular. All agreed that it could not be otherwise done than by restitution from the king; but they varied in the manner. The bishop of Winchester, the lord chief justice, and Dr. Steward, thought it should be done by the king, and by him alone. The lord keeper, and the bishops of London, Rochester, Exeter, and St. David's, recommended a commission from the king



directed to some bishops. Judge Doddridge and Sir Henry Martin were desirous it should be done by both processes, by way of caution. The king accordingly passed a pardon and dispensation, by which he acquitted the bishop of all irregularity or scandal, and declared him capable of all the authority of a primate. From that time an increase of infirmities prevented his giving any assistance at the council. But when, in the last illness of James I., his attendance was required, he attended his duties till the 27th of March, 1625, the day on which the king expired.

Though very infirm, and afflicted with the gout, he assisted at the ceremony of the coronation of Charles I., whose favour, however, he did not long enjoy. His avowed enemy, the duke of Buckingham, soon found an opportunity to make him feel the weight of his displeasure. Dr. Sibthorp had, in the Lent assizes, 1627, preached before the judges a sermon at Northampton, to justify a loan which the king had demanded. This sermon, calculated to reconcile the people to an obnoxious measure, was transmitted to the archbishop with the king's direction to license it, which he refused, and gave his reasons for it; and it was not licensed by the bishop of London until after the passages deemed exceptionable had been erased. He was afterwards visited by Lord Conway, who was then secretary of state, who intimated to him that the king expected he should withdraw to Canterbury. The archbishop declined his proposal, because he had then a law-suit with that city, and desired that he might rather have leave to retire to his house at Ford, five miles beyond Canterbury. His request was granted; and the king gave a commission to the bishops of London, Durham, Rochester, Oxford, and Bath and Wells, to execute the archiepiscopal authority, the cause assigned being that the archbishop could not at that time, in his own person, attend those services which were otherwise proper for his cognizance and direction. The archbishop did not remain long in this situation; for, a parliament being absolutely necessary, he was recalled about Christmas, and restored to his authority and jurisdiction. On his arrival at court he was received by the archbishop of York and the earl of Dorset, who conducted him to the king, and his regular attendance was from that time required. He sat in the succeeding parliament, and continued afterwards in the full exercise of his office. On the 24th of August, 1628, the archbishop consecrated to the see of Chichester Dr. Richard Montague, who had before been active in supporting the pretence of irregularity which had been alleged against him. Laud, bishop of London, one of his former enemies, also assisted at the consecration. When the petition of right was discussed in parliament, the archbishop delivered the opinion of the House of Lords at a conference with the House of Commons, offering some propositions from the former, and received the thanks of Sir Dudley Digges. Dr. Manwaring, having preached before the House of Commons two sermons, which he afterwards published, and in which he maintained the king's authority in raising subsidies without the consent of parliament, was brought before the bar of the House of Lords, by impeachment of the Commons. Upon this occasion the archbishop, with the king's consent, gave the doctor a severe admonition, in which he avowed his abhorrence of the principles maintained in the two discourses. The interest of bishop

Laud being now very considerable at court, he drew up instructions, which, having the king's name, were transmitted to the archbishop, under the title of "His Majesty's Instructions to the most Reverend Father in God, George, Lord Archbishop of Canterbury, containing Certain Orders to be observed and put in Execution by the several Bishops in his Province." His grace communicated them to his suffragan bishops; but, to prove that he still intended to exercise his authority in his own diocese, he restored Mr. Palmer and Mr. Unday to their lectureships, after the dean and archdeacon of Canterbury had suspended them. His conduct in this and other respects made his presence unwelcome at court; so that, upon the birth of the prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II., Laud had the honour to baptize him, as dean of the chapel. It appears, however, from almost the last public act of his life, that Abbot was not so regardless of the ceremonial parts of religious duty in the church of England as his enemies have represented him; for he issued an order, dated the 3d of July, 1633, requiring the parishioners of Crayford in Kent to receive the sacrament on their knees, at the steps ascending to the communion table. On the 5th of August, in the same year, he died at Croydon, worn out with cares and infirmities, at the age of seventy-one, and was, according to his own direction, buried in the "Chapel of Our Lady," within the church dedicated to the Holy Trinity at Guildford. A monument was afterwards erected, with the effigy of the archbishop in his robes. He showed himself, in most circumstances of his life, a man of great moderation to all parties; and was desirous that the clergy should attract the esteem of the laity by the sanctity of their manners, rather than claim it as due to their office. His principles, however, have drawn upon him many severe reflections. Heylin asserts, "That marks of his benefactions we find none in places of his breeding and preferment:" an aspersion which is totally groundless. Dr. Wellwood has done more justice to his merit and abilities. "Archbishop Abbot," says he, "was a person of wonderful temper and moderation; and in all his conduct showed an unwillingness to stretch the act of uniformity beyond what was absolutely necessary for the peace of the church, or the prerogative of the crown, any further than conduced to the good of the state. Being not well turned for a court, though otherwise of considerable learning and genteel education, he either could not, or would not, stoop to the humour of the times; and now and then, by an unseasonable stiffness, gave occasion to his enemies to represent him as not well inclined to the prerogative, or too much addicted to the popular interest; and therefore not fit to be employed in matters of government."

Onslow, the distinguished speaker of the House of Commons, thus justly sums up his character:—"He was a very wise and prudent man, knew well the temper and disposition of the kingdom with respect to the ceremonies and power of the church, and did therefore use a moderation, in the point of ecclesiastical discipline, which if it had been followed by his successor, the ruin that soon after fell on the church might very likely have been prevented. His being without any credit at court from the latter end of King James's reign will bring no dishonour on his memory, if it be considered that his disgrace arose from his dislike of, and opposition to, the imprudent

and corrupt measures of the court at that time, and from an honest zeal for the laws and liberties of his country, which seemed then to be in no small danger, and it was a part truly becoming the high station he then bore. His advice upon the affair of the Palatinate and the Spanish match showed his knowledge of the true interest of England, and how much it was at his heart; and his behaviour and sufferings in the next reign, about the loan and Sibthorp's sermon, as they were the reasons of his disgrace at that time, so ought they to render his memory valuable to all who wish not to see the fatal counsels and oppression of those times revived in this nation. The duke of Buckingham was his enemy, because the archbishop would not be his creature; and the church perhaps might have been thought to have been better governed, if he had stooped to the duke, and given in to the wantonness of his power: but he knew the dignity of his character, and loved his country too well to submit to such a meanness, though very few of his brethren had the courage or honesty to join with him in this, and, if the archbishop himself is to be credited, his successor's rise was by the practice of those arts this good man could not bend to. As to his learning, we need no better testimony of it than his promotion by king James, who had too much affectation that way to prefer any one to such a station who had not borne the reputation of a scholar; but there are other proofs of his sufficiency in this, even for the high place he held in the church. If he had some narrow notions in divinity, they were rather the faults of the age he had his education in than his; and the same imputation may be laid on the best and most learned of the reformers. His warmth against popery became the office of a protestant bishop; though even towards papists there is a remarkable instance of his mildness and charity, which showed that his zeal against their persons went no further than the safety of the state required. His parts seem to have been strong and masterly, his preaching grave and eloquent, and his style equal to any of that time. He was eminent for piety and a care for the poor; and his hospitality fully answered the injunction king James laid on him, which was, to carry his house nobly, and live like an archbishop. He had no thoughts of heaping up riches; what he did save was laid out by him in the erecting and endowing of a handsome hospital for decayed tradesmen and the widows of such, in the town of Guildford, in the county of Surrey, where he was born and had his first education; and here I cannot omit taking notice that the body of statutes drawn by himself for the government of that house is one of the most judicious works of that kind I ever saw, and under which for nearly 100 years that hospital has maintained the best credit of any that I know in England. He was void of all pomp and ostentation, and thought the nearer the church and churchmen came to the simplicity of the first Christians the better would the true ends of religion be served; and that the purity of the heart was to be preferred to, and ought rather to be the care of a spiritual governor than the devotion of the hands only. If under this notion some niceties in discipline were given up to goodness of life, and when the peace of the church as well as of the kingdom was preserved by it, it was surely no ill piece of prudence, nor is his memory therefore deserving of those slanders it has undergone upon that account.

It is easy to see that much of this treatment has been owing to a belief, in the admirers and followers of Archbishop Laud, that the reputation of the latter was increased by depreciating that of the former. They were indeed men of very different frames, and the parts they took in the affairs both of church and state as disagreeing. In the church, moderation and the ways of peace guided the behaviour of the first, rigour and severity that of the last. In the state they severally carried the like principles and temper. The one made the liberty of the people and the laws of the land the measure of his actions; when the other, to speak softly of it, had the power of the prince and the exalting of the prerogative only, for his. They were indeed both of them men of courage and resolution; but it was sedate and temperate in Abbot, passionate and unruly in Laud. It is not however to be denied that many rare and excellent virtues were possessed by the latter; but it must be owned, too, he seems rather made for the hierarchy of another church, and to be the minister of an arbitrary prince, and the other to have had the qualifications of a protestant bishop and the guardian of a free state." This is indeed high praise, and sufficiently illustrates the character of these two eminent ecclesiastics.

As Heylin has insinuated something to the prejudice of the archbishop's liberality, it may be necessary to record that, besides his noble foundation at Guildford, he gave to the schools at Oxford 150*l*. In 1619 he bestowed a large sum of money on the library of Baliol College; he also built a conduit in the city of Canterbury. In 1624 he contributed towards the founding of Pembroke College, Oxford, and discharged a debt of 300*l*. owing from Baliol to Pembroke College. In 1632 he gave 100*l*. to the library of University College, Oxford, and by will left large sums to charitable purposes.

His great work is entitled "*Quæstiones Sex, totidem Prælectionibus in Schola Theologica Oxoniæ, pro forina Habitis, Discussæ et Disceptatæ, anno 1597; in quibus à Sacra Scriptura et Patribus, quid statuendum sit definitur.*" The archbishop's time was however so much employed by the duties of his clerical and political offices that he left but few monuments of his literary industry. It may be proper to add that those sermons which he printed are generally of a popular character.

ABBOT, MAURICE, brother to the above, was bred up to trade, became an eminent merchant in London, and had a considerable share in the direction of the affairs of the East India Company. He was one of the commissioners employed in negotiating a treaty with the Dutch East India Company, by which the Molucca islands, and the commerce to them, were declared to be divided, two-thirds to the Dutch East India Company, and one-third to the English. He was afterwards one of the farmers of the customs, as appears from a commission granted in 1623, to him and others, for administering the oaths to such persons as should either desire to pass the seas from this kingdom, or to enter it from foreign countries. In 1624 he was appointed one of the council for settling and establishing the colony of Virginia, with full powers for the government of that colony. On the accession of king Charles I. he was the first person on whom the order of knighthood was conferred, and he was chosen to represent the city of London in the first parliament of that reign. In 1627 he



served the office of sheriff, and in 1738 that of lord mayor. He died, Jan. 10, 1640.

ABBOT, ROBERT, eldest brother to the archbishop, was also born in the town of Guildford. He was educated by the same schoolmaster; and afterwards sent to Baliol College, Oxford, in 1575. In 1582 he took his degree of M. A. and soon became a celebrated preacher, to which talent he chiefly owed his preferment. Upon his first sermon at Worcester, he was chosen lecturer in that city, and soon after rector of All Saints in the same place. His son, George Abbot, was eminent as a controversial writer, and his work entitled "The whole book of Job paraphrased" has been much admired.

In the beginning of King James's reign Robert Abbot was appointed chaplain in ordinary to his majesty, who had such an opinion of him as a writer that he ordered the doctor's book "*De Antichristo*" to be reprinted with his own commentary upon part of the Apocalypse. He had also acquired much reputation for his writings against Dr. William Bishop, then a secular priest, but afterwards titular bishop of Chalcedon. In 1609 he was elected master of Baliol College, which trust he discharged with the utmost care and assiduity, by his frequent lectures to the scholars, by his continual presence at public exercises, and by promoting discipline in the society. In May 1610 the king nominated Dr. Abbot one of the fellows in the college of Chelsea, which had just been founded for the encouragement and promotion of polemical divinity. In November 1610 he was made prebendary of Normanton in the church of Southwell; and in 1612 his majesty appointed him regius professor of divinity at Oxford, in which station he acquired the character of a profound divine, though a more moderate Calvinist than either of his two predecessors in the divinity-chair, Holland and Humphrey: for he countenanced the sublapsarian tenets concerning predestination. He was not, however, less an enemy to Dr. Laud than his brother; and in one of his sermons pointed at him so directly that Laud intended to have taken some public notice of it.

The fame of Dr. Abbot's lectures became very great; and those which he delivered upon the supreme power of kings against Bellarmine and Suarez afforded the king so much satisfaction that, when the see of Salisbury became vacant, he named him to that bishopric; and he was consecrated by his own brother, the archbishop of Canterbury, in December 1615. In his way to Salisbury, he took a solemn farewell of Oxford, and was accompanied for some miles by the heads of houses and other eminent scholars, who deeply regretted his departure. On his arrival at Salisbury he bestowed much attention on his cathedral, which had been neglected, and raised a considerable subscription for repairs. He afterwards visited the whole of his diocese, and preached every Sunday while his health permitted, which was not long, as the sedentary course he had pursued brought on a painful disease, which ended his pious and useful life, on the 2nd of March, 1617.

ABBOTT, CHARLES, baron Tenterden.—The rapid rise of this eminent lawyer sufficiently illustrates the fact that the highest honours of the bar are within the reach of the humblest individual possessing talents and industry to fit him for the profession. He was born at Canterbury, October 7th, 1762, and his education commenced at the Free Grammar-

school in that place. His progress in the Latin classics ensured him a foundation-scholarship at the university of Oxford. He speedily obtained both a fellowship and a tutorship; and his success in the latter office led to his adoption of the legal profession, which proved the means of his advancement to fame and fortune. One of his pupils was the son of Mr. Justice Buller, who, struck with the promising talents of young Abbott, advised him to apply to the study of the law, with an encouraging prediction that he would rise high in the profession. In pursuance of this friendly recommendation he entered as a student at the Inner Temple, and in 1796 he was called to the bar. He joined the Oxford circuit, and soon obtained extensive employment as a junior counsel, his judgment and learning being very conspicuous, though he was deficient in those powers of oratory which are requisite to command extraordinary attention from a jury. But his want of eloquence was compensated by the extent and accuracy of his legal knowledge, which were so highly appreciated that his business before he was promoted to the bench was probably more profitable than that of any other barrister; as, during the continuance of the income tax, his returns for several years were higher than those of his professional contemporaries, averaging, it is said, about £10,000 a year.

On the death of Judge Buller, Mr. Abbott was so fortunate as to meet with a new patron in the person of lord Ellenborough, to whose influence he was principally indebted for his advancement to a puisne judgeship in the Court of Common Pleas, which took place on the death of Mr. Justice Heath, in Michaelmas Term, 1816. In consequence of the decease of Sir Simon Le Blanc, the same year, Mr. Abbott was, in the Easter term ensuing, appointed his successor in the Court of King's Bench, on which occasion he received the honour of knighthood. Lord Ellenborough's retirement made way for the ultimate advancement of Sir Charles Abbott, in November, 1818, to the office of lord chief justice of the King's Bench.

On the 30th of April, 1827, he was created a peer, by the title of Lord Tenterden, of Hendon, in Middlesex. He was supposed to have accepted this honour with a view to retirement from the fatigues of office, and the enjoyment of learned leisure; but he continued to discharge the onerous duties of his judicial station during the remainder of his life. In addition to his judicial dignity he held the post of deputy speaker of the House of Lords; and he was a member of his majesty's privy council. He had been for some years in a declining state of health, though with unimpaired faculties, when, on the 26th of October, 1832, while presiding at the trial of the magistrates of Bristol, for alleged neglect of duty during the riots in that city, he was taken so ill that he was unable again to make his appearance in the court. He returned to London, where, the violence of his complaint rapidly increasing, he died, November 4th, 1832, at his residence in Russell-square; and he was interred in the chapel belonging to the Foundling Hospital, of which institution he was a governor.

ABBT, THOMAS, a German writer of high character, was born at Ulm, Nov. 25, 1738. In 1756 he went to the university of Halle, where he was invited by professor Baumgarten to live in his house. Here he published a thesis "*De Extasi*," and studied philosophy and the mathematics. In 1760 he was



appointed professor-extraordinary of philosophy in the university of Francfort-on-the-Oder, and, in the midst of the war which then raged, inspired his fellow-citizens by a work on "Dying for our Country." In the following year, he passed six months at Berlin, and left that city to fill the mathematical chair in the university of Rinteln, in Westphalia; but, becoming tired of an academical life, he began to study law as an introduction to some civil employment. In 1763 he travelled through the south of Germany, Switzerland, and part of France; and, on his return to Rinteln, at the end of that year, published his work "On Merit," which was reprinted thrice in that place, and obtained him much reputation. In 1765 the reigning prince of Schaumburg Lippe bestowed on him the office of counsellor of the court, but he did not long enjoy the friendship of this nobleman, or his promotion, as he died Nov. 27, 1766, when only in his twenty-eighth year. The prince caused him to be interred, with great pomp, in his private chapel, and honoured his tomb by an affecting epitaph from his own pen. Abbt was highly esteemed by his contemporaries, who all agreed in opinion that, if his life had been spared, he would have ranked among the first German writers. He contributed much to restore the purity of the language, which had become debased before his time, as the Germans, discouraged by the disastrous thirty years' war, had written very little, unless in French or Latin.

ABDOLLATIPH, an eminent Persian historian and philosopher, who was born at Bagdad, in the 557th year of the Hegira, A.D. 1161. Having been educated with the greatest care by his father, who was himself a man of learning, and resided in a capital which abounded with the best opportunities of instruction, he distinguished himself by an early proficiency, not only in rhetoric, history, and poetry, but also in the more severe studies of Mahomedan theology. To the acquisition of medical knowledge he applied with peculiar diligence; and it was chiefly with this view that he left Bagdad, in his twenty-eighth year, in order to visit other countries. At Mosul, in Mesopotamia, whither he first directed his course, he found the attention of the students entirely confined to the chemistry of that day, with which he was already sufficiently acquainted. He therefore removed to Damascus, where the grammarian Al Kindi then enjoyed the highest reputation; and with him Abdollatiph is said to have engaged in controversy on some subjects of grammar and philology, which was ably conducted on both sides, but terminated in favour of our author.

At this time Egypt had yielded to the arms of Saladin, who was marching against Palestine for the purpose of wresting that country from the hands of the Christians; yet towards Egypt Abdollatiph was irresistibly impelled by that literary curiosity which so strongly marked his character. The defeat, however, of the Saracens by the English king Richard, had plunged the Sultan into melancholy, and prevented our traveller from being admitted into his presence; but the favours which he received evinced the munificence of Saladin, and he continued his route, visiting Cairo, where his talents procured him a welcome reception. From this he withdrew, in order to present himself before the Sultan, who, having concluded a truce with the Franks, then resided in Jerusalem. Here he was received by Saladin with

every expression of esteem, and Saladin granted him a liberal pension, which was increased by his son and successor. At Damascus he distinguished himself chiefly by his medical skill and knowledge; but nothing could detain him from travelling in pursuit of higher improvement, and on this account he left Damascus, and, after having visited Aleppo, resided several years in Greece. With the same view he travelled through Syria, Armenia, and Asia Minor, still adding to the number of his works, many of which he dedicated to the princes whose courts he visited. After this, sentiments of devotion induced him to undertake a pilgrimage to Mecca; but he first determined to pay a visit to his native country, and had scarcely reached Bagdad when he was suddenly attacked by a distemper, of which he died, A. D. 1223, in the sixty-third year of his age.

Of 150 treatises, on various subjects of medicine, natural philosophy, and polite literature, which have been ascribed to Abdollatiph, one only is to be found in the libraries of Europe. It is entitled "Al-kital Alsagir," or his "Little Book," being an abridgment of a larger history of Egypt. An edition of it was published in 1800, by professor White of Oxford, enriched with valuable notes, and a translation into Latin.

ABEL, CHARLES FREDERICK, an eminent musician, was a native of Germany, and a disciple of Sebastian Bach. During nearly ten years he was in the band of the electoral king of Poland at Dresden; but, the calamities of war having reduced that court to a close economy, he left Dresden in 1758, with only three dollars in his pocket, and proceeded to the next small German capital, where his talents procured a temporary supply. In 1759 he made his way to England, where he soon obtained notice and reward. He was first patronized by the duke of York, and appointed chamber-musician to the queen, with a salary of 200*l. per annum*. In 1763, in conjunction with John Christian Bach, he established a weekly concert by subscription, which was well supported; and he had as many private pupils as he chose to teach. Abel performed on several instruments; but that to which he chiefly attached himself was the *viol da gamba*. He died June the 20th, 1787.

Dr. Burney gives the following character of his compositions and performance:—"His compositions were easy and elegantly simple; for he used to say, 'I do not choose to be always struggling with difficulties, and playing with all my might. I make my pieces difficult whenever I please, according to my disposition, and that of my audience.' Yet in nothing was he so superior to himself, and to other musicians, as in writing and playing an *adagio*, in which the most pleasing, yet learned modulation, the richest harmony, and the most elegant and polished melody, were all expressed with such feeling, taste, and science, that no musical production or performance with which I was then acquainted seemed to approach nearer to perfection. The knowledge Abel had acquired in Germany in every part of musical science rendered him the umpire of all musical controversies, and caused him to be consulted in all difficult points. His concertos and other pieces were very popular, and were frequently played on public occasions. The taste and science of Abel were rather greater than his invention, so that some of his later productions, compared with those of younger composers, appeared somewhat languid and monotonous.

Yet he preserved a high reputation in the profession till his death."

ABEL, CLARKE, a traveller of considerable scientific attainments, who accompanied Lord Amherst to China, as chief medical officer and naturalist to the embassy. In 1818 he published a "Narrative of a Journey in the Interior of China, and of a Voyage to and from that Country in the Years 1816 and 1817," with maps and other engravings. This work comprises a valuable essay on the geology of the Cape of Good Hope. Dr. Abel, who was a member of the Linnean, Geological, and Asiatic Societies, and of the Medical and Physical Society of Calcutta, also held the office of surgeon to the governor-general of India. His death took place in December 1826, during a journey through the upper provinces of that country.

ABEL, FREDERICK GOTTFRIED, a theologian and physician, was born July 8th 1714. In 1731 he commenced his theological studies at Halberstadt, under the celebrated Mosheim, and a year after removed to Halle, where he attended the lectures of Wolfe and Baumgarten, and often preached with much applause. In a few years, however, he gave up his theological pursuits, studied medicine, and in 1744 was admitted to the degree of doctor at Königsberg. On his return to Halberstadt, he practised as a physician above half a century, and died Nov. 23, 1794. He is said to have been uncommonly successful in practice, yet had very little faith in medicine, and always prescribed such remedies as were cheap and common. Probity, modesty, and humanity, were the most striking features of his character. While studying medicine at Halle, he did not neglect polite literature. He made some poetical translations, particularly one of Juvenal into German, which he published in 1788.

ABEL, GASPER, a native of Halberstadt, and an eminent historian of the last century. He was born at Hindenburg, in 1676, and in 1710 published the history of Prussia and Brandenburg. He was also the author of "*Historia Monarchiarum orbis antiqui*," published at Leipsic; a Greek Archæology, which appeared in 1738; and a translation of Boileau. He died at Westdorf in 1763.

ABELA, JOHN FRANCIS, the historian of Malta, born in that island about the end of the sixteenth century, descended from an illustrious family, which became extinct on his death. He entered of the order of the knights of Jerusalem, and distinguished himself so as to attain, before 1622, the title of vice-chancellor, and at last that of commander. He is principally known by a very valuable work, entitled, "*Malta Illustrata*." In this volume the author has displayed great learning, and has accumulated a fund of information on every part of the history of his country. It is divided into four books, comprehending the topography and actual state of the island of Malta, its ancient history, churches, convents, and an account of the grand masters and most distinguished families and individuals. A few particulars of his life are incidentally noticed, by which it appears that he had travelled over the greatest part of Europe, in quest of ancient books and remains of antiquity, and corresponded with the most eminent scholars of his time.

ABELARD, PETER.—One of the most distinguished teachers of the twelfth century, and who, in point of scholastic learning, was as much in advance of the age in which he lived as the great

Lord Bacon of our own country was in advance of the rest of the world in physical science. He was born at Paris, a small town of France, in the neighbourhood of Nantes, in the year 1079. His father, who was a gentleman of fortune, insured him all the advantages of a liberal education, and in his twentieth year he fixed his residence in the university of Paris, at that time the first seat of learning in Europe. His master there was William de Champeaux, an eminent philosopher, and highly skilful in the dialectic art. At first he was submissive and attentive to his preceptor, who repaid his assiduity by the intimacy of friendship; but the scholar soon began to contradict the opinions of the master, and obtained some victories in contending with him, which so hurt the feelings of the one, and inflamed the vanity of the other, that a separation became unavoidable, and Abelard, confident in his powers, opened a public school of his own, at the age of twenty-two, at Melun, a town about ten leagues from Paris, and occasionally the residence of the court.



While Abelard confesses the ambition, or rather restless vanity, which induced him to take this step, it must at the same time be allowed that he had not overrated the qualifications he could bring into his new office. Notwithstanding every kind of obstacle which the jealousy of his former master contrived to throw in his way, his school was no sooner opened than it was attended by crowded and admiring auditories; and, as this further advanced his fame, he determined to remove his establishment to Corbeil, near Paris, where he could maintain an open contest with his old rival. This was accordingly executed; the disputations were frequent and animated; Abelard proved victorious, and de Champeaux was compelled to retire with considerable loss of popular reputation. After an absence of two years spent in his native country for the recovery of his health, which had been impaired by the intemperance of his studies and the agitation incident to such disputes, Abelard found, on his return to Corbeil, that de Champeaux had taken the monastic habit among the regular canons in the convent of St. Victor, but that



he still taught rhetoric and logic, and held public disputations in theology. On this he immediately renewed his contests, and with such success that the scholars of his antagonist came over in crowds to him, and the new professor, who had taken the former school of de Champeaux, voluntarily surrendered the chair to our young philosopher, and even requested to be enrolled among his disciples. De Champeaux, irritated at a mortification so public and so decisive, employed his interest to obtain the appointment of another professor, and to drive Abelard back to Melun. Means like these, even in an age not remarkable for liberality, were not likely to serve de Champeaux's cause; and the consequence was that even his friends were ashamed of his conduct, and he was under the necessity of retiring from the convent into the country. Abelard then returned to Paris, took a new station at the abbey on Mount Genevieve, and soon attracted to his school the pupils of the new professor. De Champeaux, returning to his monastery, made another feeble attempt, which ended in another victory on the part of his rival, but, being soon after made bishop of Chalons sur-Marne, a termination was put to their contests.

Abelard now determined to quit the study and profession of philosophy, and turned his thoughts to theology. Accordingly, leaving his school at St. Genevieve, he removed to Laon, to become a pupil of the celebrated Anselme; but his excessive vanity seems to have induced him to quarrel with his new master, whom he openly attempted to rival. His better feelings shortly after induced him to remove from the neighbourhood, and he opened a school in the most crowded part of Paris. Abelard's new establishment was crowded with scholars; and from this time he united in his lectures the sciences of theology and philosophy, with so much reputation that multitudes repaired to him, not only from various parts of France, but from Spain, Italy, Germany, Flanders, and Great Britain.

An incident now occurred in his life which has given him more popular renown than his abilities as a philosopher, a theologian, or a writer, could have conferred, but which has thrown a melancholy stain on his moral character. About this time, there was resident in Paris Heloise, the niece of Fulbert, one of the canons of the cathedral church, a lady about eighteen years of age, of great personal beauty, and highly celebrated for her literary attainments. Abelard conceived an illicit passion for this young lady, and Fulbert, who thought himself honoured by the visits of so eminent a scholar and philosopher, welcomed him to his house, as a learned friend whose conversation might be instructive to his niece. The canon was afterwards prevailed upon, by a handsome payment which Abelard offered for his board, to admit him into his family as an inmate. When this was concluded upon, he requested him to devote some portion of his leisure to the instruction of Heloise, at the same time granting him full permission to treat her in all respects as his pupil. Abelard accepted the trust, and, as we gather from his own evidence, with no other intention than to betray it. "I was no less surprised," he says, "than if a shepherd had delivered up a tender lamb to a wolf." In this infamous design he succeeded but too well, and when the consequences of her crime became apparent it was found advisable for her to quit her uncle's

house. Abelard then conveyed her to Bretagne, where she was delivered of a son, to whom they gave the name of Astrolabas. Abelard now proposed to Fulbert to marry his niece, provided the marriage might be kept secret, and Fulbert consented; but Heloise, out of regard to the interest of Abelard, whose profession bound him to celibacy, at first gave a peremptory refusal. Abelard, however, at last prevailed, and they were privately married at Paris; but in this state they did not experience the happy effects of mutual reconciliation. The uncle wished to disclose the marriage, which was thus to be based on deception, but Heloise denied it; and from this time he treated her with such unkindness as furnished Abelard with a sufficient plea for removing her from his house, and placing her in the abbey of Benedictine nuns, in which she had been originally educated. Fulbert pretended that Abelard had taken this step in order to rid himself of an incumbrance which obstructed his future prospects. Deep resentment took possession of his soul, and he meditated revenge, in the pursuit of which he employed some ruffians to enter Abelard's chamber by night, and inflict upon his person a disgraceful and cruel mutilation, which was accordingly perpetrated. The ruffians, however, were apprehended, and punished according to the law of retaliation; and Fulbert was deprived of his benefice, and his goods were confiscated.

Abelard, unable to support his disgrace, resolved to retire to a convent; but first insisted upon Heloise's promising to devote herself to religion. She accordingly submitted, and professed herself in the abbey of Argenteuil. Her romantic ardour of affection supported her through this sacrifice, and seems never to have forsaken her to the latest moment of her life. A few days after she had taken her vows, Abelard assumed a monastic habit in the abbey of St. Denys; but, upon the earnest solicitations of his admirers and scholars, he resumed his lectures at a small village in the country, and with his usual popularity. His rival professors, however, soon discovered an opportunity of bringing him under the ecclesiastical censure. A treatise which he published about this time was said to contain some heretical tenets respecting the Trinity. The work was accordingly presented to the archbishop of Rheims as heretical; and, in a synod called at Soissons in the year 1121, it was condemned to be burnt by the author's own hand: he was further enjoined to read, as his confession of faith, the Athanasian creed, and was ordered to be confined in the convent of St. Medard; but this arbitrary proceeding excited such general dissatisfaction that, after a short imprisonment, he was permitted to return to St. Denys. But here, too, his enemies endeavoured to bring him into new disgrace. Having read in Bede's Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles that St. Dionysius, or St. Denys, was not the Areopagite, he adduced this passage as a proof that the patron of the convent, and of the French nation, was not the person the monks had represented. A violent ferment was immediately raised in the convent; and Abelard, being accused to the bishop and the king as a calumniator of the order, and an enemy to his country, found it necessary to escape with a few friends to the convent of St. Ayoul, at Provins, in Champagne, the prior of which was his intimate friend. But even here persecution followed him, until at length, with difficulty, he obtained permission to retire to some

solitary retreat, on condition that he should never again become a member of a convent.

The spot which he chose was a vale in the forest of Champagne, near Nogent upon the Seine, where, accompanied by only one ecclesiastic, he erected a small oratory, which he dedicated to the Trinity, but afterwards enlarged, and consecrated it to the Third Person, the Comforter, or Paraclete. In this asylum he was soon discovered, and followed by a train of scholars. A rustic college arose in the forest, and the number of his pupils soon increased to 600. But his enemies St. Norbert and St. Bernard, who enjoyed great popularity in this neighbourhood, conspired to bring him into discredit, and he was meditating his escape, when, through the interest of the duke of Bretagne, and with the consent of the abbot of St. Denys, he was elected superior of the monastery of St. Gildas, in the diocese of Vannes, where he remained several years.

About this time Suger, the abbot of St. Denys, on the plea of an ancient right, obtained a grant for annexing the convent of Argenteuil, of which Heloise was now prioress, to St. Denys, and the nuns, who were accused of irregular practices, were dispersed. Abelard, informed of the distressed situation of Heloise, invited her, with her companions, eight in number, to take possession of the Paraclete. Happy in being thus remembered in the moment of distress, she joyfully accepted the proposal; a new institution was established; Heloise was chosen abbess; and, in 1127, the donation was confirmed by the king. Abelard, now abbot of St. Gildas, paid frequent visits to the Paraclete, till he was obliged to discontinue them through fear of his enemies the monks, who not only endeavoured to injure him by gross insinuations, but carried their hostility so far as to make repeated attempts upon his life.

It was during Abelard's residence at St. Gildas that the interesting correspondence passed between him and Heloise, which is still extant, and that he wrote the memoirs of his life. The letters of Heloise in this correspondence abound with proofs of genius, learning, and taste, which might have graced a better age. It was from these letters that Mr. Pope formed his "Epistle from Eloisa to Abelard," which, however, deviates in many particulars from the genuine character and story of Heloise, and is yet more seriously censurable on account of its immoral tendency. Here, too, Abelard probably wrote his "Theology," or revised it, which again subjected him to prosecution. William, abbot of St. Thierry, the friend of Bernard, now abbot of Clairvaux, brought a formal charge against him for heresy in thirteen articles, copied from the "Theology." Bernard, after an unsuccessful private remonstrance, accused Abelard to Pope Innocent II. of noxious errors and mischievous designs. Abelard, with the concurrence of the archbishop of Sens, challenged his accuser to appear in a public assembly, shortly to be held in that city, and make good his accusation. The abbot at first declined accepting the challenge; but afterwards made his appearance, and delivered to the assembly the heads of his accusation. Abelard, instead of replying, appealed to Rome, which did not prevent the council from examining the charges, and pronouncing his opinions heretical. It was, however, judged necessary to inform the bishop of Rome of the proceedings, and to request his confirmation of the sentence. In the mean time Bernard, by letters

written to the Roman prelates, strongly urged them to silence, without delay, this dangerous innovator. His importunity succeeded; for the Pope, without waiting for the arrival of Abelard, pronounced his opinions heretical, and sentenced him to perpetual silence and confinement. Immediately upon being informed of the decision, Abelard set out for Rome, in hopes of being permitted to plead his cause before his holiness. In his way he called at Cluni, a monastery on the confines of Burgundy, where he found a zealous friend in Peter Maurice, the abbot, and also in Reinardus, the abbot of Cîteaux, who negotiated a reconciliation between him and Bernard, while Peter, by his earnest remonstrances, procured his pardon at Rome, and he was permitted to end his days in the monastery of Cluni.

In this retreat he passed his time in study and devotion, with occasional intervals of instruction which the monks solicited; but his health began to decay, and he expired April 21, 1142, in the priory of St. Marcellus, near Chalons, to which he had been removed for the benefit of the change of air. His character is thus summed up by the Rev. Mr. Berrington, his elegant and tolerably impartial biographer:—"He was born with uncommon abilities; and in a better age, had they been directed to other purposes, their display might have given more solid glory to their possessor, and more real advantage to mankind. But he was to take the world as he found it, for he could not correct its vicious taste, nor, indeed, did he attempt it. On the contrary, the vicious taste of the age seemed to accord with the most prominent features of his mind. He loved controversy, was pleased with the sound of his own voice, and, in his most favourite researches, rather looked for quibbles and evasive sophistry than for truth and the conviction of reason. He was a disputatious logician, and his divinity was much of the same complexion.

"When we consider him as a writer, not much more can be added to his praise. He is obscure, laboured, and inelegant: nor do I discover any traces of that genius and vivid energy of soul which he certainly possessed, and which rendered him so formidable in the schools of philosophy. Even when he describes his own misfortunes, and is the hero of his own tale, the story is languid, and it labours on through a tedious and digressive narration of incidents. In his theological tracts he is more *jeune*, and in his letters he has not the elegance, nor the harmony, nor the soul of Heloise. Therefore did we not know how much his abilities were extolled by his contemporaries, what encomiums they gave to his pen, and how much the proudest disputants of the age feared the fire of his tongue, we certainly should be inclined to say, perusing his works, that Abelard was not an uncommon man.

"Nor was he uncommon in his moral character. He had not to thank nature for any great degree of sensibility, that source of pain and of pleasure, of virtue and of vice. Thrown, from early youth, into habits which could not meliorate his dispositions, he became selfish, opinionative, and vain-glorious. What did not serve to gratify his own humour called for little of his regard. He wished to appear above the common feelings of humanity, for his philosophy was not of a nature to make him the friend of man. Of religion he knew little more than the splendid theory; and its amiable precepts were too obvious



and familiar to engage the attention, and modify the heart, of an abstruse and speculative reasoner. When he loved Heloise, it was not her person, nor her charms, nor her abilities, nor her virtues, which he loved: he sought only his own gratification; and in its pursuit no repulsion of innocence could thwart him, no voice of duty, of friendship, of unguarded confidence, could impede his headlong progress. He suffered: and from that moment rather he became a man. More than other men, he was not free to command his affections: and from motives of religion, perhaps even of compassion, he wished in her breast to check that ardent flame which burned to no other purpose than to render her heart miserable, and her life forlorn.

"To erase these unfavourable impressions which the mind has conceived of Abelard, we must view him in distress, smarting from oppression and unprovoked malevolence. There was in his character something which irritated opposition, whether it was a love of singularity, an asperity of manners, or a consciousness of superior talents, which he did not disguise. However this might be, the behaviour of his enemies was always harsh, and sometimes cruel; and him we pity. He now became a religious, a benevolent, and a virtuous man; and thousands reaped benefit from his instructions, as they were tutored by his example. The close of his unhappy life was to the eye of the Christian spectator its most brilliant period. In his death he was the great and good man, the philosopher and the Christian."

In what manner Heloise received the tidings of Abelard's death is uncertain. She requested, however, that his body might be sent for interment to the Paraclete, and this was said to have been in consequence of a wish formerly expressed to her by Abelard. Her request was complied with, and the remains of her lover were deposited in the church with much solemnity. For one-and-twenty years after the death of Abelard the name of Heloise scarcely occurs in the page of history, but all accounts agree that at the time of her death, which occurred in 1163, she was a pattern of every Christian virtue, and during the latter part of her life she was generally seen at prayers at her husband's tomb.



She expired on Sunday, May 17, 1163, in the 63rd year of her age, and her body was placed in the same

tomb that had been erected for Abelard. They were repeatedly removed to different parts of the church of the Paraclete, and ultimately found a resting place in the beautiful Gothic tomb which now adorns the cemetery of Père la Chaise in Paris. The present appearance of this monument is depicted in the previous engraving, and it may be right to add that our portrait of Abelard is copied from the monumental effigy placed on the tomb.

The most complete edition of the works of Abelard is entitled, "*Petri Abaelardi et Heloisæ Conjugis ejus Opera, nunc primum edita ex MSS. codd. Francisci Ambesii*," Paris, 1616, in 4to.

ABELL, JOHN, an English musician, who was very celebrated for a fine counter-tenor voice, and for his skill on the lute. Charles II. appointed him leader of the royal band, and he continued in the chapel at Whitehall till the revolution, when he was discharged, as he belonged to the church of Rome. Upon this he went abroad, and distinguished himself by singing in public in Holland, at Hamburg, and other places, where, acquiring considerable wealth, he set up a splendid equipage, though at intervals he was so reduced as to be obliged to travel through whole provinces with his lute slung at his back.

After having rambled for many years, he probably returned to England; for, in 1701, he published at London a collection of songs in several languages, with a dedication to King William.

ABEN-EZRA, ABRAHAM, a celebrated rabbi, born at Toledo, in Spain, in 1099, called by the Jews the wise, great, and admirable doctor, was a very able interpreter of the holy scriptures, and was well skilled in grammar, poetry, philosophy, astronomy, and medicine. He was also a perfect master of the Arabic. His style is in general clear, elegant, concise, and much like that of the holy scriptures; he almost always adheres to the literal sense, and every where gives proofs of his genius and good sense: he however advances some erroneous sentiments, and his conciseness sometimes makes his style obscure. He travelled in most parts of Europe, visiting England, France, Italy, Greece, &c., for the purpose of acquiring knowledge, and far surpassed his brethren both in sacred and profane learning. He wrote a variety of theological, grammatical, and astronomical works, many of which still remain in manuscript. He died in 1174 at the island of Rhodes.

ABERCROMBIE, JOHN, a horticultural writer of some celebrity, to whose taste and writings the science of gardening is considerably indebted. He was born near Edinburgh, and, to increase his knowledge in the different branches of gardening, he came to London at the age of eighteen, and worked at Hampton Court, St. James's, and Kensington royal gardens. He commenced his literary labours by the publication of a work entitled "*Mawe's Gardener's Calendar*." The flattering reception which this experienced induced Mr. Abercrombie to publish "*The Universal Dictionary of Gardening and Botany*," under his own name. This was followed by "*The Gardener's Dictionary*," "*The Gardener's Daily Assistant*," "*The Gardener's Vade Mecum*," "*The Kitchen Gardener and Hot-Bed Forcer*," "*The Hot-House Gardener*," &c. &c. Some of these are hasty compilations, without much display of botanical knowledge: but they were in general popular, and most of them were translated into French, Ger-

man, and other modern languages. He died in 1806, in the eightieth year of his age.

**ABERCROMBY, PATRICK**, a physician and historian, who was the son of Alexander Abercromby, of Fetternear, in Aberdeenshire. He was born at Forfar, in the county of Angus, in 1656, and educated in the university of St. Andrews, where he took the degree of doctor of medicine in 1685. He was much attached to the study of antiquities, and published, "The Mar-tail Achievements of Scotland," 2 vols. folio in 1711 and 1715. The first volume abounds in the marvellous, but the second is valuable on account of its accurate information respecting the British history in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. He wrote also a treatise on Wit, in 1686, which is now little known, and translated M. Beague's very rare book, "*L'Histoire de la Guerre d'Escoce*," 1556, under the title of "The History of the Campaigns of 1548 and 1549." He died according to some accounts in the year 1716, according to others in 1726.

**ABERCROMBY, SIR RALPH, K. B.**, a British officer of great bravery and talents, who was born at Tillibodie in Clackmannanshire, in 1738, and, after a liberal education, entered into the army. His first commission was that of cornet in the third regiment, of dragoon guards, dated March 23, 1756. In the month of February, 1760, he obtained a lieutenancy in the same regiment, and soon after a company in the third regiment of horse. In this last regiment he rose to the rank of major and lieutenant-colonel. In November, 1780, he was included in the list of brevet colonels, and in 1781 was made colonel of the king's Irish infantry. On Sept. 26, 1787, he was promoted to the rank of major-general.



Soon after the war broke out on the continent, in 1792-3, he was employed there, and had the local rank of lieutenant-general conferred upon him. He commanded the advanced guard in the action on the heights at Cateau, and was wounded at Nimeguen. On every occasion his bravery and skill procured him the warmest praise of the commander in chief, and of the army. In the unfortunate retreat from Holland, in the winter of 1794, the guards as well as the sick were left under his care, whom he

conducted with the utmost humanity, amidst many painful scenes, during the disastrous march from Deventer to Oldensall. In 1795 he was made knight of the Bath, and appointed commander in chief of the forces in the West Indies. On his arrival, he obtained possession of the island of Grenada; and soon after of the settlements of Demerara and Essequibo, in South America. His next conquests were the islands of St. Lucia and St. Vincent's; and in February 1797 the Spanish island of Trinidad capitulated to him. This successful campaign being concluded, he returned to Europe, and had the command conferred upon him of the second or North British dragoons, and had been before his arrival promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and was appointed lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Wight, from which he was in 1798 removed to the higher office of governor of Fort Augustus and Fort St. George. Previous to this he was appointed commander in chief in Ireland. In this situation he laboured to maintain the discipline of the army, and to suppress the rising rebellion, which had been concerted between the disaffected in that country and the French government; he also protected the people from the inconveniences of military government with a care and skill worthy of a great general, and an enlightened and beneficent statesman. But, circumstances rendering it necessary that the civil and military command of that country should be invested in the same person, he was removed to the chief command in Scotland, where his conduct gave universal satisfaction.

When the great enterprise against Holland was undertaken, Sir Ralph Abercromby held a principal command under his royal highness the duke of York; and it was confessed, even by the enemy, that no victory could have conferred more honour than the great talents, activity, and bravery he displayed in forwarding the purposes of that unfortunate expedition.

A more favourable enterprise, however, soon afforded our gallant countryman an opportunity of immortalizing his name. This was the memorable expedition employed in 1801 to drive the French out of Egypt. To this destination Sir Ralph conducted the English army and fleet in perfect health and spirits, and landed at Aboukir on the 8th of March 1801, after a severe battle, in which the English were victorious. The landing, the first dispositions, the attack, and the courage opposed to attack, the high confidence of the army in their general, and the decided superiority of the British infantry under his command over the French which was thought the bravest and best-disciplined infantry in Europe, all demonstrated that the best qualities of the greatest commanders were united in Sir Ralph Abercromby.

After having repulsed the French in a general attack upon our army near Alexandria, the French, on the 21st March, made a second attack, which was contested with unusual obstinacy, and they were again forced to retreat. On this memorable occasion he received a mortal wound in the thigh, which he concealed until the enemy were totally routed, when he fell from his horse through loss of blood. He was conveyed from the field of battle on board the admiral's ship, where he died on the 28th, and was interred under the castle of St. Elmo, in La Valetta, in the island of Malta. The following just and admired tribute to his memory was contained in the despatch from lord Hutchinson, who succeeded him



in the chief command:—"We have sustained an irreparable loss in the person of our never-to-be-sufficiently-lamented commander-in-chief, Sir Ralph Abercromby, who was mortally wounded in the action, and died on the 28th of March. I believe he was wounded early; but he concealed his situation from those about him, and continued in the field, giving his orders with that coolness and perspicuity which had ever marked his character, till long after the action was over, when he fainted through weakness and loss of blood. Were it permitted for a soldier to regret any one who has fallen in the service of his country, I might be excused for lamenting him more than any other person; but it is some consolation to those who tenderly loved him that, as his life was honourable, so his death was glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country, will be sacred to every British soldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful posterity." In private life Sir Ralph in his manners had somewhat of reserve; but was truly amiable, honourable, and virtuous, attached to his country and to his profession, and in every relative duty most exemplary.

As a testimony of national regard, the House of Commons unanimously voted a monument to his memory in St. Paul's cathedral, of which we subjoin a sketch.



Sir Ralph left four sons, and his widow was created baroness Abercromby, with remainder to her issue male by her late husband. A pension of 2000*l.* per annum was also settled on her ladyship and the three succeeding inheritors of the title.

ABERLI, JOHN LOUIS, an eminent artist, who was born at Winterthur, in Switzerland, in 1723. After receiving some instructions from an inferior artist, he studied under John Griman, and at first painted portraits, but his inclination led him to prefer the delineation of landscape scenery, in which he acquired a high degree of excellence. In 1759 he went with a pupil to Paris, but, returning to Switzerland, he settled at Berne, where, after having been held in very high esteem for many years, he died in 1786.

ABERNETHY, JOHN, an eminent dissenting minister in Ireland, was born Oct. 19, 1680. Having spent some years at a grammar school, he was removed to Glasgow College, where he continued till he took the degree of M. A. His own inclination led him to the study of physic, but he was dissuaded from it by his friends, and turned to that of divinity, in pursuance of which he went to Edinburgh, and was some time under the care of professor Campbell. On his return home, he proceeded in his studies with

such success that he was licensed to preach by the presbytery before he was twenty-one years of age. In 1708 he was placed over a dissenting congregation at Antrim. His congregation was large, and he applied himself to the pastoral work with great diligence. In 1716 he attempted, with some success, to remove the prejudices of the native Irish in the neighbourhood of Antrim, who were of the catholic persuasion, and bring them over to the protestant faith, for which he was much praised.

Abernethy, having involved himself in a controversy respecting church government, was removed from the established body of preachers, and ultimately came to Dublin, where he applied himself to study and to the composing of sermons with great industry. He wrote all his sermons at full length, and constantly made use of his notes in the pulpit. Here he continued his labours for ten years with much reputation; and died in December, 1740, in the sixtieth year of his age.

The most celebrated of his writings were his two volumes of "Discourses on the Divine Attributes." Four volumes of "Posthumous Sermons" were likewise published, the first two in 1748, and the others in 1757, to which is prefixed a life of the author.

ABERNETHY, JOHN.—This distinguished surgeon, who has the merit of having founded a new school in which dietetics is made to form a prominent feature in the treatment of disease, was born in 1765.



His parents having removed to London in his childhood, he received a portion of his classical education at a day-school in Lothbury, and in 1780 he was apprenticed to one of the surgeons at Bartholomew's hospital, after which he studied under John Hunter. Having commenced practice in his profession, he succeeded Mr. Percival Pott, at St. Bartholomew's, both as a surgeon to the institution and a lecturer on anatomy and surgery. His first literary production was a small volume of "Physiological Essays," which was speedily followed by a surgical tract describing a new and ingenious method of treating the dangerous disease called a lumbar abscess. The death of Dr. Andrew Marshal, a popular lecturer in Holborn, left Mr. Abernethy for some time without a rival, as an anatomical professor, in the central part of the metropolis; and on the decease of his old master, Sir

Charles Blicke, he became one of the principal surgeons to Bartholomew's hospital.

In 1804 Mr. Abernethy published his "Surgical Observations, part the second, containing an Account of Disorders of the Health in general, and of the Digestive Organs in particular, which accompany Local Diseases and obstruct their Cure." This last work especially procured him a considerable accession of fame, and was the means of adding greatly to his private practice, in cases of dyspepsia, in the treatment of which he was eminently successful. His name also appeared as a contributor to the last edition of Dr. Rees's Cyclopaedia, for which he wrote the anatomical articles under the first two letters of the alphabet. Having been appointed anatomical lecturer to the Royal College of Surgeons, he published in 1814 two lectures delivered before the college, under the title of "An Enquiry into the Probability and Rationality of Mr. Hunter's Theory of Life." Following the steps of that distinguished anatomist, he thus elucidated his views with respect to the nature of the living principle:—

"We perceive," observes Mr Abernethy, "an exact correspondence between those opinions which result from physiological researches, and those which so naturally arise from the suggestions of reason, that some have considered them as intuitive. For those reflecting persons in all ages have believed, and indeed it seems natural to believe, what modern physiology also appears to teach, that in the human body there exists an assemblage of organs formed of common inert matter, such as we see after death, a principle of life and action, and a sentient and rational faculty, all intimately connected, yet each apparently distinct from the other.

"So intimate, indeed, is the connection as to impose on us the opinion of their identity. The body springs and bounds as though its inert fabric were alive, yet we have good reasons for believing that life is distinct from organization. The mind and the actions of life affect each other. Failure or disturbance of the actions of life prevent or disturb our feelings, and enfeeble, perplex, or distract our intellectual operations. The mind equally affects the actions of life, and thus influences the whole body. Terror seems to palsy all its parts, whilst contrary emotions cause the limbs to struggle and become contracted from excess of energy. Now, though these facts may countenance the idea of the identity of mind and life, yet we have good reasons for believing that they are perfectly distinct: whilst, therefore, on the one hand, I feel interested in opposing those physiological opinions which tend to confound life with organization, I would, on the other, equally oppose those which confound perception and intelligence with mere vitality."

He thus concludes:—

"Thus my mind rests at peace in thinking of the subject of life as it has been taught by Mr. Hunter; and I am visionary enough to imagine that if these opinions should become so established as to be generally admitted by philosophers,—that if they once saw reason to believe that life was something of an invisible and active nature superadded to organization,—they would then see equal reason to believe that mind might be superadded to life as life is to structure. They would then, indeed, still further perceive how mind and matter might reciprocally operate on each other by means of an intervening

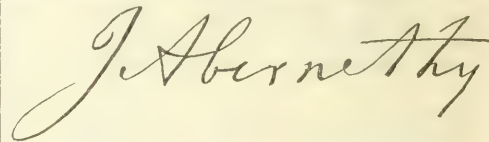
substance. Thus, even, would physiological researches enforce the belief which, I may say, is natural to man—that, in addition to his bodily frame, he possesses a sensible, intelligent, and independent mind, an opinion which tends, in an eminent degree, to produce virtuous, honourable, and useful actions."

Mr. Abernethy was now known as an active contributor to several medical works, and his literary compositions very much partook of his conversational style. He is occasionally eccentric and rambling, but there is a vein of good sense and deep scientific research pervading the whole.

To this distinguished physiologist belongs the great merit of first perceiving that most local diseases are symptoms of a disordered constitution, not primary and independent maladies, and that they are to be cured by remedies calculated to make a salutary impression on the general frame, not by topical dressing nor any mere manipulation of surgery. This single principle changed the aspect of the entire field of surgery, and elevated it from a manual art into the rank of a science. And to this first principle he added a second, the range of which is perhaps somewhat less extensive, but the practical importance of which is scarcely inferior to that of the first, namely, that this disordered state of the constitution either originates from, or is rigorously allied with, derangements of the stomach and bowels, and that it can only be reached by remedies which first exercise a curative influence upon these organs.

After having most successfully pursued his professional labours through a long life, he died at his house at Enfield, April 18th, 1831.

An exact fac-simile of his autograph, a short time prior to his death, is given in the subjoined wood-cut.



ABILDGAARD.—There were two brothers, of some celebrity, bearing this name. Nicholas Abraham, one of the brothers, was a distinguished historical painter. He was born at Copenhagen in 1744; and, having studied at the Academy of Artists in his native city, he completed his professional education during a five years' residence in Italy. On his return to Denmark he rose to great eminence, and at the time of his death, in 1809, he was director and professor of painting at the academy of Copenhagen, where his lectures were well attended.

Philip Christian Abildgaard was also a native of Copenhagen. He was one of the principal founders of the veterinary school in that city; and in 1789 he assisted in the formation of the Society of Natural History there. In the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen, of which he was secretary, are several papers which he wrote relating to medicine, zoology, and mineralogy; and he gave a description of the Megatherium, an immense animal of an extinct species, contemporaneously described by Cuvier.

ABLE, THOMAS, an English divine of some celebrity, was educated at Oxford, where he took the degree of B.A. in July, 1513, and became doctor of divinity. He was not only a man of learning, but a master of instrumental music, and well skilled in



the modern languages. These qualifications introduced him at court, where he became domestic chaplain to Queen Catherine, wife of Henry VIII., and taught her music and grammar. Strype calls him "the lady Marie's chaplain." In 1530 Queen Catherine gave him the living of Bradwell-juxta-mare, in Essex; and the affection he bore to his royal mistress engaged him in that dangerous controversy which was occasioned by King Henry's determination to divorce Catherine, that he might be at liberty to marry Anne Boleyn. In the stat. 25 Henry VIII. c. 12, he is mentioned as having "caused to be printed *divers* books against the said divorce and separation—animating the said lady Catherine to persist in her opinion against the divorce—procured *divers* writings to be made by her by the name of Queen—and abetted her servants to call her Queen." In 1534 he was prosecuted for being concerned in the affair of Elizabeth Barton, called the Holy Maid of Kent, and was found guilty of misprision of treason. He was also one of those who denied "the king's supremacy of the church," for which he was imprisoned, and afterwards hanged, drawn, and quartered in Smithfield, on the 30th of July, 1540.

ABNEY, SIR THOMAS, an eminent magistrate of the city of London. He was born January, 1639; and, as his mother died in his infancy, his father placed him at Loughborough school, in Leicestershire, to be under the eye of his aunt, lady Bromley. In 1693 he was elected sheriff of London, and, in the following year, he was chosen alderman of Vintry ward, and about the same time received the honour of knighthood from King William. In 1700 he was lord-mayor, and employed his influence in favour of the protestant religion with much zeal. He had the courage, at this critical juncture, when the king of France had proclaimed the Pretender king of Great Britain, to propose an address from the corporation to King William, although opposed by the majority of his brethren on the bench, and he completely succeeded. The example being followed by other corporations, this measure proved of substantial service to the king, who was thereby encouraged to dissolve the parliament, and take the sense of the people, which was almost universally in favour of the protestant succession. The zeal Sir Thomas had displayed in this affair, as well as his steady adherence to the civil and religious privileges established by the revolution, rendered him so popular that his fellow-citizens elected him their representative in parliament. He was also one of the first promoters of the bank of England, and for many years before his death was one of its directors. He died Feb. 6, 1721-2, aged eighty-three, after having survived all his senior brethren of the court of aldermen, and become the father of the city. He was a man of strict piety and independence of mind, and munificent in his charities. The most remarkable circumstance of his hospitality is the kind and lasting asylum which he provided for the celebrated Dr. Watts, at his house at Stoke Newington. That eminent divine was attacked by an illness in 1712, which incapacitated him for public service. "This calamitous state," says Dr. Johnson, "made the compassion of his friends necessary, and drew upon him the attention of Sir Thomas Abney, who received him into his house, where, with a constancy of friendship and uniformity of conduct not often to be found, he was treated for thirty-six years

with all the kindness that friendship could prompt and all the attention that respect could dictate. Sir Thomas died about eight years afterwards, but he continued with the lady and her daughters to the end of his life."

ABRESCH, FREDERIC LOUIS, an eminent Greek scholar and commentator, was born at Hamburg, on the 29th of December, 1699. At the age of thirteen, he went to a French town, to learn that language; and made so much progress within seven months that it appeared to be his native tongue. On his return home, he studied Latin and Greek; and, as his father designed him for the church, he was sent, in 1717, to the college of Herborn, a small town in the principality of Nassau-Dillenburg, where, for two years and a half, he went through a course of philosophy, and studied Hebrew and divinity. In 1720, he removed to the university of Utrecht, where the instructions of the celebrated Drakenburgh and Duker inspired him with a decided taste for ancient literature, and he gave up divinity. About the end of 1723, when he had finished his studies at Utrecht, and wished to go through the same course at Leyden, he was appointed vice-director of the college of Middleburgh. In 1725 he was promoted to be rector of the same college; and, in 1741, he filled the same office in that of Zwol, in Overysse, where he remained until his death, in 1784.

At Middleburgh he became first known to the learned world by many valuable criticisms on ancient authors, Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Hecyhius, Aeschylus, &c., which he published in a literary journal, then printed at Amsterdam, under the title of "*Miscellaneæ Observationes Criticæ in Auctores Veteres et Recentiores.*" Some of these have his name appended, others are marked by an H. or H. L., or P. B. A. A. H., and the fictitious name or Petrobasilius. He published also separately many critical works which are still held in high estimation.

ABRIANI, PAUL, of Vincenza, was a priest of the Carmelite order, and a professor at Genoa, Verona, Padua, and Vincenza. In 1654 he quitted the religious habit; and died at Venice, 1699, in the ninety-second year of his age. He published various works, of which his most celebrated is entitled "*Funghi*," because the various parts grew, as he said, like mushrooms in his uncultivated mind.

ABULFARAGIUS, GREGORY, commonly called Ibn-Hakima a learned physician and historian, who was born in 1226, in the city of Malatia, in Armenia. He applied himself diligently to the study of the Greek, Syriac, and Arabic languages, as well as philosophy and divinity; and he wrote a history, which does honour to his memory. It is written in Arabic, and divided into dynasties. It consists of ten parts, being an epitome of universal history from the creation of the world to his own time. Dr. Pococke published it with a Latin translation in 1663, at Oxford, and added, by way of supplement, a short continuation relating to the history of the Eastern princes.

Abulfaragius was ordained bishop of Guba at twenty years of age. In 1247 he was promoted to the see of Iacabena, and some years after to that of Aleppo. About the year 1266 he was elected prime of the Jacobites in the east.

The eastern nations are generally extravagant in their applause of men of learning, and have bestowed the highest encomiums and titles upon Abul-

faragius, as, the prince of the learned, the most excellent of those who most excel, the example of his times, the phoenix of his age, the glory of wise men, &c. Gibbon regards him as "eminent both in his life and death. In his life he was an elegant writer of the Syriac and Arabic tongues, a poet, physician, and a moderate divine. In his death, his funeral was attended by his rival the Nestorian patriarch, with a train of Greeks and Armenians, who forgot their disputes, and mingled their tears over the grave of an enemy." His death took place in 1286.

ABULFEDA, ISHMAEL, a learned Arabian geographer and historian. He was born at Damas in Syria in 1275, succeeded in 1310 to the rights of his ancestors, the emirs and sheiks of Hamah. He did not however obtain peaceful possession before the year 1319, and in 1320 was acknowledged sultan or king by the caliph of Egypt. He died in 1331, or 1332. His writings form a lasting monument of his knowledge in geography and history; they are, however, much too numerous to be separately described.

ABULGASI, BAYATUR, a celebrated khan of the Tartars. He was born in the city of Urgens, capital of the country of Khorasn, in the year 1605. He was the fourth in order of birth of seven brothers, and descended in a direct line from Zingis khan. His youth was marked by misfortunes, which contributed not a little to form his character, and to fit him for the government of his kingdom when he came to be sovereign, which took place in the year 1645. He reigned twenty years; and, by his conduct and courage, rendered himself formidable to all his neighbours. A short time before his death he resigned the throne to his son Anuscha Mohammed Bayatur khan, in order to devote the remainder of his life to the service of God. It was after he retired from the throne that he wrote the celebrated "Genealogical History of the Tartars."

The following is a specimen of the style of this historian:—"There is but one God; and before him none other did ever exist, as after him no other will be. He formed seven heavens, seven worlds, and eighteen creations. By him, Mahommed, the friend of God, was sent, in quality of his prophet, to all mankind. It is under his auspices that I, Abulgasi Bayatur khan, have taken in hand to write this book. My father, Araep Mohammed khan, descended in a direct line from Zingis khan, and was, before me, sovereign prince of the country of Khorasn. I shall treat in this book of the house of Zingis khan, and of its origin, of the places where it was established, of the kingdoms and provinces it conquered, and to what it arrived at last. It is true that, before me, many writers, both Turks and Persians, have employed their pens on this subject; and I have in my own possession eighteen books of these several authors, some of which are tolerably well composed. But, perceiving that there was much to correct in many places of these books, and in other places a number of things to be added, I thought it necessary to have a more accurate history, and, especially as our countries are very barren in learned writers, I find myself obliged to undertake this work myself; and, notwithstanding that before me no khan has thought proper to take this trouble upon him, the reader will do me the justice to be persuaded that it is not from a principle of vanity that I set up for an author, but that it is necessity alone

that prompts me to meddle in this matter,—that, if I were desirous of glorying in any thing, it could, at most, be only in that conduct and wisdom which I hold as the gift of God, and not from myself. For, on one hand, I understand the art of war as well as any prince in the world, knowing how to give battle equally well with few troops as with numerous armies, and to range both my cavalry and my infantry to the best advantage. On the other hand I have a particular talent in writing books in all sorts of languages, and I know not whether any one could easily be found of greater ability than myself in this species of literature, except indeed in the cities of Persia and India; but, in all the neighbouring provinces of which we have any knowledge, I may venture to flatter myself that there is nobody that surpasses me either in the art of war or in the science of good writing; and, as to the countries that are unknown to me, I care nothing about them. Since the flight of our holy prophet, till the day that I began to write this book, there have elapsed 1074 years [1663 of the Christian era]. I call it a Genealogical History of the Tartars; and I have divided it into nine parts, in conformity with other writers, who universally hold this number in particular regard."

ACCA, ST., bishop of Hexham, in Northumberland, who succeeded Wilfrid in that see, in the year 709. He was a monk of the order of St. Benedict, an Anglo-Saxon by birth, and had his education under Bosa, bishop of York; and was then taken under the patronage of Wilfrid, whom he accompanied in a journey to Rome. Here he improved himself in ecclesiastical usages and discipline, which his historian, Bede, tells us it was impracticable for him to learn in his own country. This prelate, by the help of architects, masons, and glaziers, hired in Italy, highly ornamented his cathedral, furnished it with plate and holy vestments, procured a large collection of the lives of the Saints, and formed a noble library, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical learning. About the year 732 he was driven from his see into banishment, but for what cause is unknown. He was esteemed a very able divine, and was remarkably skilled in church music. He not only revived and improved church music, but introduced the use of many Latin hymns hitherto unknown in the northern churches of England. Acca wrote the following works:—"Passiones Sanctorum," or the Sufferings of the Saints; "Officia suæ Ecclesiæ;" and "Epistolæ ad Amicos;" a treatise also for explaining the scriptures, addressed to Bede, which occurs, or at least part of it, in the catalogue of the Bodleian library. He died in the year 740, having governed the church of Hexham twenty-four years, under Egbert king of the Northumbrians. His body was buried with great solemnity in the church at Hexham.

ACCARISI, FRANCIS, an eminent Italian civilian, who was born in Ancona, and studied at Sienna, where Bargalio taught the civil law with considerable reputation. Bargalio very much promoted his studies, and appears to have entertained a high opinion of his talents. The first public employment Accarisi obtained was that of explaining Justinian's Institutes in Sienna, which he continued for six years. He was afterwards desired to explain the Pandects; and, as several foreigners resorted to Sienna for the purpose of pursuing their studies, the great Duke Ferdinand I. ordered that a professor should



be appointed to explain the civil law, in the same manner as Cujacius had done. Accarisi was chosen for this purpose, and acquitted himself very honourably, after which he was raised to the chair of law-professor in ordinary, vacant by the death of Bargalio, and filled it with great reputation for twenty years. His fame spread so far that every university in Italy wished to have him, and made him very liberal offers, which he long resisted. At length his patron, Duke Ferdinand, nominated him law-professor in the university of Pisa, which he occupied until his death, which took place in October, 1622.

ACCIAIOLI, DONATO, an eminent Florentine, born in 1428. His first preceptors were James Ammanati, afterwards cardinal of Pavia, and Leonard d'Arezzo. He afterwards studied Greek under Argyropilus, and became one of the first Greek scholars of his time. Excelling in rhetoric, philosophy, and mathematics, he would have attained a very high rank in the republic of letters, if his weak state of health, and the part he took in the affairs of his country, had not interrupted his studies. He filled several employments in the state, and gave universal satisfaction. In 1475 he was gonfalonier, or ensign of the republic, and died in 1478, at Milan, when on his way to Paris, as ambassador from the Florentines. This circumstance was a subject of the sincerest grief to the Florentines; and a sumptuous funeral was decreed to his remains, which were brought to Florence for that purpose. Lorenzo de Medici and three other eminent citizens were appointed curators of his children, and the daughters had considerable portions assigned them from the public treasury. The celebrated Angelo Politian wrote his epitaph, and Christopher Landino pronounced the funeral oration. His principal works are "*Expositio super libros Ethicorum Aristotelis, in novam traductionem Argyropili*," published at Florence in 1478, and a Latin history of Florence, by Leonard d'Arezzo, translated into Italian, which has been often reprinted.

ACCOLTI, BENEDETTO, a celebrated lawyer and historian of the fifteenth century, and the first of that ancient Tuscan family who acquired a name for literary talents, was born at Arezzo, in 1415. After a classical education, he studied the civil law, and was made professor at Florence, where his opinions acquired him much popularity. The Florentines, after conferring on him the rights of citizenship, chose him in 1459 to be secretary of the republic, in the room of Poggius, which office he retained until his death in 1466. The account of his transactions in public affairs is preserved in four books, with an extensive collection of his letters to foreign princes, which evince his sagacity as a statesman. He married Laura Frederigi, the daughter of a lawyer and patrician of Florence, by whom he had a numerous family. His memory is said to have been so retentive that on one occasion, after hearing the Hungarian ambassador pronounce a Latin address to the magistrates of Florence, he repeated the whole word for word. His inclination for the study of history made him relax in the profession of the law, and produced "*De bello à Christianis contra Barbaros gesto, pro Christi sepulchro et Judæa recuperandis, libri quatuor*." This is a work of considerable historical credit, and in the succeeding century served as a guide to Torquato Tasso, in his immortal poem, the "*Gerusalemme Liberata*."

ACCOLTI, BERNARD, one of the sons of the preceding, and, on account of the great fame of his poetry, called *L'Unico*; but such of his works as have descended to our days are not calculated to preserve the very extraordinary reputation which he enjoyed from his contemporaries. According to them, no fame could be equal to what he obtained at the court of Urbino and at Rome, in the time of Leo X. When it was known that the *Unico* was to recite his verses, the shops were shut, and all business suspended; guards were necessary at the doors, and the most learned scholars and prelates often interrupted the poet by loud acclamations. The testimony of his contemporaries, and among them of the Cardinal Bembo, will not permit us to doubt that his merit was extraordinary; but it is probable that he owed his fame more to his talents at extempore verse than to the excellence of his studied performances. In the latter, however, there is an elegance of style and often the fancy and power of true poetry. His poems were first printed at Florence in 1513. In this volume, his comedy of *Virginia*, written, according to the custom of the age, in the ottava rima and other measures, obtained its name from a natural daughter, whom he gave in marriage to a nobleman, with a large dowry. Leo X., who had an esteem for him, gave him the employment of apostolic secretary, and is likewise said to have given him the duchy of Nepi; but Accolti informs us, in one of his letters to Peter Aretin, that he purchased this with his own money, and that Paul III. afterwards deprived him of it. The dates of his birth and death are not known; but he was living in the time of Ariosto, who mentions him as a person of great consideration at the court of Urbino.

ACCORSO, or ACCURSIUS, FRANCIS, an eminent lawyer, who first collected the various opinions and decisions of his predecessors in the Roman law into one body, was born at Florence in 1151, or, according to some writers, in 1182. He was the scholar of Azzo, and soon became more celebrated than his master. By dint of perseverance for seven years, he accumulated the vast collection of laws and authorities known by the title of the "*Great Gloss*," or the "*Continued Gloss*," of Accursius. The best edition of his great work is that of Denis Godefroi, published at Lyons in 1589, in six volumes folio. Of his private life we have no important materials. He lived in splendour at a magnificent palace at Bologna, or at his villa in the country; and died in 1229. All his family, without exception, studied the law; and he had a daughter, a lady of great learning, who gave public lectures on the Roman law in the university of Bologna.

ACCORSO, or ACCURSIUS, FRANCIS, eldest son of the preceding, was professor of law at Bologna, where he attained great reputation. When Edward I., king of England, passed through Bologna, in 1275, after his return from the Holy Land, he wished to engage Accursius to teach law in the French provinces under his dominion; but the government of Bologna, unwilling to part with so able a professor, threatened to confiscate his goods if he dared to leave the city. Accursius however took his leave, and, after having taught law at Toulouse for three years, was invited to Oxford by King Edward, and lodged in his palace at Beaumont. The king gave him also the manor of Martlegh, and in the grant styles him "*dilectus et fidelis Secretarius noster*;" and in an-

other charter, "illustris regis Angliæ consiliarius." In 1276 he read lav lectures at Oxford. In 1280 he returned to Bologna, and was restored to his chair and his property. His death took place in 1321. None of his writings remain.

ACCORSO, or ACCURSIUS, MARIANGELUS, a distinguished Neapolitan, who flourished in the beginning of the sixteenth century, and lived for thirty-three years in the court of Charles V. He was well acquainted with the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and German languages, was one of the most indefatigable antiquaries of the age, and enriched Naples with a great number of monuments of antiquity. His favourite employment was to correct the editions of ancient authors by the aid of manuscripts, which he sought out with great care; and his first work is a lasting proof of his industry and acuteness. This was his "Diatribæ in Ausonium, Solinum, et Ovidium," published at Rome in 1524. The frontispiece is an engraving of antique statues, among which are the Apollo Belvidere and a Minerva, and two bas-reliefs of the rape of Proserpine and the death of Meleager. At the end of the work is a fable entitled "Testudo."

This writer has left an example of an author's jealousy, and fear of being thought a plagiarist, which is too curious to be omitted. Having been accused of owing his notes on Ausonius to Fabricio Varano, bishop of Camarino, he endeavoured to clear himself by the following very solemn oath:—"In the name of God and man, of truth and sincerity, I solemnly swear, and, if any declaration be more binding than an oath, I in that form declare, and I desire that my declaration may be received as strictly true, that I have never read or seen any author from which my own lucubrations have received the smallest assistance or improvement, nay, that I have even laboured, as far as possible, whenever any writer has published any observations which I myself had before made, immediately to blot them out of my own works. If in this declaration I am forsworn, may the pope punish my perjury; and may an evil genius attend my writings, so that whatever in them is good, or at least tolerable, may appear to the unskilful multitude exceedingly bad, and even to the learned trivial and contemptible; and may the small reputation I now possess be given to the winds, and regarded as the worthless boon of vulgar levity."

ACHARD, ANTHONY, a learned Prussian divine, who was born at Geneva in 1696, took orders in 1722, and in 1724 was promoted to the church of Werder in Berlin. He enjoyed the protection of the prince-royal of Prussia; and, having in 1730 accompanied the son of M. de Finkenstein to Geneva, was admitted into the society of pastors. Eight years after, the king of Prussia appointed him counsellor of the supreme consistory, and in 1740 a member of the French directory, with the title of Privy-counsellor. Having been received into the academy of Berlin in 1743, he was also appointed inspector of the French college, and director of the Charity-house. He died in 1772. Two volumes of "Sermons sur Divers Textes de l'Ecriture Sainte" were published at Berlin after his death.

ACHARD, CLAUDE FRANCIS, a French physician, secretary to the academy of Marseilles, and librarian of that city, was born in 1753, and died in 1809. His principal work is entitled, "Dictionnaire de la Provence et du Comtat Venaissin."

ACHARD, FREDERIC CHARLES, born at Berlin, April 28, 1754, an eminent naturalist and chemist, and principally known by his invention, in 1800, of a process for manufacturing sugar from beet-root, which, since that time, has been brought to great perfection. To enable him to extend his manufacture, the great importance of which was acknowledged by the French Institute, the king of Prussia, in 1800, presented him with an estate at Kunern, in Silesia, where his establishment, at the time of the closing of the ports of Europe by the decree of Berlin, was attended with such success that, in the winter of 1811, it daily yielded 300lbs of beet syrup. Achard connected with it, in 1812, an institution for the purpose of teaching his mode of manufacture, which attracted the attention of foreigners. He died at Kunern, April 20, 1821. Besides a number of treatises on physic and agriculture, he published several articles on the manufacture of sugar from beet-root.

ACHARDS, ELEAZAR-FRANCIS DE LA BAUME DE, was born at Avignon, in 1679, of a noble and ancient family. After having embraced the ecclesiastical profession, he became not only distinguished by the excellence of his doctrines, but particularly by his charitable exertions during the plague in 1721, and his subsequent promotions had no other effect on him than to increase his zeal and his piety. Pope Clement XII., informed of his talents and conciliating spirit, employed him in the capacity of apostolic vicar, to settle the disgraceful disputes that had arisen among the missionaries of China. Achards, who was then bishop of Halicarnassus, undertook this commission; and after a tedious voyage of two years, and two years' residence in China, where he ineffectually laboured to accomplish the object of his mission, died at Cochín, in 1741, a martyr to his indefatigable and benevolent zeal. The Abbé Fabre, his secretary, published an account of this mission, under the title of "Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses sur la Visite Apostolique de M. de la Baume, eveque d'Halicarnasse, à la Cochinchine."

ACHEN, or ACH, JOHN VAN, an eminent painter, who was born at Cologne, in 1556, of a good family. He discovered a taste for his art from his earliest years, and at the age of eleven painted a portrait with such success as to induce his parents to encourage his studies. After having been for some time taught by a very indifferent painter, he became the disciple of Jerrigh, with whom he remained six years, and afterwards improved himself by studying and copying the works of Spranger. In his twenty-second year he went to Italy, and was introduced at Venice to a Flemish artist named Gaspard Reims, who employed necessitous artists that he might make a trade of their labours. With him Van Achen made some copies, but, being dissatisfied with the reception which Reims had given him, he painted his own portrait, and sent it to him. Reims was so struck with the performance that he apologized to Van Achen, took him into his house, and preserved the portrait with great care. His best performances at Rome were, a Nativity for the church of the Jesuits, and a portrait of Madona Venusta, a celebrated performer on the lute. He died at Prague in 1621.

ACHENWALL, GODFREY, by some considered as the father of the science of Statistics, was born at



Elbing, in Prussia, October 20, 1719. He received his academical education at Jena, Halle, and Leipsic. In 1746 he took up his residence at Marburg, where he taught history, the law of nature and nations, and statistics, but at first confined himself to a knowledge of the constitutions of the different states. In 1748 he went to Gottingen, where, some years after, he became one of the professors of that university, and one of its greatest ornaments: here he remained until his death, in May, 1772. He had often travelled in Switzerland, France, Holland, and England; and published several works on the states of Europe, and political law and economy. Those in highest estimation are his "Constitution des Royaumes et Etats d'Europe," and "Elementa Juris Naturæ," of which six editions were printed in a very short time. In his researches on the subjects of national wealth, resources, and means of prosperity, he availed himself of the observations of previous historians and travellers, and was much assisted by Hermann Conring, of Helmstadt, and Eberhard Otto, who had made large collections for the same purpose.

ACHERI, LUKE D', a Benedictine of the congregation of St. Maur, was born at St. Quintin, in Picardy, in 1609. He soon became celebrated as the editor of valuable manuscripts which lay buried in libraries. In 1648 he collected into one volume the "Life and Works of Lanfranc, archbishop of Canterbury." The Life is taken from an ancient manuscript in the abbey of Bec; and the works are commentaries on the epistles of St. Paul, taken from a manuscript in the abbey of St. Melaine de Rennes, and a treatise on the Sacrament, against Berenger. The appendix contains the Chronicle of the Abbey of Bec from its foundation in 1304 to 1437; the Life of St. Herluin, founder and first abbot, of some of his successors, and of St. Austin the apostle of England, and some treatises on the eucharist. His most considerable work is "Veterum aliquot Scriptorum, qui in Galliæ Bibliothecis, Maxime Benedictinorum, latuerunt, Spicilegium," &c. 1653—1677. This work appeared in thirteen volumes, 4to. Under the modest title of Spicilegium, it contains a very curious collection of documents pertaining to ecclesiastical affairs; as acts, canons, councils, chronicles, lives of the saints, letters, poetry, diplomas, charters, &c., taken from the libraries of the different monasteries. Acheri lived a life of much retirement, seldom going out, or admitting trifling visits, and thus found leisure for those vast labours already noticed, and which procured him the esteem of the popes Alexander VII. and Clement X., who honoured him with medals. Although of an infirm habit, he attained the age of seventy-six, and died in the abbey of St. German-des-Pres, April 29, 1685. He was interred under the library of which he had the care for many years, and where his literary correspondence is preserved. Dupin says he was one of the first learned men that the congregation of St. Maur produced.

ACHILLINI, ALEXANDER, a celebrated native of Bologna, where he was born October 29, 1463, was a philosopher and a physician, and professed both those sciences with great reputation. He had scholars from all parts of Europe. He died in his own country in August 1512, at the age of forty, with the surname of "the great philosopher," after having published various works on anatomy and medicine. To him is ascribed the discovery of the small bones

in the organs of hearing. His philosophical works were printed in one volume folio, at Venice, in 1508, and reprinted with considerable additions in 1545, 1551, and 1568. His principal medical works are "Annotationes Anatomicae," and "De Humani Corporis Anatomia." The latter was published at Venice, in 1521.

ACHILLINI, CLAUDE, grand-nephew of the preceding, was born at Bologna in 1574. After studying grammar, the belles lettres, and philosophy, he entered on the study of the law, and prosecuted it with so much success that he was honoured with a doctor's degree at the age of twenty, and became a professor of that science at Bologna, Ferrara, and Parma, where he acquired great reputation. His learning was so much admired that an inscription to his honour was put up in the public schools, and both popes and cardinals gave him hopes, which were never realized, of making his fortune. Towards the end of his life he lived principally in a country house called Il Sasso, and died there on the 1st of October, 1640. His body was carried to Bologna, and interred in the tomb of his ancestors in the church of St. Martin. He is principally known now by his poetry, in which he was an imitator of Marino, and with much of the bad taste of his age. It has been asserted that he received a gold chain worth a thousand crowns from the court of France, for a poem on the conquests of Louis XIII.; but this reward was sent him by the Cardinal Richelieu, in consequence of some verses he wrote on the birth of the dauphin. His poems were printed at Bologna, in 1632, and were reprinted with some prose pieces, under the title "Rime e Prose," at Venice, in 1651.

ACIDALIUS, VALENS, a young man of great erudition, whom Baillet has enrolled among his "Enfans celebres," and who would have proved one of the ablest critics of his time had he enjoyed a longer life, was born at Wistock, in the march of Brandenburg, in 1567. In his seventeenth year he composed some poetical works of considerable merit. In 1589 he went to Helmstadt to pursue his studies, and there published some of his poems, which were reprinted after his death at Leipsic, in 1605, with those of Janus Lernutus and Janus Guelmus. From Helmstadt, Acidalius went to Italy in 1590, and acquired the esteem and friendship of the most distinguished scholars. Before he went to Italy, he had begun his commentary on Paternus, and published his edition of that author at Padua. After remaining three years in Italy, he returned to Germany; and at Neiss, the residence of the bishop of Breslaw, he embraced the Roman Catholic religion. At this place he continued his critical researches on Quintus Curtius, Plautus, the twelve ancient Panegyrist, Tacitus, and some other authors. In 1594 he published at Frankfort, his "Animadversiones in Quintum Curtium;" but his sudden death, in 1595, at the age of twenty-eight, put a stop to his useful labours.

ACKERMAN, JOHN CHRISTIAN GOTTLIEB, a physician and medical writer of considerable eminence in Germany, and professor of medicine at Altdorf, in Franconia, was born in 1756, at Zeulendorf in Upper Saxony. His father was a physician, and initiated his son in that science at a very early age. When scarcely fifteen he prescribed with success for many of his friends during a dangerous epi-

demic which prevailed in Otterndorf. He afterwards finished his studies at Jena and Göttingen, under Baldinger, and became a very excellent classical scholar under the celebrated Heyne. After having practised medicine in his own country for some years, and distinguished himself by various translations of Italian, French, and English works, as well as by his original compositions, he was appointed to the professorship at Altdorf. He was also a member of various medical societies; and his practice is said to have been as successful as his theory of disease was sound. He died at Altdorf in 1801. His principal work is entitled "*Institutiones Historiæ Medicinæ*."

ACOSTA, JOSEPH D', a celebrated Spanish author, born at Medina del Campo, about the year 1539. At the age of fourteen, he entered the society of the Jesuits, where he had already four brothers, all of whom he excelled in knowledge and enterprise. In 1571 he went to the East Indies, and became second provincial in Peru. In 1588 he returned to Spain, and acquired the good opinion of Philip II., by entertaining him with accounts of the New World. He then went to Italy, to render a more particular account to the general of the Jesuits, Claude Aquaviva, with whom he had afterwards a difference, of little importance now, relative to certain ecclesiastical offices, and became superior of the order at Valladolid, and rector of Salamanca, at which last place he died, February 15, 1600. He wrote "*Historia Natural y Moral de las Indias*," which was published at Seville, in 1590, to which was afterwards added "*De Natura Novi Orbis, libri duo*."

ACOSTA, URIEL, a Portuguese, born at Oporto towards the close of the sixteenth century. He was educated in the Catholic religion, which his father also sincerely professed, though descended from one of those Jewish families who had been forced to receive baptism. Uriel had by nature a good temper and disposition; and religion had made so deep an impression upon his mind that he ardently desired to conform to all the precepts of the church. He applied with constant assiduity to reading the scriptures and religious books, carefully consulting also the Catholic creed; but difficulties occurred, which perplexed him to such a degree, that, unable to solve them, he thought it impossible to fulfil his duty, with regard to the conditions required for absolution. Being dissatisfied with the Catholic doctrines, he began to study Moses and the prophets, where he thought he found more satisfaction than in the gospel, and at length became convinced that Judaism was the true religion; but, as he could not profess it in Portugal, he resigned his place, and embarked for Amsterdam, with his mother and brothers, whom he had ventured to instruct in the principles of the Jewish religion, even when in Portugal. Soon after their arrival in this city they became members of the synagogue, and were circumcised according to custom. A little time was sufficient to show him that the Jews did neither in their rites nor morals conform to the law of Moses, and of this he declared his disapprobation; but the chiefs of the synagogue gave him to understand that he must exactly observe their tenets and customs, and that he would be excommunicated if he deviated from them. This threat, however, had not the slightest weight with him, as he persisted in uttering in-

vectives, and, in consequence, was excommunicated. He then wrote a book in his justification, in which he endeavours to show that the rites and traditions of the Pharisees are contrary to the writings of Moses; and soon after adopted the opinions of the Sadducees, asserting that the rewards and punishments of the old law relate only to this life, because Moses nowhere mentions the joys of heaven nor the torments of hell. The Jews now made application to the magistrates of Amsterdam; and informed against him, as one who wanted to undermine the foundation of both Jewish and Christian religions, upon which he was thrown into prison, all the copies of his works were seized, and he himself fined 300 florins. Nevertheless, he proceeded still further in his scepticism. He now began to examine whether the laws of Moses came from God; and he at length found reasons to convince himself that it was only a political invention. Yet such was his inconsistency that he returned to the Jewish church, after he had been excommunicated fifteen years; and, after having made a recantation of what he had written, subscribed every thing as they directed. Shortly after he was accused by a nephew of not conforming to the laws of the synagogue. On this he was summoned before the grand council of the synagogue; and it was declared that he must be again excommunicated. The Jews then again expelled him from their communion; and he afterwards suffered various hardships and persecutions. After remaining seven years in a most wretched situation, he at length declared he was willing to submit to the sentence of the synagogue, having been told that he might easily accommodate matters; they made him, however, undergo the penance in its utmost rigour. These particulars, relating to the life of Acosta, occur in his work entitled "*Exemplar Humanæ Vitæ*," published and refuted by Limborch. It is supposed that he composed it a few days before his death, after having determined to lay violent hands on himself. He executed this final crime a little after he had failed in his attempt to kill his principal enemy; for, the pistol with which he intended to have shot him as he passed his house having missed fire, he immediately shut the door, and shot himself with another pistol. This event took place at Amsterdam, but in what year is not exactly known; but most authors are inclined to place it in 1640, or 1647.

ACREL, OLAUS, a very eminent Swedish surgeon and physician, who was born near Stockholm in the beginning of the eighteenth century. He studied first at Upsal, and afterwards at Stockholm, under the ablest practitioners in physic and surgery. In 1745 he took up his residence in Stockholm, where for half a century he was considered as the first man in his profession. During that period he was appointed director-general of all the hospitals in the kingdom, had titles of nobility conferred upon him, was created a knight of Vasa, and became commander of that order. He died in 1807, at an advanced age. He published several valuable works in the Swedish language, the principal of which are, "*Observations on Surgery*," and "*A Discourse on reforms in Surgical Operations*."

ACRON, HELENIVS, the name of an ancient scholiast on Horace, who flourished in the seventh century. His scholia were published under the title "*Expositio in Horatii Flacci Opera*." It forms the third edition of Horace, according to Dr. Har-



wood, and is so scarce as to have escaped the notice of Maittaire. Fabricius mentions Acron among the ancient commentators on Terence and Persius.

ACROPOLITA, GEORGE, one of the writers in the Byzantine history, was born at Constantinople in the year 1220, and brought up at the court of the Emperor John Ducas, at Nice. In his one-and-twentieth year he maintained a learned dispute with Nicholas the physician, concerning the eclipse of the sun, before the emperor John. John Ducas sent him ambassador to Larissa, to establish a peace with Michael of Epirus. He was also constituted judge by this emperor, to try Michael Comnenus on a suspicion of being engaged in a conspiracy. Theodorus Lascaris, the son of John, whom he had taught logic, appointed him governor of all the western provinces of his empire. When he held this government, in the year 1255, being engaged in a war with Michael Angelus, he was taken prisoner by him. In 1260, he gained his liberty by means of the emperor Palæologus, who sent him ambassador to Constantine prince of Bulgaria. In 1272 he sat as one of the judges upon the cause of John Vecchus, patriarch of Constantinople. He was sent ambassador to John prince of Bulgaria in 1282, and died soon after his return. His principal work is his "Historia Byzantina."

ACTON, JOSEPH, many years prime-minister to the king of Naples. He was born in 1737, of Irish parents, who had settled at Besançon. Having finished his education he entered the French navy, which he soon quitted for the Tuscan, and was subsequently employed in the Spanish expedition against Barbary, in which he found an opportunity to distinguish himself. This led him to the Neapolitan navy, and ultimately to the Neapolitan court, where he acquired the favour of Queen Caroline. He was successively appointed minister of the navy, minister of war, then director of the finances, and, finally, prime-minister. In this office he contracted an intimacy with the English ambassador, Sir William Hamilton, and, in concert with him, exercised a great and by no means beneficial influence over the fortunes of Naples. His implacable hatred of France led him, during the continuance of the Italian wars, to the most extravagant measures, which always turned out disadvantageously for the royal family, and strengthened the French party, from which that of the Carbonari was afterwards formed. Acton accompanied the king, in 1798, on General Mack's expedition against the French army; and he had previously presided over the celebrated junta, which, to satisfy its hatred against men of different political opinions, with unprecedented cruelty sought out victims from all ranks in society. After the unfortunate issue of General Mack's expedition he was removed from the helm of the Neapolitan government, and died in 1808, hated and despised by all parties.

ACUNA, CHRISTOPHER, a Spanish Jesuit and missionary, was born at Burgos, 1597. He was sent on a mission to the American Indians, and on his return, in the year 1641, published in Spanish, by permission of the king, "Nuevo Descubrimiento del Gran Rio de las Amazonas;" but the projects resulting from his discoveries respecting this river were discountenanced afterwards by the house of Braganza, and Philip IV. ordered all the copies of this curious work to be destroyed, so that for many years two only were known to exist, one in the Vatican library and another in the possession of Marin

Leroi de Gomberville, who translated it into French, and published it, under the title of "Relation de la Riviere des Amazones," Paris, 1682, two vols. 12mo., with a curious dissertation; but some passages of the text are not very faithfully translated. This was afterwards reprinted in the second volume of Wood's Rogers's Voyage round the world. Acuna went to the East Indies some time after the publication of his work, and is supposed to have died at Lima about 1675.

ACUNA, FERNANDO DE, a Spanish poet of considerable talent, who was born at Madrid, in the beginning of the sixteenth century. His first poetical attempt was a translation of Olivier de la Marche's "Chevalier Deliberé," under the title of "El Cavallero Determinando," to which he added an entire book of his own composition. He also composed, in Italian verse, sonnets and eclogues, in which the thoughts are natural and the expression elegant. He succeeded in translating Ovid in verse of nine syllables, which the Spaniards consider as the most difficult in their poetry; and before his death he had begun a translation of Roland from Boyardo, and added four chants, which were thought equal to the original. He died at Grenada in 1580; and in 1591 a collection of his works was published at Salamanca, entitled "Varias Poesias."

ADAIR, JAMES, the name of an English lawyer of some celebrity, who was a native of London, but educated at Peter House, Cambridge, where he took the degree of B. A. in 1764, and of M. A. in 1767. He first distinguished himself in the year 1770, when he took an active part in the political contentions of that period. Having sided with Mr. Wilkes in the memorable dispute between that gentleman and his co-patriot Mr. Horne, Mr. Wilkes spoke of him at political meetings in such favourable terms as to draw the public eye upon him; and in 1779 he was chosen recorder of London. This situation he retained for some years, while his advancement at the bar was rapid, and highly honourable to his talents. The duties of the recordership he discharged with much ability, strict justice, and humanity. The situation, however, was rendered in some degree irksome by the changes of political sentiment which had taken place among his constituents, the members of the corporation. When he was chosen into this office, the city was out of humour with the court, and Mr. Adair probably owed his election to his being reputedly of Wilkes's party, who was still the idol of the city. A great revolution, however, took place when the coalition-administration (that of Lord North and Mr. Fox) was overthrown. Mr. Pitt and his friends, and in consequence the king and court, became highly popular in the city, while Mr. Adair retained his old opinions, took the part of the dismissed ministers, and became a zealous assertor of the Whig principles. In 1789 he resigned his post of recorder, and upon this occasion received the thanks of the Court of Aldermen, and the freedom of the city in a gold box, for his able and upright conduct in that office.

In the parliament of 1780 he sat as member for Cockermonth, but afterwards for Higham Ferrars. When the trials of Hardy, Tooke, and others accused of high treason, were instituted in 1794, 1795, Mr. Adair appeared as one of the counsel for the crown, and was allowed to have acquitted himself with great ability. In 1798, when the country was menaced with threats of invasion, volunteer

offers of service were made to government throughout the whole kingdom, and London and its environs raised a force of about 12,000 men, fully armed, equipped, and trained, at their own expense. Mr. Adair, although his age might have formed a sufficient excuse, joined this band; and, it is thought, fell a sacrifice to the fatigues attending the discipline. The day his *corps* returned from shooting at a target near London, in July 1798, he was seized with a paralytic stroke while walking along Lincoln's Inn, and died in a few hours. He was interred on the 27th in Bunhill Fields' burying-ground, near the ashes of his father and mother.

Mr. Adair was not distinguished for splendid talents, but was considered an able constitutional lawyer; his eloquence was vigorous and impressive, but his voice was harsh, and manner uncourteous. He is said to have been the author of "Thoughts on the Dismission of Officers, Civil and Military, for their Conduct in Parliament;" and "Observations on the Power of Alienation in the Crown before the first of Queen Anne, supported by Precedents, and the Opinions of many Learned Judges; together with some Remarks on the Conduct of Administration respecting the Case of the Duke of Portland," published in 1768.

ADALARD, or ADELARD, a celebrated monk, who was born about the year 753; he was son of Count Bernard, grandson of Charles Martel, and cousin-german of Charlemagne. He had been invited to the court in his youth, but, fearing the moral infection of such a mode of life, had retired; and, at the age of twenty years, became a monk of Corbie in Picardy, and was at length chosen abbot of the monastery. His imperial relation, however, forced him again to attend the court, where he still preserved the dispositions of a recluse, and took every opportunity which business allowed for private prayer and meditation. After the death of Charlemagne he was, on unjust suspicions, banished by Lewis the Meek to a monastery on the coast of Aquitaine, in the isle of Here. After a banishment of five years, Lewis, sensible of his own injustice, recalled Adalard, and heaped on him the highest honours. The monk was, however, the same man in prosperity and in adversity, and in the year 823 obtained leave to return to Corbie. Every week he addressed each of the monks of his monastery separately; he exhorted them in pathetic discourses, and laboured for the spiritual good of the country around his monastery. His liberality seems to have bordered on excess; and his humility induced him to receive advice from the meanest monk. Adalard promoted learning in his monasteries; for he was himself a man of great learning, and instructed the people both in Latin and French. He died in the year 827, aged seventy-three. Such is the account given us of Adalard, a character, there is reason to believe, of eminent piety and usefulness in a dark age. His principal work was "A Treatise on the French Monarchy;" but fragments only of any of his works have come down to our times.

ADALBERON, archbishop of Rheims, and chancellor of France under the reigns of Lothaire and Louis V., was one of the most learned French prelates of the tenth century. Having attained the archbishopric in the year 969, he called several councils for the establishment of ecclesiastical discipline, which he enforced by his example with much firmness of mind. He also induced men of learning to

resort to Rheims, and gave a high degree of celebrity to the schools of that city. In the year 987 he consecrated Hugh Capet, who continued him in his office of grand chancellor. He died in January, 988. Several of his letters are among those of Gerbert, afterwards Pope Sylvester II.; and two of his discourses are in Moissac's Chronicle. The cathedral of Rheims was indebted to him for the greater part of its sumptuous furniture.

ADALBERT, archbishop of Prague, in the tenth century, was one of the first founders of the Christian religion in Hungary. He also preached the gospel in Prussia and Lithuania, where he was murdered by Sego, a pagan priest. His death was amply revenged by Boleslaus, king of Poland.

ADAM, ALEXANDER, LL.D., an eminent Scottish schoolmaster and popular writer, was born June 1741, in the parish of Rafford, in the county of Moray. His parents were poor, but gave him such a well-grounded education as the humblest peasant in this part of our island conceives it his duty to ensure for his children. After having unsuccessfully endeavoured to procure an exhibition at King's College, Aberdeen, he was encouraged, in 1758, to go to the university of Edinburgh, where he surmounted the severest pecuniary difficulties with a virtuous and honourable perseverance, such as is rarely to be found, and improved his opportunities of knowledge with great assiduity and success. In 1761 he was elected schoolmaster to Watson's Hospital, an establishment for the education of the poor, and continued to improve himself in classical knowledge by a careful perusal of some of the best and most difficult authors. In 1767 he was appointed assistant to the rector of the high school of Edinburgh, and in 1771 successor to the same gentleman, and filled this honourable station during the remainder of his life, raising the reputation of the school much higher than it had been known for many years. He would have perhaps raised it yet higher had he not involved himself, not only with his ushers, but with the patrons and trustees of the school, in a dispute respecting the proper grammar to be taught, Dr. Adam preferring one of his own compiling to that of Ruddiman, which had long been used in all the schools in Scotland, and was esteemed as near perfection as any work of the kind that had ever been published. The ushers, or under-masters, were unanimous in retaining Ruddiman's grammar, and Dr. Adam was as resolute in teaching from his own. The consequence was that Dr. Adam taught his class by one grammar, and the four under-masters theirs by another. The inconvenience of this mode was soon felt; and the patrons of the school, who were the magistrates of Edinburgh, after referring the question at issue to the principal of the university, the celebrated Dr. Robertson, together with the professors of the Greek and Latin languages, issued an order in 1786 directing the rector and other masters of the high school to instruct their scholars by Ruddiman's rudiments and grammar, and prohibiting any other grammar of the Latin language from being made use of. Dr. Adam, however, disregarded this and a subsequent order to the same purpose, and continued to use his own rules, in his daily practice with the pupils of his own class, and without being any further interrupted. The work which gave rise to this dispute was published in 1772, under the title of "The Principles of Latin and English Grammar," and is undoubtedly a work of



very considerable merit, and highly useful to those who are of opinion that Latin and English grammar should be taught at the same time.

Soon after this dispute had apparently terminated Dr. Adam compiled "A Summary of Geography and History," for the use of his pupils, which he afterwards enlarged and published in 1794. In 1791, he published "Roman Antiquities," or an account of the manners and customs of the Romans, 8vo. This useful work has been translated into German, French, and Italian, and has been very generally recommended in preference to Dr. Kennet's work on the same subject. In 1800 he published his "Classical Biography," which was originally intended as the appendix to a Latin dictionary on which he had been employed for some years; but the high price of paper, and the great expense of printing such works, discouraged him from carrying into effect his original design. He printed however, in 1805, an abridgment of his dictionary, under the title of "Lexicon Linguae Latinae Compendiarium," 8vo.

Dr. Adam died on the 18th of December, 1809, of an apoplexy, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, universally regretted as an able and successful teacher, a man of high rank in classical literature, and in private life benevolent and amiable. At one period of his life, when the French revolution distracted the political opinions of his country, he incurred some degree of censure for having introduced matters of a political kind into his school. For this no apology can be valid; but it appears that he became afterwards more cautious, and at the period of his death his character was so universally esteemed that his remains were honoured with a public funeral.

ADAM OF BREMEN, so called because he was a canon of that church. He was born, according to some writers, at Misnia in the eleventh century; and in 1067 was made a canon by Adelbert, archbishop of Bremen, and at the same time placed at the head of the school of that city, a situation equally important and honourable at a time when schools were the only establishments for public instruction. Adam employed his whole life in the functions of his office, in propagating religion, and in compiling his work, "*Historia Ecclesiastica Ecclesiarum Hamburgensis et Bremensis Vicinorumque Locorum Septentrionalium.*" This work contains the most accurate account we have of the establishment of Christianity in the north of Europe. As Bremen was the centre of the missions for this purpose, in which Adam was himself engaged, he had the advantage of making valuable collections from the archives of the archbishopric, the library of his convent, and the conversations he held with the missionaries. He lived in an age when the dignified clergy were not inattentive to temporal affairs, and yet acquitted himself with much impartiality in writing the history of his patron Adelbert, a man of intrigue and ambition. He made a tour in Denmark, where he was favourably received by the reigning sovereign; and on his return wrote a geographical treatise, which was published at Stockholm, under the title of "*Chronographia Scandinaviae,*" and afterwards at Leyden, when the work was slightly changed both in its character and title. This short work is added to Mader's edition of his history, and, although not without a portion of the fabulous, is curious as the first attempt to describe the north of Europe, particularly Jutland, and some of the islands in the Baltic. We also owe to Adam of

Bremen the first accounts of the interior of Sweden, and of Russia, the name of which only was then known in Christian Europe. The time of this author's death is not known.

ADAM, JAMES, a French translator, who was born at Vendome in 1663, and, after finishing his studies, entered into the service of the prince of Conti, who appointed him to be his secretary. He translated part of De Thou's history, which has London on the title, but was printed at Paris, in 1734. This he undertook with Charles Le Beau, the abbé's Mascrier, Le Duc, Fontaines, Prevost, and father Fabre. He translated also the memoirs of Montecuculli, Amsterdam, 1734, 12mo., an account of the cardinal Tournon, Athenæus, and other works. He died Nov. 12, 1735.

ADAM, LAMBERT-SIGISBERT, an eminent French sculptor, was born at Nancy, in 1700. At the age of eighteen he came to Metz; but a desire to extend his reputation made him repair to Paris, where he arrived in 1719. After exercising his profession about four years, he obtained the first prize, and then went to Rome, with a royal pension, where he remained ten years. While here he was employed by the cardinal de Polignac in restoring the twelve marble statues known as the "family of Lycomedes," which had been discovered among the ruins of the villa of Marius, about two leagues from Rome, and acquitted himself with great success in a branch of the art which is seldom rewarded or honoured in proportion to its difficulties. He afterwards restored several antique sculptures, of which the king of Prussia had acquired possession, and which he conveyed to Berlin. When an intention was formed of erecting that vast monument at Rome known by the name of the "Fountain of Trevi," he was one of the sixteen sculptors who gave in designs; but, although his was adopted by pope Clement XII., the jealousy of the Italian artists prevented his executing it. At this time, however, advantageous offers were made by his own country, to which he returned, after being chosen a member of the academies of St. Luke, and of Bologna. His first work, after his return to France, was the group of the "Seine et Marne" for the cascade at St. Cloud. He was then employed at Choisi; and, in May 1737, was elected a member of the French academy, and professor. The piece he exhibited on his admission was "Neptune calming the waves," with a Triton at his feet. He then executed the group of "Neptune and Amphitrite" for the bason at Versailles, on which he was employed five years, and was rewarded, besides the stipulated price, with a pension of 500 livres. One of his best works was the figure of "St. Jerome." In 1754 he published "*Recueil de Sculptures Antiques Grecques et Romaines,*" for which he made the designs. He died of an apoplexy on the 15th of May, 1759.

ADAM, NICHOLAS-SEBASTIAN, the brother of the preceding, and likewise an eminent artist, was born at Nancy, March 22, 1705. He studied under his father at Paris, and in 1726 went to Rome. Two years after he gained one of the prizes of the academy of St. Luke. At this time his brother, the subject of the preceding article, and Francis, a younger brother, were at Rome, and assisted each other in their labours. After a residence of nine years, he returned to Paris, and with some opposition was admitted into the academy, where he exhibited his model of "Prometheus," but did not execute it until long after. Next



year he executed the "martyrdom of St. Victoria," a bas-relief in bronze, for the royal chapel at Versailles. For some time he assisted his brother in "the Neptune;" but, a disagreement occurring, quitted this, and employed himself at the hotel Soubise, and the abbey of St. Dennis. The tomb of the queen of Poland, wife of Stanislaus, is esteemed one of his best works. His Prometheus was finished in 1763, and the king of Prussia offered him 30,000 francs for it; but Adam said it was executed for his master, and no longer his own property. He died March 27, 1778, in his seventy-fifth year.

ADAM, MELCHIOR, a very useful biographer, lived in the seventeenth century. He was born in Silesia, and educated at the college of Brieg, where the dukes of that name, to the utmost of their power, encouraged learning and the reformed religion as professed by Calvin. Here he became a firm protestant, and was enabled to pursue his studies by the liberality of a person of quality, who had left several exhibitions for young students. He was appointed rector of a college at Heidelberg, where he published his first volume of *Illustrious Men* in the year 1615. This volume, which consists of philosophers, poets, writers on polite literature, historians, &c., was followed by three others; that which treats of divines was printed in 1619; that of the lawyers came next; and, finally, that of the physicians: the last two were published in 1620. He died in 1622.

ADAM, ROBERT, an eminent architect, was born in 1728, at the town of Kirkcaldy, in Fifeshire, Scotland. He was the second son of William Adam, esq., of Maryburgh, an architect of distinguished merit. He received his education at the university of Edinburgh. To perfect his taste in the science to which he had devoted himself, he went to Italy, and there studied, for some time, the magnificent remains of antiquity which still adorn that country. He was of opinion that the buildings of the ancients are, in architecture, what the works of nature are with respect to the other arts, the only models for our imitation and standards of our judgment. Scarcely any monuments, however, of Grecian or Roman architecture now remain, except public buildings. The private edifices, however splendid and elegant, in which the citizens of Athens and Rome resided, have nearly all perished, few vestiges remaining even of those innumerable villas with which Italy was crowded, although, in erecting them, the Romans lavished the spoils and riches of the world. He conceived that his knowledge of architecture would be imperfect, unless he should be able to add the observation of a private edifice of the ancients to his study of their public works. He therefore formed the scheme of visiting the ruins of the emperor Dioclesian's palace, at Spalatro, in Venetian Dalmatia. To that end, having prevailed on M. Clerisseau, a French artist, to accompany him, and engaged two draughtsmen to assist him in the execution of his design, he sailed from Venice, in June 1757, on his intended expedition, and, in five weeks, he accomplished his object with much satisfaction.

In 1762 he was appointed architect to their majesties. In 1764 he published the result of his researches at Spalatro, in one large folio volume. It was entitled "Ruins of the Palace of the Emperor Dioclesian, at Spalatro, in Dalmatia." It is enriched with seventy-one plates, executed in the most masterly manner. He had at this time been elected a

member of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies. In 1768 he resigned his office of architect to their majesties, it being incompatible with a seat in parliament, and he being this year elected representative for the county of Kinross. By this time, in conjunction with his brother, James Adam, he had been much employed by the nobility and gentry, both in constructing many noble modern edifices and in embellishing ancient mansions. That noble improvement of the metropolis, the *Adelphi*, will long remain an honour to these brothers in art; but, as a speculation, it was not so fortunate. In 1774, however, they obtained an act of Parliament to dispose of the houses by lottery.

The many other elegant buildings, public and private, erected in various parts of the kingdom by Mr. Adam, display a great variety of original designs. To the last moment of his life, he evinced an increasing vigour of genius and refinement of taste; for, in the space of one year preceding his death, he designed eight great public works, besides twenty-five private buildings, so various in their style, and so beautiful in their composition, that they have been considered by the best judges sufficient of themselves to establish his fame as an architect. His talents, too, extended beyond the line of his own profession; and in his numerous drawings in landscape we observe a luxuriance of composition, and an effect of light and shadow, which have scarcely ever been equalled.

His death, which took place at his house in Albemarle Street, London, March 3, 1792, was occasioned by the bursting of a blood-vessel in his stomach. His remains were interred, on the 10th of the same month, in the south aisle of Westminster Abbey.

His brother James died Oct. 20, 1794, also very eminent as an architect, of which that magnificent range of buildings called Portland Place, afford an undeniable proof.—Most of his other works were executed in conjunction with his brother.

ADAM, SCOTUS, a celebrated doctor of the Sorbonne, who flourished in the twelfth century. This author, who is well known as a monkish writer, and a voluminous author of biography, was born in Scotland, and educated in the monastery of Lindisferne, now called Holy Island, a few miles south of Berwick on Tweed, at that time one of the most celebrated seminaries of learning in the north of England. He went afterwards to Paris, where he remained for several years, and taught school divinity in the Sorbonne. In his latter years he returned to his native country, and became a monk in the abbey of Melrose, and afterwards in that of Durham, where he wrote the life of St. Columbanus, and the lives of some other monks of the sixth century. He likewise wrote the life of David I. king of Scotland, and, after a long and active career, died in 1195.

ADAMS, GEORGE, a celebrated maker of mathematical instruments, and author of several works on natural and experimental philosophy. His principal work is entitled "Micrographia." He died March 5th, 1786, and was succeeded in his business by his son, who inherited all his father's talents. George Adams, jun., revised the *Micrographia*, and published a course of lectures on natural and experimental philosophy, &c.

ADAMS, JOHN, second president of the United States of America. This distinguished American was descended from one of the families who founded



the colony of Massachusetts, and was born at Braintree, in that colony, Oct. 19, 1735. Before the revolution which separated America from Great Britain he had acquired much reputation in the profession of the law; and, on the eve of that event, he published "An Essay on Canon and Feudal Law." He afterwards employed his pen in the American newspapers, and contributed essentially to widen the breach between the mother country and her colonies. He was still, however, a friend to loyal measures; and when Captain Preston was tried for his life, for ordering the soldiers to fire upon a mob, pleaded his cause with spirit and eloquence, and Preston was acquitted. This in some measure injured Mr. Adams's character with the more violent party, but had so little effect on the more judicious that he was elected a member of congress in 1774, and re-elected in 1775. He was one of the first to perceive that a cordial reconciliation with Great Britain was impossible; and was therefore one of the chief promoters of the resolution passed July 4, 1776, declaring the American States free, sovereign, and independent.



When, in the course of the war, the States entertained hopes of assistance from the courts of Europe, Mr. Adams was sent, with Dr. Franklin, to that of Versailles, to negotiate a treaty of alliance and commerce. On their return, he assisted in forming a constitution for the state of Massachusetts. He was then employed by America as her plenipotentiary to the States General of Holland, and contributed not a little to bring on the war between those States and Great Britain. He afterwards went to Paris, and assisted in concluding the general peace. His temperate advice, on this occasion, respecting the loyalists, again alarmed the republican party, who began to consider him as a partizan of England. He was the first ambassador America sent to this country, where, with true republican simplicity, and in a manner suitable to the embarrassed finances of his country, he resided on the first floor at a bookseller's house in Piccadilly.

Although America had obtained independence, she still required a form of government or constitution adapted to her rank among other nations, and calculated to concentrate the powers of sovereignty. Mr. Adams was among the first who proposed the present form, and was seconded by Washington, Hamilton, and others, who were termed federalists; and the change took place in 1787. Washington

was elected president, and Mr. Adams vice-president. But the party in opposition to this measure were not silenced; and, when the French revolution took place, they in general were found to attach themselves to the interests of France, in opposition to those of Great Britain. Mr. Adams, however, pursued his even course, and vindicated his principles and theory in an able publication, entitled, "A Defence of the Constitution of Government of the United States of America," which he afterwards republished under the title of "History of the principal Republics." The leading principle which runs through this work is that a mixture of the three powers, the regal, the aristocratical, and the democratical, properly balanced, composes the most perfect form of government, and secures the greatest degree of happiness to the greatest number of individuals.

When Mr. Washington was a second time chosen president, Mr. Adams was again chosen vice-president; and, when the former intimated his intention to retire, Mr. Adams was elected his successor, in preference to Mr. Jefferson, who was the idol of the republican or anti-federalist party.

In 1820 he was elected a member of the convention, to revise the constitution of his state, and chosen its president. This honour he was constrained to decline, on account of his infirmities and great age, being then eighty-five years old; but he attended the convention as a member, and fulfilled the duty incumbent upon him as such. After that, his life glided away in uninterrupted tranquillity, until the 4th of July, 1826, when he breathed his last with the same hallowed sentiment on his lips which on that glorious day, fifty years before, he had uttered on the floor of congress. "Independence for ever" were his dying words. On the morning of the jubilee, he was roused by the ringing of the bells and the firing of canon; and, on being asked by the servant who attended him, whether he knew what day it was, he replied, "O yes! it is the glorious 4th of July—God bless it—God bless you all!" In the course of the day, he said, "It is a great and glorious day;" and, just before he expired, exclaimed, "Jefferson survives." But in this he erred, for at one o'clock, that same day, Jefferson had rendered his spirit into the hands of its Creator.

ADAMS, SIR THOMAS. This distinguished citizen of London was highly esteemed for his prudence and piety as well as his loyalty and sufferings. He was born in 1536, at Wem, in Shropshire, educated in the university of Cambridge, and (Fuller says) bred a draper in London. In 1609 he was chosen sheriff, when he immediately gave up his business, and applied himself wholly to public affairs. He made himself complete master of the customs and usages, rights and privileges, of the city of London, and succeeded to every honour his fellow-citizens had it in their power to bestow. He was chosen master of the draper's company, as well as alderman, and president of St. Thomas's Hospital, which institution he probably saved from ruin by discovering the frauds of a dishonest steward. He was often returned member of parliament; but the violent politics of the times would not permit him to sit there. In 1645 he was elected lord mayor of London, in which office he gave a striking example of disinterestedness, by declining the advantages usually made by the sale of places which become vacant. His loyalty to Charles I. was

so well known that his house was searched by the republican party, to find the king there; and he was the next year committed to the Tower by the same party, and detained there some time. His affection for his prince was so great that during the exile of Charles II. he remitted him 10,000*l*.

When the restoration of the king was agreed on, Mr Adams, then seventy-four years of age, was deputed by the city to accompany General Monk to Breda in Holland, to congratulate and accompany the king home. For his signal services the king knighted him at the Hague; and soon after the restoration advanced him to the dignity of a baronet.

His merit, as a benefactor to the public, is highly conspicuous: he gave the house of his nativity, at Wem, as a free-school to the town, and liberally endowed it; he founded an Arabic professorship at Cambridge; both which took place before his death. He was equally benevolent in private as in public life; and, although he suffered great losses in his estate, he gave liberally in legacies to the poor of many parishes, to hospitals, and minister's widows. He was particularly distinguished for his Christian patience and fortitude in adversity. He died February 24th, 1667.

ADAMS, WILLIAM, D. D., master of Pembroke College, Oxford, was born at Shrewsbury in 1707, of a Shropshire family, and at the early age of thirteen was entered of Pembroke College, where he took his master's degree in 1727, and obtained a fellowship. It has generally been reported that he was afterwards tutor to the celebrated Dr. Samuel Johnson; but Dr. Adams very handsomely contradicted this report by saying that, had Johnson returned to College after Jordan's (his tutor's) death, he might have been his tutor: "I was his nominal tutor, but he was above my mark." A friendship, however, commenced between them, which lasted during the life of Dr. Johnson, to whose memory Dr. Adams did ample justice.

In 1732 he was presented to the vicarage of St. Chad's in Shrewsbury, and on this occasion quitted the college. In 1756 he visited Oxford, and took his degrees of B. D. and D. D., and then went back to Shrewsbury, where he discharged the duties of his ministry with exemplary assiduity, patience, and affection; and contributed a very active part in the foundation of the Salop infirmary, and in promoting its success. In 1775, about forty-three years after he left college, Dr. Ratcliffe, master of Pembroke College, died; and, although Dr. Adams had outlived almost all his contemporaries, the gentlemen of the college came to a determination to elect him, as a mark of respect due to his public character. He accordingly became master of Pembroke, July 26, 1775, and resigned the living of St. Chad. He was soon after made archdeacon of Llandaff. Over the college he presided with universal approbation, and engaged the affections of the students by his courteous demeanour and affability, mixed with the firmness necessary for the preservation of discipline. In his apartments here he frequently cheered the latter days of his old friend Dr. Johnson, whom he survived but a few years, dying at his prebendal house at Gloucester, on the 13th of January 1789, aged eighty-two. He was interred in Gloucester cathedral, where a monument was erected, with an inscription, which celebrates his learning, eloquence, piety, and benevolence.

Dr. Adams's first publications were three occasional sermons, printed 1741, 1742, 1749; but his principal work was an "Essay on Hume's Essay on Miracles," which was long considered as one of the ablest answers that appeared to Mr. Hume's sophistry, and was distinguished for acuteness, elegance, and urbanity of style. Hume, whom he once met in London, acknowledged that he had treated him much better than he deserved.

ADAMSON, PATRICK, a Scottish prelate, archbishop of St. Andrews. He was born in 1543, in the town of Perth, where he received the rudiments of his education, and afterwards studied philosophy, and took his degree of M.A. at the university of St. Andrews. In the year 1566 he set out for Paris, as tutor to a young gentleman. In the month of June in the same year, Mary queen of Scots being delivered of a son, afterwards James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England, Mr. Adamson wrote a Latin poem on the occasion, in which he styled him king of England and France. This proof of his loyalty involved him in some difficulties, causing him to be arrested in France, and confined for six months; but he escaped by the intercession of Queen Mary, and some of the principal nobility. As soon as he recovered his liberty he retired with his pupil to Bourges. He was in this city during the massacre at Paris; and, the same persecuting spirit prevailing amongst the Catholics at Bourges as in the metropolis, he lived concealed for seven months at a public house. Whilst Mr. Adamson lay thus in his "sepulchre," as he called it, he wrote his Latin poetical version of the book of Job, and his tragedy of Herod, in the same language. In 1573 he returned to Scotland; and, having entered into holy orders, became minister of Paisley. In 1575 he was appointed one of the commissioners, by the General Assembly, to settle the jurisdiction and policy of the church; and the following year he was named, with Mr. David Lindsay, to report their proceedings to the earl of Moreton, then regent. About this time the earl made him one of his chaplains, and, on the death of Bishop Douglas, promoted him to the archiepiscopal see of St. Andrews, a dignity which brought upon him great trouble and uneasiness; for he was extremely obnoxious to the presbyterian party. Soon after his promotion, he published his Catechism in Latin verse, a work highly approved, even by his enemies, who, nevertheless, continued to persecute him with great violence. In 1583 King James came to St. Andrews; and the archbishop, preached before him, and disputed with Mr. Andrew Melvil, in presence of his Majesty, with great reputation, which drew upon him fresh calumny and persecution. The king, however, was so well pleased with him that he sent him ambassador to Queen Elizabeth, at whose court he resided for some years. His conduct, during his embassy, has been variously reported by different authors. Two things he principally laboured to accomplish, viz., to recommend the king, his master, to the nobility and gentry of England, and to procure some support for the episcopal party in Scotland. In 1584 he was recalled, and sat in the parliament held in August at Edinburgh. The presbyterian party were still very violent against the archbishop. In April 1586, a provincial synod was held at St. Andrews, where the archbishop was accused and excommunicated: he appealed to the king and the states, but this availed



him but little; for, the mob being excited against him, it became dangerous to appear in public in the city of St. Andrews. In 1588 fresh accusations were brought against him. The year following, he published the Lamentations of the prophet Jeremiah, in Latin verse, which he dedicated to the king, complaining of his hard usage. In the latter end of the same year he published a translation of the apocalypse in Latin verse, and a copy of Latin verses, addressed also to his Majesty, when he was in great distress. The king, however, was so far from giving him assistance that he granted the revenue of his see to the duke of Lennox, and the remaining part of this prelate's life was spent in great wretchedness, he having hardly subsistence for his family. He died in 1591.

ADANSON, MICHEL, an eminent French naturalist, was born at Aix in Provence, April 7, 1727. His father was engaged in the service of Vintimille, then archbishop of that city. When the latter was translated to the see of Paris, Adanson was taken thither at three years of age, educated with great care, and soon gave proofs of uncommon application. As he was small of stature, he appeared much younger than he was; and, when he carried off the university prizes, many jokes were passed upon him. Needham, however, the celebrated naturalist, known by his microscopical discoveries, happening to be a witness of his success, presented him with a microscope, adding that one who knew the works of men so well ought to study those of nature. This circumstance first induced him to study natural history, but without neglecting the usual course pursued in the university of Paris. In natural history Reaumur and Bernard de Jussieu were his guides, and he divided his time between the royal gardens and the museums of those learned men; and, when the system of Linnæus began to be published, it afforded him new matter for speculation. His parents had intended him for the church, but such was his thirst for general science that he determined to travel into some distant land not usually visited or described.

Senegal was the first object of his choice, thinking that its unhealthy climate had prevented its being visited by any other naturalist. Accordingly he set out in 1748, and, after visiting the Azores and the Canaries, landed on the island of Goree, on the coast of Senegal, where he made a vast collection of specimens, animal, vegetable, and mineral, which he classified and described in a manner which he thought an improvement on the systems of Tournefort and Linnæus. He extended his researches also to the climate, geography, and manners of the people. He was engaged in this employment for five years, entirely at his own expense; and, in 1757, published the result in his "*Histoire Naturelle de Senegal*," an abridged translation of which, very ill executed, was published in London in 1759. His classification of the Testacea, in this work, was universally allowed to be new and ingenious. In 1756, soon after his return, having been elected a corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences, he read a paper on the Baobab, or calabash tree, an enormous vegetable, that had almost been accounted fabulous. He would not, however, perhaps, have proceeded in these studies, had it not been for the generous encouragement afforded him by M. de Bombarde, a zealous patron of science. This induced him to publish his "*Familles des Plantes*," in 1763, a work of vast information. But, although this work was neglected

at the time, discoveries have since been advanced as new which are to be found in it. About five years after he determined to publish a new edition, and had made the necessary corrections, and many additions; but, while employed on this, he conceived the more extensive plan of a complete encyclopædia, and he was persuaded that Louis XV. would encourage such an undertaking. Flattered by this hope, he devoted his whole time to the collection of materials. In 1775, having got together an immense quantity, he submitted them to the Academy. The committee appointed to examine his labours did not find the collection equally valuable in all its branches, and therefore he did not meet with the encouragement he expected. His intention was to have published the entire work at once; but it was thought that, if he had published it in parts, he might probably have been successful. After this he published no considerable work, but furnished some papers for the Academy, which have not been printed, and wrote the articles on exotics in the Supplement to the Encyclopædia.

In 1759 he was appointed royal censor; and the emoluments of this place, that of academician, and the pensions successively conferred upon him, might have rendered him easy in his circumstances had he not expended the whole in collecting materials for the vast plan above mentioned. At length the revolution stripped him of all; and, what hurt him more, his garden, on which he had bestowed so much pains, was pillaged. When the Institute was formed, he was invited to become a member; but he answered that he could not accept the invitation, "as he had no shoes." The minister of the interior, however, procured him a pension, on which he subsisted until his death, which occurred in 1806, after an illness of six months. He left behind him an immense number of manuscripts; and, to the last moment of his life, cherished the hope of finishing his great encyclopædia of natural history.

ADDINGTON, STEPHEN, D.D., a dissenting clergyman of considerable learning, who was born at Northampton, in 1729, and educated under Dr. Doddridge. After being admitted to preach, he removed in 1750, to Spaldwick in Huntingdonshire, where, in 1752, he married Miss Reymes of Norwich. A few weeks after his marriage he was called to be minister of a congregation of dissenters at Market Harborough, Leicestershire. His receiving this appointment was owing to a singular occurrence in the history of popular elections. Two candidates had appeared who divided the congregation so equally that a compromise was impossible, unless by each party giving up their favourite, and electing a third candidate, if one could be found agreeable to all. At this crisis Mr. Addington was recommended, and unanimously chosen. In this place he remained about thirty years, and became highly popular to his increasing congregation by the pious discharge of his pastoral duties, and by his conciliatory manners. In 1758 he opened his house for the reception of pupils to fill up a vacancy in the neighbourhood of Harborough, occasioned by the Rev. Mr. Aikin's removal to Warrington. This scheme succeeded; and for many years he devoted nine hours each day to the instruction of his pupils, and compiled several books for their improvement. In 1781 he received an invitation to become pastor of the congregation in Miles's-lane, Cannon-street; and soon after his

removal thither was chosen tutor of a new dissenting academy at Mile-end, where he resided until his growing infirmities, occasioned by several paralytic strokes, obliged him to relinquish the charge. He continued, however, in the care of his congregation till within a few months of his decease, when, from the same cause, he was compelled to discontinue his public services. He died, February 6, 1796, at his house in the Minories.



ADDISON, JOSEPH, one of the most illustrious ornaments of his time, was born May 1, 1672, at Milston near Ambrosbury, Wiltshire, where his father was rector. He received the first rudiments of his education at the place of his nativity, under the Rev. Mr. Naish, but was soon removed to Salisbury, and thence to Lichfield, where his father placed him for some time under Mr. Shaw, then master of the school there. From Lichfield he was sent to the Charter-house, where he contracted that intimacy with Sir Rich. Steele which their joint labours have so effectually recorded. In 1687 he was entered of Queen's College in Oxford, where, in 1689, the accidental perusal of some Latin verses gained him the patronage of Dr. Lancaster, by whose recommendation he was elected into Magdalen College. Here he took the degree of M. A. in 1693, and continued to cultivate his talents for poetry and criticism. His Latin compositions are entitled to particular praise; and he collected a second volume of the *Musæ Anglicanæ*, in which all his Latin pieces are inserted, and where his poem on the Peace has the first place. In his twenty-second year he first showed his power of writing English poetry, by some verses addressed to Dryden, and soon afterwards published a translation of the greater part of the fourth *Georgic* upon Bees. About the same time he composed the arguments prefixed to the several books of Dryden's *Virgil*, and produced an essay on the *Georgics*. His next paper of verses contained a character of the principal English poets, inscribed to Henry Sacheverell, who was then, if not a poet, a writer of verses, as is shown by his version of a small part of *Virgil's Georgics*, published in the *Miscellanies*, and a Latin encomium on Queen Mary, in the *Musæ Anglicanæ*. In this poem is a very powerful and discriminative character of Spenser, whose works he had then never

read. About this period he was introduced by Congreve to Montague, then chancellor of the exchequer. By the influence of that gentleman he was prevented from fulfilling his original design of entering into holy orders. In 1695 he wrote a poem to King William, with a kind of rhyming introduction addressed to Lord Somers. King William had no regard to elegance or literature; his study was only war; yet, by a choice of ministers whose disposition was very different from his own, he ensured a very liberal patronage to poetry.

In 1697 he wrote his poem on the peace of Ryswick, which he dedicated to Montague, and which was afterwards called by Smith "the best Latin poem since the *Æneid*." Having yet no public employment, he obtained in 1699 a pension of 300*l.* a year, that he might be enabled to travel. He staid a year at Blois, probably to learn the French language, and then proceeded on his journey to Italy. During his travels he is believed not only to have collected his observations on the country, but also to have written his *Dialogues on Medals*, and four acts of *Cato*. While in Italy, he wrote the letter to Lord Halifax which is justly considered as the most elegant, if not the most sublime, of his poetical productions. But in about two years he found it necessary to hasten home, being, as Swift informs us, "distressed by indigence, and compelled to become the tutor of a travelling squire." On his return he published his travels, with a dedication to Lord Somers. This book, though awhile neglected, is said to have ultimately become so much a favourite with the public that before it was reprinted it rose to five times its price. When he returned to England, in 1702, he found his old patrons out of power; but he did not long remain neglected. The victory at Blenheim in 1704 spread triumph and confidence over the nation; and Lord Halifax appointed Addison to the honour of writing a poem on the occasion. In the following year he was at Hanover with Lord Halifax; and the year after was made under-secretary of state, first to Sir Charles Hedges, and in a few months more to the Earl of Sunderland. About this time, the prevalent taste for Italian operas inclining him to try what would be the effect of a musical drama in our own language, he wrote the opera of *Rosamond*, which, when exhibited on the stage, was either hissed or neglected; but, trusting that the readers would do him more justice, he published it, with a dedication to the duchess of Marlborough. His reputation had been somewhat advanced by *The Tender Husband*, a comedy, which Steele dedicated to him, with a confession that he owed to him several of the most successful scenes. To this play Addison supplied a prologue.

When the marquis of Wharton was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland Addison attended him as his secretary, and was made keeper of the records, with a salary of 300*l.* a year. The office was little more than nominal, and the salary was augmented for his accommodation. When he was in office, he made a law to himself, as Swift has recorded, never to remit his regular fees in civility to his friends: "I may have 100 friends," said Addison, "and, if my fee be two guineas, I shall by relinquishing my right lose 200 guineas, and no friend gain more than two." He was in Ireland when Steele, without any communication of his design, began the publication of the *Tatler*; but he was not long concealed: by



inserting a remark on Virgil, which Addison had given him, he discovered himself. Steele's first *Tatler* was published April 22, 1709, and Addison's earliest contribution appeared May 26. His autograph at this period as attached to an official document is delineated in the annexed cut.

*J. Addison*

To the *Tatler*, in about two months, succeeded the *Spectator*, a series of essays of the same kind, but written with less levity, upon a more regular plan, and published daily. Dr. Johnson's account of these essays, and of the rise of periodical papers, is too valuable to be omitted here. "To teach the minuter decencies and inferior duties, to regulate the practice of daily conversation, to correct those depravities which are rather ridiculous than criminal, and remove those grievances which, if they produce no lasting calamities, impress hourly vexation, was first attempted in Italy by Casa in his *Book of Manners*, and Castiglione in his *Courtier*, two books yet celebrated in Italy for purity and elegance. This species of instruction was continued, and perhaps advanced, by the French, among whom La Bruyere's *Manners of the Age*, though written without connection, deserves great praise. Before the *Tatler* and *Spectator*, if the writers for the theatre are excepted, England had no masters of common life. No writers had yet undertaken to reform either the savageness of neglect or the impertinence of civility, to teach when to speak or to be silent, how to refuse or how to comply. We wanted not books to teach us more important duties, and to settle opinions in philosophy or politics; but an *arbiter elegantiarum*, a judge of propriety, was yet wanting, who should survey the track of daily conversation, and free it from thorns and prickles, which tease the passer, though they do not wound him. For this purpose nothing is so proper as the frequent publication of short papers, which we read not as study, but amusement. If the subject be slight, the treatise likewise is short. The busy may find time, and the idle may find patience. The *Tatler* and *Spectator* reduced, like Casa, the unsettled practice of daily intercourse to propriety and politeness; and, like La Bruyere, exhibited the characters and manners of the age. But to say that they united the plans of two or three eminent writers is to give them but a small part of their due praise; they superadded literature and criticism, and sometimes towered far above their predecessors, and taught, with great justness of argument and dignity of language the most important duties and sublime truths."

The year 1713, in which his *Cato* came upon the stage, was the grand climacteric of Addison's reputation. During the time of his travels, he had, as is said, planned a tragedy upon the death of Cato, and had for several years finished the first four acts, which were shown to such as were likely to give publicity to the work. The important day at length arrived on which Addison was to appear as a public writer for the drama. That there might, however, be left as little to hazard as was possible, on the first night Steele, as he himself relates, undertook to pack an audience. The danger was soon over. The whole nation was at that time on fire with faction. The Whigs applauded every line in which liberty was mentioned, as a satire on the Tories; and the Tories echoed every

sound of applause to show that the satire was unfelt. When it was printed, notice was given that the queen would be pleased if it were dedicated to her; "but, as he had designed that compliment elsewhere, he found himself obliged," says Tickell, "by his duty on the one hand, and his honour on the other, to send it into the world without any dedication."

At the publication "the wits seemed proud to pay their attendance with encomiastic verses;" but Cato had yet other honours. It was censured as a party play by a scholar of Oxford, and defended in a favourable examination by Dr. Sewel. It was translated by Salvini into Italian, and acted at Florence; and by the Jesuits of St. Omer's into Latin, and played by their pupils. While Cato was upon the stage, another daily paper, called the *Guardian*, was published by Steele, to which Addison gave great assistance. Of this paper nothing is necessary to be said but that it found many contributors, and that it was a continuation of the *Spectator*, with the same elegance, and the same variety, till some unlucky spark from a Tory paper set Steele's politics on fire, and wit at once blazed into faction. The papers of Addison are marked in the *Spectator* by one of the letters in the name of Clio, and in the *Guardian* by a hand. Many of these papers were written with powers truly comic, with a nice discrimination of character, and an accurate observation of natural or accidental deviations from propriety; but it was not supposed that he had tried a comedy on the stage till Steele, after his death, declared him the author of "*The Drummer*;" Tickell omitted it in his collection; but the testimony of Steele, and the total silence of any other claimant, have determined the public to assign it to Addison, and it is now printed with his other works. Steele carried "*The Drummer*" to the playhouse, and afterwards to the press, and sold the copyright for fifty guineas. To the opinion of Steele may be added the proof supplied by the play itself, of which the characters are such as Addison would have delineated, and the tendency such as Addison would have promoted. He was not all this time an indifferent spectator of public affairs. In 1707 he wrote "*The Present State of the War, and the Necessity of an Augmentation*," which, however judicious, being written on temporary topics, and exhibiting no peculiar powers, has naturally sunk by its own weight into neglect. This cannot be said of the few papers entitled "*The Whig Examiner*," in which is exhibited all the force of gay malevolence and humorous satire. Of this paper, which just appeared and then expired, Swift remarks, with exultation, that "it is now down among the dead men." His "*Trial of Count Tariff*," written to expose the treaty of commerce with France, lived no longer than the question that produced it.

Not long afterwards an attempt was made to revive the *Spectator*, at a time indeed by no means favourable to literature, when the succession of a new family to the throne filled the nation with anxiety, discord, and confusion; and either the turbulence of the times or the satiety of the readers put a stop to the publication, after an experiment of eighty numbers, which were afterwards collected into an eighth volume, perhaps more valuable than any one of those that went before it. Addison produced more than a fourth part, and the other contributors were by no means unworthy of appearing as his associates. The time that had passed during the suspension of the *Spectator*, though it had not lessened his power

of humour, seems to have increased his disposition to seriousness: the proportion of his religious to his comic papers is greater than in the former series. The *Spectator* had many contributors; and Steele, whose negligence kept him always in a hurry, when it was his turn to furnish a paper, called loudly for the letters, of which Addison, whose materials were more, made little use, having recourse to sketches and hints, the product of his former studies, which he now reviewed and completed. Among these are named by Tickell the "Essays on Wit," those on the "Pleasures of the Imagination," and the "Criticism on Milton."

When the house of Hanover took possession of the throne, it was reasonable to expect that the zeal of Addison would be suitably rewarded. Before the arrival of king George he was made secretary to the regency, and was required by his office to send notice to Hanover that the queen was dead, and that the throne was vacant. To do this would not have been difficult to any man but Addison, who was so overwhelmed with the greatness of the event, and so distracted by choice of expression, that the lords, who could not wait for the niceties of criticism, called Mr. Southwell, a clerk in the house, and ordered him to despatch the message. Southwell readily told what was necessary, in the common style of business, and valued himself upon having done what was too difficult for Addison. He was better qualified for the *Freeholder*, a paper which he published twice a week, from December, 1715, to the middle of the following year. This was undertaken in defence of the established government, sometimes with argument, sometimes with mirth. In argument he had made many equals; but his humour was singular and matchless.

On the 2nd of August, 1716, he married the countess dowager of Warwick, whom he had solicited by a very long and anxious courtship. He is said to have first known her by becoming tutor to her son. The marriage, if uncontradicted report can be credited, made no addition to his happiness; it neither found them nor made them equal. She always remembered her own rank, and thought herself entitled to treat with very little ceremony the tutor of her son. The year after, 1717, he rose to his highest elevation, being made secretary of state: but it is universally confessed that he was unequal to the duties of his place. In the House of Commons he could not speak, and therefore was useless to the defence of the government. In the office he could not issue an order without losing his time in quest of fine expressions. What he gained in rank he lost in credit; and finding, by experience, his own inability, was forced to solicit his dismissal, with a pension of 1500*l.* a-year. His friends palliated this relinquishment, of which both friends and enemies knew the true reason, by ascribing it to declining health, and the necessity of recess and quiet. He now engaged in a noble work, a defence of the Christian religion, of which part was published after his death; and he designed to have made a new poetical version of the Psalms. Addison, however, did not conclude his life in peaceful studies; but relapsed, when he was near his end, into political discussions. In 1719 a controversy was commenced with great vehemence between Addison and Steele. The subject of their dispute was the earl of Sunderland's memorable act, called "The Peerage Bill,"

by which the number of peers should be fixed, and the king restrained from any new creation of nobility, unless when an old family should be extinct. Steele endeavoured to alarm the nation by a pamphlet called "The Plebeian:" to this an answer was published by Addison under the title of "The Old Whig." Steele was respectful to his early friend, though he was now his political adversary; but Addison could not avoid discovering a contempt of his opponent, to whom he gave the appellation of "Little Dickey." The bill was laid aside during that session, and Addison died before the next, in which its commitment was rejected. Addison had for some time been oppressed with shortness of breath, which was now aggravated by a dropsy; and, finding his danger pressing, he prepared to die conformably to his own precepts and professions. During this lingering decay, he sent, as Pope relates, a message by the earl of Warwick to Mr. Gay, desiring to see him. Gay, who had not visited him for some time before, obeyed the summons, and found himself received with great kindness. The purpose for which the interview had been solicited was then discovered: Addison told him that he had injured him; but that, if he recovered, he would recompense him. What the injury was he did not explain, nor did Gay ever know; but supposed that some preferment designed for him had by Addison's intervention been withheld.

Lord Warwick was a young man of very irregular life, and perhaps of loose opinions. Addison, for whom he did not want respect, had very diligently endeavoured to reclaim him; but his arguments and expostulations had no effect; one experiment, however, remained to be tried. When he found his life near its end, he directed the young lord to be called; and when he desired, with great tenderness, to hear his last injunctions, told him, "I have sent for you that you may see how a Christian can die." Having giving directions to Mr. Tickell for the publication of his works, and dedicated them on his death-bed to his friend Mr. Craggs, he died on the 17th of June, 1719, at Holland-house, leaving a daughter, who died some years afterwards at Bilton near Rugby, in Warwickshire.

Of Addison's familiar habits, we have the following picture furnished by Pope. He had in the house with him Budgell, and perhaps Philips. His chief companions were Steele, Budgell, Philips, Carey, Davenant, and Colonel Brett. With one or other of these he always breakfasted. He studied all the morning; then dined at a tavern, and went afterwards to Button's. From the coffee-house he went again to the tavern, where he often sat late, and drank too much wine.

Dr. Johnson's delineation of the character of Addison concludes by observing, with Tickell, that he employed wit on the side of virtue and religion. He not only made the proper use of wit himself, but taught it to others; and from his time it has been generally subservient to the cause of reason and truth. He has dissipated the prejudice that had long connected gaiety with vice and easiness of manners with laxity of principles. He has restored virtue to its dignity, and taught innocence not to be ashamed. This is an elevation of literary character "above all Greek, above all Roman fame." No greater felicity can genius attain than that of having purified intellectual pleasure, separated mirth from indecency, and wit from licentiousness,—of having



taught a succession of writers to bring elegance and gaiety to the aid of goodness,—and, to use expressions yet more sacred, of having “turned many to righteousness.” As a describer of life and manners, he must be allowed to stand perhaps the first of the foremost rank. His humour, which as Steele observes is peculiar to himself, is so happily diffused as to give the grace of novelty to domestic scenes and daily occurrences. He never “outsteps the modesty of nature,” nor raises merriment or wonder by the violation of truth. His figures neither divert by distortion nor amaze by aggravation. He copies life with so much fidelity that he can be hardly said to invent: yet his exhibitions have such an air of originality that it is difficult to suppose them not merely the product of imagination. As a teacher of wisdom he may be confidently followed. His religion has nothing in it enthusiastic or superstitious; he appears neither weakly credulous nor wantonly sceptical; his morality is neither dangerously lax nor impracticably rigid. All the enchantment of fancy and all the cogency of argument are employed to recommend to the reader his real interest, the care of pleasing the Author of his being.

His prose is the model of the middle style; on grave subjects not formal, on light occasions not grovelling; pure without scrupulosity, and exact without apparent elaboration; always equable, and always easy, without glowing words or pointed sentences. Addison never deviates from his track to snatch a grace; he seeks no ambitious ornaments, and tries no hazardous innovations. His page is always luminous, but never blazes in unexpected splendour. It seems to have been his principal endeavour to avoid all harshness and severity of diction; he is therefore sometimes verbose in his transitions and connections, and sometimes descends too much to the language of conversation; yet, if his language had been less idiomatical, it might have lost somewhat of its genuine Anglicism.

**ADELUNG, JOHN CHRISTOPHER.**—This German scholar, so highly distinguished for his exertions to improve the language and literature of his country, was born on the 8th of August, 1734. He received his education partly at Auklam, partly at Klosterbergen near Magdeburg, and finished at the university of Halle. In 1759 he was appointed professor in the protestant academy at Erfurt; but, two years after, ecclesiastical disputes caused him to remove to Leipsic, where he applied himself, with indefatigable activity, to the extensive works by which he has been so useful to the German language and literature. In 1787 he received from the then elector of Saxony the place of first librarian of the public library in Dresden. This office he held till his death, which took place on the 10th of September, 1806.

Adelung has, single-handed, performed for the German language what whole academies have done for others. His grammatical and critical dictionary surpasses our own great work by Dr. Johnson, in the accuracy and order of the definitions, and more especially in the department of etymology, but is inferior to it in the selection of illustrative authorities. The second edition of the dictionary contains a number of additions which are valuable in themselves, but in no proportion to the progress which the language had made in the mean time, and shows too plainly that the most unwearied industry cannot compensate for a defective plan.

**ADLERFELDT, GUSTAVUS**, was born near Stockholm in 1671, studied with great applause in the university of Upsal, and then made the tour of Holland, England, and France. On his return Charles XII. gave him the place of a gentleman of his chamber. Adlerfeldt accompanied this prince both in his victories and his defeats, and profited by the access he had to his councils in the compilation of his history. It is written with all the exactitude that might be expected from an eye-witness. This distinguished Swedish officer was killed by a cannon ball at the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, and it is on this celebrated day that his memoirs conclude. The continuation, giving an account of the fatal battle, was written by another officer.

**ADO, ST.**, archbishop of Vienne, in Dauphiny, was born in Gastinois, about the year 800, of an ancient family. He was educated in the abbey of Ferrieres, where he embraced a monastic life, and afterwards passed some time in the monastery of Prum, but, meeting with some unpleasant circumstances there, he went to Rome, where he spent five years in amassing materials for the works which he afterwards wrote. On his return he was employed by Remi, archbishop of Lyons, in his diocese, and was elected archbishop of Vienne in the year 860. His vigilance over his clergy, his care in the instruction of his flock, his frequent visitations throughout his province, and the humility and purity of his private life, distinguished him in an age not remarkable for these virtues. He appears to have been consulted also in affairs of state, when he gave his opinion, and urged his remonstrances, with firmness and independence. He died December 16, 875. He is the author of “A Universal Chronicle,” from the creation of the world, which has been often cited as authority for the early history of France. His “Martyrology” is better arranged than any preceding work, and enriched by the lives of the saints.

**ADRETS, FRANCOISE DE BEAUMONT, BARON DES**, of an ancient family in Dauphiny, and a bold and enterprising spirit, was born in 1513. After having served in the army with great distinction, he espoused the cause of the Huguenots from resentment to the duke of Guise in 1562. He took Valence, Vienne, Grenoble, and Lyons, but signalized himself less by his prowess and his activity than by his atrocious acts of vengeance. The Catholic writers say that in regard to persons of their communion he was what Nero had been of old to the primitive Christians. He put his invention to the rack to find out the most fantastic punishments, and enjoyed the barbarous satisfaction of inflicting them on all that fell into his hands. At Montbrison and at Mornas the soldiers that were made prisoners were obliged to throw themselves from the battlements upon the pikes of his people. Having reproached one of the soldiers with having retreated twice from the leap without daring to take it: “Mons. le baron,” said the soldier, “with all your bravery, I defy you to take it in three.” The composed humour of the man saved his life. His conduct was far from being approved even by the most violent of his party; admiral Coligny and the prince of Conde were so shocked at his cruelties that the government of Lyons was taken from him; and, piqued at this, Des Adrets was upon the point of turning Catholic; but he was seized at Romans, and would have been brought to the scaffold, if the peace, just then concluded, had not saved him.



He afterwards put his design in execution, and died despised and detested by both parties in 1587.

ADRIAN, or HADRIAN, PUBLIUS ÆLIUS, the Roman emperor, was born at Rome in the year of Christ 76. His father left him an orphan, at ten years of age, under the guardianship of Trajan, and Cælius Tatianus, a Roman knight. He began to serve very early in the armies, having been tribune of a legion before the death of Domitian. He was the person chosen by the army of Lower Mœsia to carry the news of Nerva's death to Trajan, successor to the empire. The extravagances of his youth deprived him of this emperor's favour; but, having recovered it by reforming his behaviour, he was married to Sabina, a grand niece of Trajan, and the empress Plotina became his great friend and patroness. When he was quæstor he delivered an oration in the senate; but his language was then so rough and unpolished that he was hissed: this obliged him to apply to the study of the Latin tongue, in which he afterwards became a great proficient, and made a considerable figure for his eloquence. He accompanied Trajan in most of his expeditions, and particularly distinguished himself in the second war against the Daci; and having before been quæstor, as well as tribune of the people, he was now successively prætor, governor of Pannonia, and consul.

After the siege of Atræ in Arabia was raised, Trajan, who had already given him the government of Syria, left him the command of the army; and at length, when he found the hour of death approaching, he adopted him. The reality of this adoption is by some disputed, and is thought to have been a contrivance of Plotina; however Adrian, who was then in Antiochia, as soon as he received the news of that, and of Trajan's death, declared himself emperor on the 11th of August, 117. He then immediately made peace with the Persians, to whom he yielded up great part of the conquests of his predecessors; and from generosity, or policy, he remitted the debts of the Roman people, which, according to the calculation of those who have reduced them to modern money, amounted to 22,500,000 golden crowns; and he caused to be burnt all the bonds and obligations relating to those debts, that the people might be under no apprehension of being called to an account for them afterwards. He went to visit all the provinces, and did not return to Rome till the year 118, when the senate decreed him a triumph, and honoured him with the title of father of his country; but he refused both, and desired that Trajan's image might triumph.

The following year he went to Mœsia to oppose the Sarmatæ. In his absence several persons of great worth were put to death; and, though he protested he had given no orders for that purpose, yet the odium fell chiefly upon him. No prince travelled more than Adrian, there being hardly one province in the empire which he did not visit. In 120 he went into Gaul, and thence to Britain, where he caused a wall or rampart to be built, as a defence against the Caledonians, who would not submit to the Roman government. In 121 he returned into France, and thence to Spain, to Mauritania, and at length into the East, where he quieted the commotions raised by the Parthians. After having visited all the provinces of Asia, he returned to Athens in 125, where he passed the winter, and was initiated in the mysteries of Eleusinian Ceres. He went from thence to Sicily, and saw mount Ætna. He returned

to Rome the beginning of the year 129; and, according to some, he went again the same year to Africa; and, after his return from thence, to the east. He was in Egypt in the year 132, revisited Syria the year following, returned to Athens in 134, and to Rome in 135. The persecution against the Christians was very violent under his reign; but it was at length suspended, in consequence of the remonstrances of Quadratus bishop of Athens, and Aristides, two Christian philosophers, who presented the emperor with some books in favour of their religion.

Adrian reigned twenty-one years, and died at Baïæ in 139, in the sixty-third year of his age. The Latin verses he addressed to his soul on his death-bed show his uncertainty and doubts in regard to the other world. He was a prince adorned with great virtues, but they were mingled with great vices. He was generous, industrious, polite, and exact; he maintained order and discipline; he administered justice with indefatigable application, and punished rigorously all those who did not faithfully execute the offices with which they were entrusted; he had a great share of wit, and a surprising memory; he was well versed in most of the polite arts and sciences, and is said to have written several works. On the other hand, he was cruel, envious, lascivious, superstitious, and so weak as to give himself up to the study of magic.

ADRIAN.—There have been six popes of this name. The *first*, a native of Rome, ruled from 772 to 795, was a contemporary and friend of Charlemagne, who, on account of Adrian's able defence of his claims to the crown of France, protected him with his army against Desiderius, king of the Lombards, confirmed the donation of Pepin to the territory of the church, and made further grants himself. The pope was not allowed, however, long to enjoy in peace the gifts of Charlemagne. By confirming the decrees of the council of Nice, in favour of the worship of images, Adrian gave offence to Charlemagne, who was opposed to the practice, and procured a repeal of the decree at the council of Frankfurt. The repeal was resisted by Adrian; but he so carefully and skillfully avoided offending the king that he remained his friend, and honoured him after his death with an inscription, yet preserved in the Vatican. Though by no means a profound theologian, Adrian obtained great influence by the correctness of his conduct, and his decision of character. By a prudent use of this influence, he greatly increased his power.

ADRIAN II., also a native of Rome, was elected pope in 867, at the age of seventy-five years. He was esteemed for his virtues, and celebrated on account of his bold opposition to the divorce of Lothaire. He had another dispute with France, where bishop Hincmar of Laon had been dismissed against his will; he likewise excommunicated the patriarch Photius of Constantinople, on account of his spiritual jurisdiction over Bulgaria, which diminished the authority of the pope, since the Greek church maintained its independence against him, and made Bulgaria dependent on itself. He died in 872, in the midst of his conflicts with this church.

ADRIAN III., a native of Rome, elected in 884, was pope for one year and four months only. He was opposed to the influence of the emperors on the election of the pope, and determined, if Charles the Fat should die without an heir, to give Italy a new king.



ADRIAN IV. was born at Langley, near St. Albans, in Hertfordshire. His father was learned, but very poor; and having selfishly secured an asylum in the monastery of St. Albans, by assuming the ecclesiastical habit, his family were left to provide for themselves as well as they could. Want first drew his son to attend daily at the monastery, where he was glad to submit to the humblest offices for support. Favoured, however, with the best endowments of nature, he soon imbibed a veneration for the learning and sanctity connected with his benefactors, which inspired him, whilst yet a child, with the wish to be admitted of their order. He was, however, rejected by Richard, the abbot, on the score of not being sufficiently instructed; and his father, ashamed of the poverty which he had taken no pains to prevent, and to which his son's ignorance might be entirely attributed, reproached him with being idle, instead of procuring him employment. Roused by this injustice, he abandoned his native country, and went to Paris, poor, destitute, and without any friends but such as the graces of his person, the sweetness of his manners, and the elegance of his elocution, for all which he was remarkable, might procure him. With these advantages he was enabled to apply himself to study, which he did with the greatest perseverance, and soon found his acquisitions beginning to fit him for the state of life to which he continued to aspire. After he had made sufficient progress in learning at Paris, he went into Provence, and entered the monastery of St. Rufus, as a regular clerk, or scholar. The rapidity of his attainments, the docility of his disposition, his pious observance of the rules of the order, and dutiful attention to its members, so recommended him to the fraternity that after some time of probation they entreated him to take the habit of the canonical order. His learning and piety increasing in proportion as his freedom from temporal care gave him leisure to cultivate them, he was, on the death of the abbot, unanimously chosen superior in his place; and the first act of his power was applied for the benefit of the order, by rebuilding the convent. The monks, however, in time becoming envious of the very virtues which they had laboured to exalt, or perhaps jealous that the celebrity which soon attached to their house in consequence of his residence among them should be diffused over the name of a foreigner, began to rebel against his authority; and, to justify their disobedience, they accused him of pretended crimes, before Pope Eugenius III. His holiness had penetration enough to perceive at once the falsehood and the object of their charges; but, aware that obedience is only to be enforced easily when rendered willingly, he had the prudence to compromise the matter by promoting Nicholas to the dignity of cardinal bishop of Alba, and giving the monks leave to choose another head. "I know, brethren," said he, "where the devil makes his abode; I know what has raised this storm among you. Go, choose a superior with whom you may, or rather will, live in peace. As for this man, he shall be no longer a burden to you."

In 1148, two years after he was made cardinal bishop of Alba, Nicholas was sent by Pope Eugenius into Denmark and Norway, as apostolical legate; and by his eloquence in preaching, and gentleness in instructing, he contributed largely towards the conversion of these nations, at that time lost in barbarity and ignorance. During his absence on this

mission Pope Eugenius died, and was succeeded by Anastasius.

The term of his legation having expired, Nicholas returned to Rome, just in time to be received by the new pope with every testimony of respect, and to succeed him in the papal chair; for, Anastasius dying not many days after his return, he was unanimously seated in it, in November, 1154, and took the name of Adrian IV. Thus did this excellent and amiable man owe to the negligence of his father, the shortsightedness of the Abbot Richard, and the fickleness of the monks of St. Rufus, his advancement to the highest dignity in the spiritual, and, indeed, at that time, in the political world; for he who had solicited the humblest garb in the monastery of St. Albans, and been refused, now saw himself clothed in purple, borne above the heads of the admiring multitude as typical of his superiority, and courted by all the monarchs in Europe, of whose very crowns he could assume the nominal disposal, should they offend him in his spiritual capacity.

Henry II. of England, hearing of his promotion, and most likely gratified with the occurrence of the papal chair being filled for the first (and, as it has happened, the last) time by an Englishman, sent an embassy to congratulate him on his election, at the head of which, either by a most singular chance or as a studied compliment to the pope's native place, was Robert, abbot of St. Albans, the very monastery into which he whom they were now going to acknowledge as the head of the church had, when a boy, been refused admittance as a servitor. Adrian himself had too much greatness of mind to bear any resentment against the noble establishment which, by impressing his mind, whilst yet a child, with ideas of grandeur and solemnity, had in all probability led to the elevation in which he then found himself. The abbot, desirous of propitiating the pope in favour of certain privileges that he wished to ask for his abbey, brought with him several valuable presents for his holiness, among which were three rich mitres, and some sandals embroidered by Christina princess of Markland. These the pope accepted on account of their curious workmanship, but the rest he declined, saying in a tone of raillery, "I will not accept your gifts, because when I desired to take the habit in your monastery you rejected me." "Sir," said the abbot, "we could by no means receive you, it being repugnant to the will of God, whose providence reserved you for greater things." This answer much pleased his holiness, whose own language was always conspicuous for its felicity of expression: he professed himself ready to accede to whatever the abbot should ask, and proved his sincerity by granting to the church of St. Albans, among other valuable liberties and immunities, the extraordinary privilege of being exempt from all episcopal jurisdiction, that of the see of Rome alone excepted. To Henry II. of England, and to his native country in general, he likewise took every opportunity of manifesting his regard.

The whole of Adrian's administration exhibited vigour and judgment; and, under his care, the papal dominions were considerably increased, both in wealth and power. In the beginning of his pontificate, he boldly withstood the attempts of the Roman people to recover their ancient liberty under the consuls, and obliged their magistrates to abdicate their authority, and resign the government of the



city to the pope. In 1155 he granted permission to Henry II. of England to undertake the conquest of Ireland, in order, according to the spacious grounds of that monarch's requests, "to instruct ignorant and barbarous people in the Christian faith, to reform the licentious and immoral, and to enlarge the borders of the holy Roman church." The same year he drove out of Rome the celebrated scholar, Arnold de Brescia and his followers, who had raised a sedition against Adrian's predecessor, and endeavoured to raise another against himself. Arnold was a distinguished scholar, and had studied under the celebrated Abelard; but, his mind bursting the monkish fetters of the times, he broached a variety of opinions, which however rational in themselves, and generally entertained in the present day, were deemed so heretical and odious at that time that he was condemned in a council composed of nearly 1000 prelates.

Neither his elevated situation, however, nor the prosperity of his reign, could preserve Adrian from a keen sense of the cares inseparably connected with the government of others. His countryman, the learned and accomplished John of Salisbury, visited him at Rome, and to him the holy father declared that all the former hardships of his life were mere amusement, compared with the misfortunes of the popedom,—that he looked upon St. Peter's chair to be the most uneasy seat in the world,—and that his crown seemed to be clapped burning on his head. His death, according to Bale, took place on September 1st, 1159, in the fourth year and tenth month of his pontificate, and was caused, as he was a drinking, by a fly, "which," says the facetious Fuller, "in the large territory of St. Peter, had no place but his throat to get into." He thus expired of suffocation, leaving behind him a character admirable for many virtues, particularly those of courage, judgment, and disinterestedness.

ADRIAN V., previously called Ottoboni da Fiesco, was a native of Genoa, and, as legate of the pope, settled the dispute between King Henry III. of England and his nobles, but died soon after his election to the papal chair.

ADRIAN VI. deserves some notice on account of his personal merit. He was born at Utrecht in 1459, and his parents procured him a place among the poor scholars in the college of Louvain, where his application was such as to induce Margaret of England, the sister of Edward IV., and widow of Charles duke of Burgundy, to bear the expenses of his advancement to the degree of doctor. He became successively a canon of St. Peter, professor of divinity, dean of the church of Louvain, and, lastly, vice-chancellor of the university. Recollecting his own condition, he generously founded a college at Louvain, which bears his name, for the education of poor students. Afterwards Maximilian I. appointed him preceptor to his grandson Charles V., and sent him as ambassador to Ferdinand, king of Spain, who gave him the bishopric of Tortosa. In 1517 he was made cardinal, and, during the infancy of Charles V., became regent; but the duties of the office were engrossed by Cardinal Ximenes. On the death of Leo X., Charles V. had so much influence with the cardinals as to procure him to be chosen to the papal chair in 1522. He was not, however, very acceptable to the college, as he had an aversion to pomp, expense, and pleasure; and it was strongly suspected

that his death, which took place September 24th 1523, was a violent one.

ADRIAN, DE CASTELLO, bishop of Bath and Wells in the reigns of Henry VII. and VIII., was descended of an obscure family at Cornetto, a small town in Tuscany; but soon distinguished himself by his learning and abilities, and procured several employments at the court of Rome. In 1448 he was appointed nuncio extraordinary to Scotland, by Pope Innocent VIII., to quiet the troubles in that kingdom; but upon his arrival in England, being informed that his presence was not necessary in Scotland, the contests there having been ended by a battle, he applied himself to execute some other commissions with which he was charged, particularly to collect the pope's tribute, or Peter-pence, his holiness having appointed him his treasurer for that purpose. He continued some months in England, during which time he so far ingratiated himself into the good graces of Morton, archbishop of Canterbury, that he recommended him to the king, who appointed him his agent for English affairs at Rome; and, as a recompence for his faithful services, promoted him first to the bishopric of Hereford and afterwards to that of Bath and Wells. He was enthroned at Wells by his proxy Polydore Virgil, at that time the pope's sub-collector in England, and afterwards appointed by Adrian archdeacon of Wells. Adrian let out his bishopric to farmers, and afterwards to Cardinal Wolsey, himself residing at Rome, where he built a magnificent palace, on the front of which he had the name of his benefactor Henry VII. inscribed: he left it after his decease to that prince and his successors. Alexander VI., who succeeded Innocent VIII., appointed Adrian his principal secretary, and vicar-general in spirituals and temporals; and the same pope created him a cardinal-priest, with the title of St. Chrysogonus, the 31st of May, 1503. Soon after his creation, he very narrowly escaped being poisoned at a feast, to which he was invited, with some other cardinals, by the pope and his son Cæsar Borgia.

In the pontificate of Julius II., who succeeded Alexander, Adrian retired from Rome, having taken some disgust, or perhaps distrusting this pope, who was a declared enemy of his predecessor: nor did he return till there was a conclave held for the election of a new pope, when he probably gave his voice for Leo X. Soon after he was unfortunately privy to a conspiracy against Leo, for which he was first fined, then excommunicated, and ultimately died in disgrace.

ÆLIAN, CLAUDIUS, a Roman citizen of considerable celebrity, who lived about the middle of the third century. He was a native of Præneste, and like Cicero, Atticus, and many other Roman authors, he was so completely master of the Greek language as to write it with ease and correctness. There is now extant a work of his, in fourteen books, entitled "Various or Miscellaneous History," which is a compilation or collection of extracts made by the author in his extensive reading. The value of it does not consist in what the compiler has written, but in the passages of lost writers that he has been the means of preserving. Editions of his works have been published by Kühn, at Leipsic, in 1780, and by Coray, at Paris, in 1805. There is another work usually ascribed to Ælian on the peculiarities of animals. Though the author cannot claim the merit of



being a scientific naturalist, like Aristotle, yet he has preserved to us in this work a number of curious facts, which he has collected from such works as he read. Each of the books is subdivided into chapters like the *Miscellaneous History*.

ÆMILIUS, PAULUS, a celebrated historian, born at Verona. The reputation he had acquired in Italy made Stephen Poucher, bishop of Paris, advise Louis XII. to engage him to write a Latin history of the kings of France. He was accordingly invited to Paris, and a canonry in the cathedral church was given him. He retired to the college of Navarre to compose this work; but, though he laboured many years, yet he was not able to finish the tenth book, which was to include the beginning of the reign of Charles VIII. He is said to have been peculiarly scrupulous in regard to the construction of his sentences, having always some correction to make. "This made him so slow," quaintly observes Erasmus, "that elephants could bring forth sooner than he could produce a work; for he took above thirty years in writing his history." Lipsius thus sums up his character as a historian:—"Paulus Æmilius is almost the only modern who has discovered the true and ancient way of writing history, and followed it very closely. His manner of writing is learned, nervous, and concise, inclining to points and conceits, and leaving a strong impression on the mind of a serious reader. He often intermixes maxims and sentiments not inferior to those of the ancients. A careful examiner and impartial judge of facts; nor have I met with an author in our time who has less prejudice or partiality. It is a disgrace to our age that so few are pleased with him, whence it would appear that there are but few capable of relishing his beauties. Among so many perfections there are however a few blemishes; for his style is somewhat unconnected, and his periods too short. This is not suitable to serious subjects, especially annals, the style of which, according to Tacitus, should be grave and unaffected. He is also unequal, being sometimes too studied and correct, and thereby obscure; at other times (this however but seldom) he is loose and negligent. He affects also too much of the air of antiquity in the names of men and places, which he changes and would reduce to the ancient form, often learnedly, sometimes vainly, and in my opinion always unbecomingly." Æmilius's history is divided into ten books, and extends from Pharamond to the fifth year of Charles VIII., in 1488. The tenth book was found among his papers in a confused condition, so that the editor, Daniel Xavarisio, a native of Verona and relation of Æmilius, was obliged to collate a great number of papers before it could be published. Julius Scaliger mentions a book containing the history of the family of the Scaligers, as translated into elegant Latin by Paulus Æmilius; and in his letter respecting the antiquity and splendour of the family he has the following passage:—"By the injury of time, the malice of enemies, and the ignorance of writers, a great number of memoirs relating to our family were lost, so that the name of Scaliger would have been altogether buried in obscurity had it not been for Paulus Æmilius of Verona, that most eloquent writer and preserver of ancient pedigrees, who, having found in Bavaria very ancient annals of our family written, as he himself tells us, in a coarse style, polished and translated them into Latin." Æmilius lived a most

exemplary life and died in 1529, his remains being deposited in the cathedral church of Paris.

ÆNEAS SYLVIUS.—This extraordinary pope, who was afterwards known as Pius II., was of the family of the Piccolimini, and born in the year 1405, at Corsigny in Sienna, where his father lived in exile. He was educated at the grammar school of that place; but, his parents being in humble circumstances, he was obliged, in early life, to submit to many servile employments. In 1422 by the assistance of his friends, he was enabled to go to the university of Sienna, where he applied himself to his studies with great success, and in a short time published several works in the Latin and Tuscan languages. In 1431 he attended Cardinal Dominic Capranica to the council of Basil as his secretary: he was likewise employed in the same capacity by cardinal Albergoti, who sent him to Scotland to mediate a peace betwixt the English and Scots; and he was in that country when James I. was murdered. Upon his return from Scotland he was made secretary to the council of Basil, which he defended against the authority of the popes, both by his speeches and writings, particularly in a dialogue and epistles which he wrote to the rector and university of Cologne. He was likewise made by that council clerk of ceremonies, abbreviator, and one of the duodecenviri, or twelve men, an office of great importance. He was employed in several embassies, once to Trent, another time to Frankfort, twice to Constance, and as often to Savoy. In 1439 he was employed in the service of Pope Felix; and, being soon after sent ambassador to the emperor Frederic, he was crowned by him with the poetic laurel, and ranked amongst his friends. In 1442 he was sent for from Basil by the emperor, who appointed him secretary to the empire, and raised him to the senatorial order. He could not at first be prevailed on to condemn the council of Basil, nor to go over absolutely to Eugenius's party, but remained neuter. However, when the emperor Frederic began to favour Eugenius, Æneas likewise changed his opinions. He afterwards represented the emperor in the diet of Nuremberg, when they were consulting about the best methods to put an end to the schism, and was sent ambassador to Eugenius: at the persuasion of Thomas Szarnus, the apostolical legate in Germany, he submitted to Eugenius entirely, and made a speech to his holiness, which forms so striking a specimen of the jesuitical sophistry of the times that we present it entire, as it was corrected by the future aspirant to the papal see. "Most holy father," said he, "before I declare the emperor's commission, give me leave to say one word concerning myself. I do not question but you have heard a great many things which are not to my advantage. They ought not to have been mentioned to you; but I must confess that my accusers have reported nothing but what is true. I own I have said, and done, and written, at Basil, many things against your interests; it is impossible to deny it: yet all this has been done not with a design to injure you, but to serve the church. I have been in an error, without question; but I have been in just the same circumstances with many great men, as particularly with Julian cardinal of St. Angelo, with Nicholas archbishop of Palermo, with Lewis du Pont (Pontanus) the secretary of the holy see, men who are esteemed the greatest luminaries in the law and doctors of the truth, to omit

mentioning the universities and colleges which are generally against you. Who would not have erred with persons of their character and merit? It is true that when I discovered the error of those at Basil, I did not at first go over to you, as the greatest part did; but being afraid of falling from one error to another, and by avoiding Charibdis, as the proverb expresses it, to run upon Scylla, I joined myself, after a long deliberation and conflict within myself, to those who thought proper to continue in a state of neutrality. I lived three years at the emperor's court in this situation of mind, where, having an opportunity of hearing constantly the disputes between those of Basil and your legates, I was convinced that the truth was on your side: it was upon this motive that, when the emperor thought fit to send me to your clemency, I accepted the opportunity with the utmost satisfaction, in hopes that I should be so happy as to gain your favour again: I throw myself therefore at your feet; and, since I sinned out of ignorance, I entreat you to grant me your pardon, after which I shall open to you the emperor's intentions." This was the prelude to the celebrated retraction which Æneas Sylvius made afterwards. The pope pardoned every thing that was past; and in a short time made him his secretary, without obliging him to quit the post which he held under the emperor.

Upon the decease of Pope Eugenius, Æneas was chosen by the cardinals to preside in the conclave, till another pope should be elected. He was made bishop of Tregestum by Pope Nicholas, and went again into Germany, where he was appointed counsellor to the emperor, and had the direction of all the important affairs of the empire. Four years after he was made archbishop of Sienna; and in 1452 he attended Frederic to Rome, when he went to receive the imperial crown. Æneas, upon his return, was named legate of Bohemia and Austria. About the year 1456, being sent by the emperor into Italy, to treat with Pope Callixtus III. respecting the war with the Turks, he was made a cardinal. Upon the decease of Callixtus, in the year 1458, he was elected pope, by the name of Pius II. After his promotion to the papal chair, he published a bull, retracting all he had written in defence of the council of Basil; and thus apologises for his former conduct:—"We are men," says he, "and we have erred as men; we do not deny but that many things which we have said or written may justly be condemned: we have been seduced like Paul, and have persecuted the church of God through ignorance; we now follow St. Austin's example, who, having suffered several erroneous sentiments to escape him in his writings, retracted them; we do just the same thing: we ingenuously confess our ignorance, being apprehensive lest what we have written in our youth should occasion some error, which may prejudice the holy see. For if it is suitable to any person's character to maintain the eminence and glory of the first throne of the church, it is certainly so to ours, whom the merciful God, out of pure goodness, has raised to the dignity of vicerent of Christ, without any merit on our part. For all these reasons, we exhort you, and advise you in the Lord, not to pay any regard to those writings which injure in any manner the authority of the apostolic see, and assert opinions which the holy Roman church does not receive. If you find any thing contrary to this in our

dialogues and letters, or in any other of our works, despise such notions, reject them, follow what we maintain now, believe what I assert now I am in years rather than what I said when I was young, regard a pope rather than a private man, in short reject Æneas Sylvius and receive Pius II."

Pius behaved in his high office with great courage and activity. He suppressed the war which Piccinus had raised in Umbria, and recovered Assisi and Nuceræ. He ordered a convention of princes at Mantua, where he was present himself; and a war was resolved upon against the Turks. Upon his return to Rome, he went to Viterbo, and expelled several tyrants from the territories of the ecclesiastical state. He excommunicated Sigismund duke of Austria, and Sigismund Malatesta, the former for imprisoning the cardinal of Cusa, and the latter because he refused to pay the hundredths to the church of Rome; and he deprived the archbishop of Mentz of his dignity. He confirmed Ferdinand in the kingdom of Naples, and sent cardinal Ursini to crown him king. He made a treaty with the king of Hungary; and commanded Pogebrac king of Bohemia to appear before him.

Pius, in the latter part of his pontificate, made great preparations for a crusade against the Turks, for which purpose he summoned the assistance of the several princes in Europe; and, having raised a considerable number of troops, he went to Ancona to see them embarked, where he was seized with a fever, and died the 14th of August, 1464, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, having enjoyed the see of Rome six years, eleven months, and twenty-seven days. His body was carried to Rome, and interred in the Vatican. Spondanus, in his Ecclesiastical Annals, says that he was inferior to none in learning, eloquence, dexterity, and prudence. The cardinal of Pavia, in his speech to the conclave concerning the choice of a successor, gives this eulogium to Pius II. that he was a pope who had all the virtues in his character, and that he had deserved the utmost commendation by his zeal for religion, his integrity of manners, his solid judgment and profound learning. His secretary, John Gobelín, published a history of his life, which is supposed to have been written by the pope himself: it was printed at Rome in 4to, in 1584, and at Frankfort, in folio, 1614. There is an edition of Æneas Sylvius's works, printed at Basil, in folio, in 1551.

ÆSCHINES, a celebrated Greek orator, contemporary with Demosthenes. Being overcome in controversy by the latter, he went to Rhodes, and opened a school there, and afterwards removed to Samos, where he died at the age of seventy-five. There are only three of his orations extant, which, however, are so very beautiful that Fabricius compares them to "the three graces." One is against Timarchus his accuser, whom he treated so severely as to make him weary of life; and some have said that he actually laid violent hands upon himself. Another is an "Apology" for himself against Demosthenes, who had accused him of perfidy in an "Embassy to Philip." The third "against Ctesiphon," who had decreed the golden crown to Demosthenes. This excellent oration, together with that of Demosthenes against it, was translated by Cicero into Latin. The three orations were published by Aldus, in 1513, and by Henry Stephens in 1575. Wolfius has given them, in his edition of Demosthenes, with a Latin



version and notes, but one of the latest and best editions of Æschines was published in 1824.

ÆSCHYLUS, the tragic poet, was born at Athens B. C. 525. He was the son of Euphorion, and brother to Cynegirus and Aminias, who distinguished themselves in the battle of Marathon, and the sea-fight of Salamis, at which engagements Æschylus was likewise present. In this last action, according to Diodorus Siculus, Aminias, the younger of the three brothers, commanded a squadron of ships, and behaved with so much bravery that he sunk the ship containing the admiral of the Persian fleet. To this brother our poet was, upon a particular occasion, obliged for saving his life. Ælian states that Æschylus, being charged by the Athenians with certain blasphemous expressions in some of his tragedies, was accused of impiety, and condemned to be stoned to death; and they were just going to put the sentence in execution, when Aminias, with a happy presence of mind, throwing aside his cloak, showed his arm without a hand, which he had lost at the battle of Salamis, in defence of his country. This sight made such an impression on the judges that, touched with the remembrance of his valour and the friendship he showed for his brother, they pardoned Æschylus. Our poet however resented this prosecution, and resolved to leave a place where his life had been placed in danger. He became more determined in this resolution when he found his pieces less pleasing to the Athenians than those of Sophocles, though a much younger writer. Simonides had likewise won the prize from him in an elegy upon the battle of Marathon. He wrote a great number of tragedies, of which there are but seven remaining.

The greatest entire work left to us of Æschylus consists of the three tragedies of Agamemnon, the Chæphoræ, and the Eumenides, which form one grand and connected development of a striking portion of the history of the devoted house of Atreus. In greatness of conception and energy in the execution, this work is almost without a parallel, and as these tragedies give a perfect view of this species of drama, in the most interesting period of Grecian literature, we subjoin an analysis of them in detail.

The Agamemnon opens before the palace of the hero whose name it bears, where the watchman whom Clytemnestra has appointed is waiting with anxious and lingering hope for the blazing of the signal-fires, which are to announce the fall of Troy. He sees the long-expected light, which gives token of the joyful event. After the herald has confirmed the tidings announced by the watchman, and expressed his fears for the safety of the Grecian princes, Agamemnon arrives with his spoil, accompanied by Cassandra, the prophetic but ill-fated daughter of Priam, who is seated on a triumphal car to add to the state of the victor. Clytemnestra advances to meet her husband, and addresses him in terms of congratulation. She entreats him to enter the palace over the long train of tapestry which she has prepared to grace his entry. This he at first refuses as an honour only fit for the gods; and at last consents, after having ordered that his warlike buskins should be taken off, lest he should insult the deities by his pride. Meantime the chorus express a dark presentiment that some evil is at hand. Clytemnestra again appears, and invites Cassandra to enter the palace, but she remains silent and motion-

less. The queen once more enters the palace, and the captive princess, agitated with the fury of prophetic inspiration, bursts out into expressions of distraction and horror. The cries of Agamemnon in the agonies of death are now heard, and Clytemnestra appears reeking from her husband's slaughter and triumphs in the deed. Ægisthus unites with her in justifying and rejoicing in the deed; while the chorus nobly rebuke the royal criminals and defy their guilty power. With this feeling of free-born defiance to tyrannic power the piece closes.

In the Chæphoræ, the deed which forms the subject of the former play is visited with a just, though unnatural vengeance. The scene is laid before the palace and displays the tomb of the murdered chief. Parts of the opening of the tragedy are lost, but enough remains to preserve the connection entire. Orestes first appears with Pylades, invokes Mercury and the shade of his father, and places a lock of hair on the sepulchre. Observing Electra and the chorus approaching, the friends step aside to observe their proceedings. The choral ode explains the object of the mournful procession, that Clytemnestra, alarmed by a terrible vision, had sent gifts to appease the shade of her murdered lord. The chorus mourn the death of Agamemnon, and lament the necessity of punishing the guilty perpetrators of the deed. Electra by the advice of the attendants invokes Mercury, the leader of departed spirits, and the ghost of her father, to pity Orestes and herself, and send her brother to her aid. While she sheds the libation on the grave, the chorus commence singing a soothing strain to appease the dead, but break off into a rapturous exclamation on beholding, in prophetic vision, the youthful hero rushing on to vengeance. Electra now perceives the hair, and surveys it with mingled fear and hope. While her perplexity increases, Orestes appears, displays the embroidered tissue of her own work, and a joyful recognition takes place between the brother and the sister. The former relates that he has received the express commands of Apollo to put both the murderers to death; the chorus and Electra join in animating him to the deed, and declare that at last the righteous judgment of Almighty vengeance will be accomplished. Orestes and Pylades then appear at the gate of the palace, and desire to see Clytemnestra, pretending that they come with the news of the death of her son. The chorus persuade the nurse, who laments over the death of Orestes, whom she had tended in childhood, to bring Ægisthus to hear the tidings alone, and she retires to find him. Ægisthus then enters, expresses his doubts of the truth of the glad tidings, and hastens to the palace to question the strangers. The awful moment, so long delayed, now approaches. The chorus, in agitating suspense, have scarcely addressed a short prayer to heaven, when the cries of Ægisthus are heard, a servant announces his death to Clytemnestra, who only demands an axe for her defence. Orestes however pursues his mother into the palace, and in defiance of her prayers sacrifices her with the partner of her crime. The chorus sing an ode in triumph of the retribution. The palace now opens, and displays the dead bodies, near which stands Orestes, who justifies the deed. Soon however his presence of mind forsakes him; he feels the terrors of madness coming over him, sees his mother's furies approach him, and declares in the midst of horror that he will hasten to the oracle of Apollo for purification and succour. He then rushes from the stage.

The chorus conclude the piece with a mournful reflection on the series of crimes and sorrows which have desolated the house of Atreus. In the Eumenides the consequences of this doubtful revenge are splendidly developed. The scene opens before the temple of Apollo at Delphi, where the Pythian priestess enters, but instantly returns in great consternation, declaring that she has seen a man, yet bloody, with a drawn sword in one hand and a branch of olive in the other, in a suppliant posture and around on the consecrated seats a great number of hideous women stretched in slumber. The great gates are then thrown open and Orestes is seen, protected by Apollo and surrounded by the Furies still asleep. The bright God promises never to forsake his votary, but warns him to fly to Athens and there entreat the protection of Minerva its tutelary goddess. Orestes retires to obey, and Apollo disappears. The ghost of Clytemnestra rises, calls on the furies to awake, points to her bleeding wounds, and demands vengeance. In broken words as amidst dreams, the ministers of retribution endeavour to seize the object of their pursuit, and then awake in wild confusion.

Apollo drives them from his temple, and in vain tries to dissuade them from still pursuing Orestes, and they rush off to follow him. The scene now changes to the temple of Minerva at Athens. Orestes enters, embraces the statue of the goddess, and entreats her interference in his cause. Scarcely has he spoken than the chorus of furies appear and demand his blood for that of his mother. He replies that he has been purified at Delphi, and implores the protection of the goddess. Minerva appears, attends to both parties, and agrees to select judges before whom the great cause shall be decided. The chorus sing the hallowedness of laws, and the secret powers of conscience which they govern. The trial then opens before the Areopagi. Apollo pleads the cause of the suppliant. The judges throw their balls into an urn. For a moment an awful suspense prevails; but Minerva declares that the number of votes are equal, and, consequently, that the accused is acquitted. Orestes joyfully blesses Athens, and the Furies burst into exclamations of disappointed rage. At length, by her calm and mild wisdom, Minerva soothes their resentments and charms away their hostilities, gives them a sanctuary at Attica, confers on them high honours, and receives their thanks and blessings. She then calls on the Athenian train to attend the goddesses, with torches and purple vestments, to their sacred abodes, and with this magnificent procession the piece closes.

Late in life Æschylus retired to the court of Hiero king of Sicily, and, after having lived some years at Gela, we are told that he died of a fracture of his skull, caused by an eagle letting fall a tortoise on his head. The manner of his death is said to have been predicted by an oracle, which had foretold that he should die by something from the heavens. This event took place, according to Mr. Stanley, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. He had the honour of a magnificent funeral from the Sicilians, who buried him near the river Gela; and the tragedians of the country performed plays and theatrical exercises at his tomb, upon which was inscribed the following epitaph:—

Æschylus, Euphorion's son, whom Athens bore,  
Lies here interred, on Gela's fruitful shore.  
The plains of Marathon his worth record,  
And piles of Medes that fell beneath his sword.

The editions of Æschylus are very numerous. The first was printed at Venice, in 1518. Stanley produced a magnificent book, containing the "Scholia," "Fragments," the notes and prefaces of preceding editors, and the annotations of the learned editor himself. Professor Porson published an edition in 1806, which contains many valuable corrections of the text; and the English reader has been introduced to the beauties of Æschylus by the poetical translation of Mr. Potter, published in 1777. Humboldt's translation of the Agamemnon, published in 1816, is also a good work.

ÆSOP, the fabulist, was a native of Phrygia, and lived in the time of Solon, and under the reign of Cræsus the last king of Lydia. St. Jerome, speaking of him, says he was unfortunate in his birth, condition, and death. His great genius, however, enabled him to support his misfortunes; and, in order to alleviate the hardships of servitude, he composed those entertaining and instructive fables which have acquired him so much reputation.

The first master whom Æsop served was an inhabitant of Athens; and there, in all probability, he acquired his knowledge of the Greek tongue. After him he had one or two more masters, and at length was purchased by a philosopher named Xanthus. Æsop was afterwards sold to Idmon, or Iadmon, who enfranchised him. After he had recovered his liberty he soon acquired a great reputation amongst the Greeks, so that, according to Meziriac, the report of his wisdom having reached Cræsus, this king sent to enquire after him, and engaged him in his service.

Æsop was put to death at Delphi. Plutarch tells us that he came there with a great quantity of gold and silver, being ordered by Cræsus to offer a sacrifice to Apollo, and to give a considerable sum to each inhabitant; but, a quarrel arising betwixt him and the Delphians, he sent back the sacrifice and the money to Cræsus, for he thought that those for whom the prince designed it had rendered themselves unworthy of it. The inhabitants of Delphi contrived an accusation of sacrilege against him, and, pretending they had convicted him, threw him headlong from a rock. For this cruelty and injustice, we are told, they were visited with famine and pestilence; and, consulting the oracle, they received for answer that the god designed this as a punishment for their treatment of Æsop. They endeavoured to make an atonement by raising a pyramid to his honour.

The fables of Æsop have been translated into almost every modern language, and they may assuredly be considered as forming the best models the ancients have left us for conveying instructive truths to the young mind.

AFER, DOMITIUS, a celebrated orator, born at Nismes. He flourished under Tiberius and the three succeeding emperors. He was elected to the prætorship; but not being afterwards promoted according to his expectations he became public accuser. The encomiums passed by the emperor Tiberius on the eloquence of Domitius made him eagerly pursue the profession of an orator; and he was seldom without some accusation or defence in hand. In the 779th year of Rome, he carried on an accusation against Claudia Pulchra; and the year following Quintilius Varus her son was impeached by him and Publius Dolabella. Quintilian thus describes him



in his latter days. "I myself saw the greatest orator I ever knew, Domitius Afer, in his old age daily losing the reputation he formerly acquired; for when he was pleading, though known to have been once the greatest man at the bar, some would laugh, which was extremely indecent, others would blush; hence people took occasion to say that Domitius would rather fail than desist: nor are these evils, in comparison of others, but of the least kind. The orator, therefore, to prevent his falling into these snares of old age, should sound a retreat, and bring his vessel tight and sound into the harbour." Afer died in the reign of Nero.

AGARD, ARTHUR, a learned English antiquary, born in Derbyshire in 1540, was bred to the law, and in 1570 was appointed deputy chamberlain in the exchequer, which office he held for forty-five years. His fondness for English antiquities induced him to make many large collections, and his office gave him an opportunity of acquiring great skill in that study. A conformity of taste brought him acquainted with the celebrated Sir Robert Cotton, and most of the eminent men of the day.

Mr. Agard made the domesday-book his peculiar study, and he composed a very learned work on purpose to explain its character. He died the 22d of August, 1615, and was interred near the chapter-door, in the cloister of Westminster Abbey.

AGATHIAS, a Greek historian, who lived in the sixth century, under the emperor Justinian, was born at Myrina in Asia Minor.

He wrote a history of Justinian's reign in five books, at the desire of Eutychianus, secretary of state, who was his intimate friend, and who furnished him with many important materials for the purpose. It begins at the twenty-sixth year of Justinian's reign, where Procopius ends, and was carried down to the flight of Cosroes the younger to the Romans, and his restoration by Mauritius. It was printed in Greek with Bonaventure Vulcanius's Latin version and notes at Leyden in 1594, and at Paris in 1660.

AGRIPPA, HENRY CORNELIUS, a man of considerable learning, who was born at Cologne, on the 14th of September, 1486. He entered very early into the service of the emperor Maximilian, and served that emperor seven years in Italy, where he distinguished himself in several engagements, and received the honour of knighthood for his gallant behaviour. He was well acquainted with many languages. "I am," says he, "pretty well skilled in eight languages, and so complete a master of six that I not only understand and speak them, but can even make an elegant oration, dictate, and translate in these languages. I have besides a pretty extensive knowledge in some abstruse studies, and a general acquaintance with the whole circle of sciences." According to his letters he was in France before the year 1507, in Spain in 1508, and at Dole in 1509. At the latter place he read public lectures, which, though they drew upon him the resentment of the monks, yet gained him general applause, and the counsellors of the parliament went themselves to hear them. In order to ingratiate himself into the favour of Margaret of Austria, governess of the Low Countries, he composed a treatise "On the excellence of Women;" but the persecution he met with from the monks prevented him from publishing it, and obliged him to come to this country, where he wrote a Commentary upon St. Paul's Epistles. He after-

wards went to Italy, to join the army of the emperor Maximilian, and staid there till he was invited to Pisa by Cardinal da Sainte Croix.

By his "Second Book of Letters" we find that his friends endeavoured to procure him some honourable settlement at Grenoble, Geneva, Avignon, or Metz: he chose the last of these places; and in 1518 was employed as syndic of that city. The persecutions raised against him by the monks, because he had refuted a vulgar notion respecting St. Anne's three husbands, and because he protected a countrywoman who was accused of witchcraft, obliged him to leave the city of Metz. He left his own country in 1521, and went to Geneva. Here his income must have been inconsiderable, for he complains of not having enough to defray his expenses to Chamberi, in order to solicit a pension from the duke of Savoy. In 1524 he went to Lyons, and obtained a pension from Francis I., and was appointed physician to the king's mother; but this did not prove so advantageous as might have been expected, nor did he attend her at her departure from Lyons, in August 1525, when she went to conduct her daughter to the borders of Spain. He was left behind at Lyons, and was obliged to implore the assistance of his friends in order to obtain his salary. "I have nothing to write you," says he in one of his letters, "but that I am likely to starve here, being entirely forsaken by the deities of the court; what the great Jupiter himself (meaning Charles V.) intends I know not. I now understand what great danger I was in here: the monks so far influenced the princess, who was of a superstitious turn, as women generally are, that, had not her sudden death prevented it, I should undoubtedly have been tried for offences against the majesty of the cowl and the sacred honour of the monks, crimes for which I should have been accounted no less guilty, and no less punished, than if I had blasphemed the Christian religion." His treatise "On the Vanity of the Sciences," which he published in 1530, excited considerable interest. He was thrown into prison at Brussels in the year 1531, but he soon regained his liberty, and the year following paid a visit to the archbishop of Cologne, to whom he had dedicated his "Occult Philosophy." The inquisitors endeavoured to prevent the publication of his "Occult Philosophy," but, notwithstanding all their opposition, he finished it in 1533. He staid at Bonne till 1535, when he returned to Lyons. He was afterwards imprisoned for what he had written against the mother of Francis I., but he was soon released from his confinement, and went to Grenoble, where he died the same year. There was an edition of his works printed at Lyons in 1550, but the book that has excited the greatest interest is his treatise on the Vanity of the Sciences, which is a caustic satire on the species of learning that was then fashionable.

AGNESI, MARIA GAETANA, an Italian lady, celebrated for her mathematical learning. She was born at Milan in 1718, and in 1750 became one of the professors in the university of Bologna. Her principal work is entitled "Istituzioni Analitiche." It was published in 1748, and afterwards translated into English by Colson.

AIKIN, EDMUND, an ingenious architect, son of Dr. J. Aikin. He possessed considerable literary attainments, and wrote an account of St. Paul's cathedral, which has been much admired. He died March 13th, 1820.

**AIKIN, JOHN, M.D.**—This ingenious essayist was born in 1747 at Kibworth, in Leicestershire. He commenced his education in the Dissenters' Academy, at Warrington, and in 1764 became a student in the university of Edinburgh. He afterwards proceeded to Leyden, and ultimately commenced practice as a physician at Yarmouth, in Norfolk. Dr. Aikin removed to London in 1792, and shortly after accepted an offer made him to edit the *Monthly Magazine*, a work which still retains its high character for political independence and general literary information.

In 1799 he published, in conjunction with Dr. Enfield, the first volume of a "General Biographical Dictionary;" but, in consequence of the death of his coadjutor, the tenth and last volume was not completed till 1815. Dr. Aikin died at his residence at Stoke Newington, December 7th, 1822.

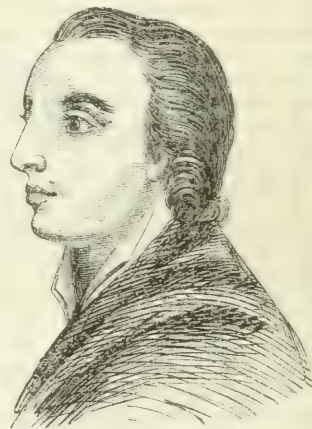
**AINSWORTH, HENRY**, a celebrated English nonconformist divine, who flourished at the latter end of the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth century. In the year 1590 he joined the Brownists, and, by his adherence to that sect, shared in their persecutions. He was well versed in the Hebrew language, and wrote several commentaries on the holy scriptures, which gained him great reputation. The Brownists having fallen into great discredit in England, they were involved in many fresh troubles and difficulties, so that Ainsworth at length quitted this country and fled to Holland, whither most of the nonconformists, who had incurred the displeasure of Queen Elizabeth's government, had taken refuge. At Amsterdam, in conjunction with Mr. Johnson, he erected a church, of which Ainsworth was the minister. They published in 1602 a "Confession of Faith of the People called Brownists;" but, being men of violent spirits, they split into parties about some points of discipline, and Johnson excommunicated his own father and brother; this divided the congregation, half of whom, joining with Ainsworth, excommunicated Johnson, who made the like return to that party. The contest grew at length so violent that Johnson and his followers removed to Embden, where he died soon after and his congregation dissolved. His scholastic learning was esteemed even by his adversaries, who, while they refuted his extravagant tenets, yet paid deference to his abilities; particularly Dr. Hall, bishop of Exeter, who wrote with great strength of argument against the Brownists. But nothing could induce him to return home, and he died in exile.

**AINSWORTH, ROBERT**, an eminent grammarian and lexicographer, who was born at Wooddale, in Lancashire, September 1660. He was educated at Bolton in that county, and afterwards possessed a school in the same town. Some years after he went to London, and became master of a considerable boarding-school at Bethnal Green, where, in 1698, he wrote and published a short Treatise on Grammar. Thence he removed to Hackney, and afterwards to other places near London, where he taught with considerable reputation for many years, and acquired a competency. About 1714 a proposal was made to certain eminent booksellers in London for compiling a new compendious English and Latin Dictionary, upon the same plan with Faber's Thesaurus, when Mr. Ainsworth being selected as a proper person for conducting such a work soon after undertook it. But the execution of it was at-

tended with so many difficulties that it went on very slowly for a long time, and for some years was entirely suspended; however, being at length resumed, it was finished, and published with a dedication to Dr. Mead in 1736. The best edition of this work was published in 1816, under the superintendence of Dr. Carey. Mr. Ainsworth died in London on the 4th of April, 1743, aged eighty-three.

**AITON, WILLIAM**, author of the *Hortus Kewensis*, born in Lanarkshire in Scotland. He was appointed principal gardener at Kew in 1759, and while in that office compiled his valuable catalogue of plants. He died in 1793, and was succeeded in his situation by his son.

**AKENSIDE, MARK**, a celebrated English poet and physician, who was born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, November 9, 1721. He was educated at the grammar school in Newcastle, and then sent to the universities of Edinburgh and Leyden. He was afterwards elected a fellow of the College of Physicians, and one of the physicians to St. Thomas's Hospital; and on the establishment of the queen's household he was appointed one of the physicians to her majesty. But it was as a poet that Akenside principally distinguished himself. The "Pleasures of Imagination," which is his principal work, was published in 1744, on which occasion Dodsley, by whom it was published, states that when it was offered to him for 120*l.* he was anxious to decline the purchase of it, but, on consulting Pope, he was informed that it was the composition of no ordinary writer, and this opinion was confirmed by the success of the work. At the period of its publication Dr. Akenside had not reached his twenty-third year.



The subject and design of this poem cannot be more briefly given than in the author's own language: "It is to give a view of the various pleasures founded on the exercise of the imaginative power, so that, whatever our imagination feels from the agreeable appearances of nature, and all the various attainments we meet with, either in poetry, painting, music, or any other of the elegant arts, might be deducible from one or other of those principles in the constitution of the human mind which are here established and explained." After some time, however, he became sensible that this work wanted correction and revision, but, finding this task too difficult, he resolved to entirely rewrite the poem, upon a some-



what different and enlarged plan. He finished two books of the new poem, a few copies of which were printed for the use of the author and his friends. He also finished a considerable portion of a third book, and an introduction to a fourth; but his munificent friend Mr. Dyson (who had for several years allowed him an income of 300*l.* per annum) thought the new work too inconsiderable to supply the place and supersede the republication of the original poem, and yet too valuable to be withheld from the public. He therefore had them both inserted in a general collection of his poems.

With respect to the general character of Dr. Aken-side, he was a man of strictly religious principles, a philosopher, a scholar, and a poet. He possessed great powers of mind, and his conversation was learned, cheerful, and entertaining. His odes, of which he published a considerable number, have their dark as well as light parts, and frequently abound in flights of thought of the most powerful kind. He was also author of several medical works, but they are not of sufficient importance to warrant a distinct enumeration. We have stated that Aken-side was a native of Newcastle-upon Tyne; his precise birth-place was, however, as much as possible concealed by the poet himself, and never adverted to by his friends. The house in which he was born is delineated in the subjoined engraving, and it formed a part of the Butcher's Row or shambles in that town.



**ALABASTER, WILLIAM**, an English divine, who abjured the doctrines of the church of England, but subsequently returned to that communion. His principal work is a "Lexicon Pentaglotton," which he published in 1637. He died in 1640.

**ALARIC**, a celebrated leader and afterwards king of the Visigoths. He fought with great valour against the Romans, until the year 382, when with his followers he was permitted by the emperor Theodosius to settle in Thrace on condition of serving the empire when required. This peace was preserved during the life of Theodosius, but under his successor Arcadius Alaric revolted and committed great ravages in Greece. The celebrated general Stilicho checked his career, but afterwards allowed him to escape. He was soon after made formal master of the provinces he had so mercilessly oppressed, by the timid emperor of the East, and also chosen king by his own tribe. He then turned his arms into Italy, and

although he was again opposed by Stilicho, he was by that general's advice taken into the service of the Roman emperor Honorius, but, owing to the want of faith on both sides, the agreement was shortly afterwards broken, and in August 410 he entered the Roman capital at the head of a victorious army. From Rome he directed his steps to the extremity of Italy, intending to invade Sicily, but he was stopped by the hand of death in the midst of his victorious career. This event took place in 410 near Rhegium.



**ALASCO, JOHN**, a Polish prince who held a distinguished place amongst the reformers of the sixteenth century. He received a good education, and in 1525 became intimately acquainted with Erasmus. In the following year he returned to Poland, and was nominated to the bishopric of Veszprinz, but, having been converted to the protestant faith by Zuinglius, he declined the office. In 1551 he visited this country, and the reformation having made considerable progress under Edward VI. he was very warmly received. Archbishop Cranmer procured him letters of naturalization, and a church previously occupied by the Augustine friars was granted for the use of himself and his congregation. He was appointed superintendent and took up his residence there with four assistant ministers. It may be proper to state that the edifice still remain in the street called Austin Friars, and the library, when it was visited by the Editor of this work a few years back, contained many memorials of the early reformers. The MS. works, including a treatise on theology by Alasco, were then deposited in an ancient chest strongly clasped with iron.

At the commencement of Mary's reign, the congregation of the Dutch church were warned to depart from this country, and in 1554 Alasco and his flock removed to Embden. He died after a short illness, January 13th, 1560. Melchior Adam has given a catalogue of his writings without dates. His principal work was on the sacrament, and he published a form of prayer and religious service used in the church at London.

**ALBANI**, a rich and powerful family of Rome, which fled before the Turks, in the sixteenth century, from Albania to Italy. Here it was divided into two branches, the one constituting the family of Bergamo, the other that of Urbino. The Roman branch of the Albani family owes its splendour to a fortu-

nate circumstance. It was one of this family who announced to Urban VIII. the acquisition of Urbino; and riches and posts of honour were the reward of his tidings. The influence of the family was very great when Clement XI. ascended the papal chair in 1700. One of the nephews of this pope, named Annibale Albani, has distinguished himself by his writings and collections of books and works of art, which have been incorporated with the treasures of the Vatican. Alessandro his younger brother, born at Urbino in 1692, took orders at the express desire of Pope Clement XI. He was raised to the dignity of cardinal, in 1721, by Innocent XIII. As a member of the sacred college, as a protector of Sardinia, and under Benedict XIV. as associate protector of the imperial states, he took an active part in all the contests in which the papal court was then engaged, particularly on account of his great friendship for the Jesuits, of which many proofs exist, especially in the journals of father Coreara. In the charms of a quiet literary life and of agreeable society the cardinal found greater enjoyment than in the turmoil of business. One of his greatest pleasures was in a collection of works of art, which he was assisted in arranging by Winckelmann, whose collections he inherited. It is known how sincerely Winckelmann was devoted to the cardinal, whose knowledge could appreciate and second the genius of the archæologist. Of this his splendid villa before Porta Salara, at Rome, notwithstanding many losses, affords a striking proof. It contains the richest modern private collection, and does honour to the taste of its founder. It was said in Rome, soon after the death of the cardinal, as a proof of his acquaintance with ancient coins, that he could distinguish the genuine from the counterfeit by the mere touch. The cardinal died in December 1779.

ALBANI, FRANCIS, a celebrated painter, born in Bologna, in March 1578. His father was a silk merchant, and intended to bring up his son to that business; but Albani, having a strong inclination to painting, when his father died, devoted himself entirely to that art, though then but twelve years of age. He first studied under Calvert, and Guido Rheni, who was at the same time under this master, contracted a very strong friendship with him. Calvert drew but one profile for Albani, and afterwards left him entirely to the care of Guido, under whom he made great progress. Albani, after having greatly improved himself under Caraccio, went to Rome, where he continued many years, and married in that city. Malvasia, when speaking of Albani, says he did not "feign Cupid heavy and sleeping, as Guido did, but represented him seated majestically on a throne, now directing the sportive exercises of the little lovers shooting at a heart fixed on a trunk of a tree, now presiding over their sprightly dances round the marble monument of Flora crowned with a chaplet of blooming flowers, and now surveying the conquest of the little winged boys over the rural satyrs and fauns. If he represented a dead Adonis, he always introduced a band of lovers, some of whom, viewing the wound, drew back in the utmost horror; while others, exasperated, broke to pieces their bows and arrows, as being no longer of use to them, since Adonis was no more; and others again who, running behind the fierce wild boar, brandished their darts with an air of vengeance."

He died the 4th of October, 1660, to the great grief of the whole city of Bologna. Malvasia has pre-

served the inscription which was placed on his monument. It states that "the mortal remains of the illustrious Albani, he who gave life to shade, lie interred in this tomb: the earth never produced so wonderful an artist, or a hand equal to his immortal one, which gave colours to the soul, and a soul to colours. Prometheus animated dead clay, and gave life by means of the sun; but Albani animated merely by the assistance of shade."

ALBEMARLE, GEORGE, DUKE OF.—This distinguished general and statesman was the son of Sir Thomas Monk, who had long been known for his loyalty. He was born at Potheridge in Devonshire, December 6th 1608, and, after having received a good education, entered as a volunteer in an expedition fitted out against Spain. In 1628 he served as ensign in the Low Countries, where he was promoted to the rank of a captain. In this station he was employed in several sieges and battles; and having, in ten years' service, made himself well acquainted with the military art, he returned to his native country, just on the breaking out of the war between Charles I. and his Scottish subjects. His reputation, supported by proper recommendations, procured him the rank of lieutenant-colonel, in which post he served in both the king's northern expeditions, and afterwards as colonel, when the Irish rebellion broke out. In quelling this, he did such considerable service that the lords-justices appointed him governor of Dublin: but, the parliament objecting, that authority was vested in another officer.



Soon after, on his signing a truce with the rebels, by the king's order he returned with his regiment to England; but, on his arrival at Bristol, was met by orders both from Ireland and Oxford, directing the governor of that place to secure him. The governor, however, believing the suspicions cherished against him to be groundless, suffered him to proceed to Oxford on his parole; and there he so fully justified himself to Lord Digby, then secretary of state, that he was by that nobleman introduced to the king; but his regiment was given to Colonel Warren. As some amends for this, the king made him major-general in the Irish brigade, then employed in the siege of Nantwich in Cheshire, at which place he arrived just soon enough to share in the unfortunate



surprisal of the whole brigade by Sir Thomas Fairfax. He was sent to Hull, and thence conveyed to the Tower of London, where he remained in close confinement till November 1646, when he took the covenant, and agreed to accept a command in the parliamentary army. Some have charged him with ingratitude for thus deserting the king, who had been so kind to him during his confinement, but it may be said in his favour that he never listened to any terms made him by the parliamentarians while the king had an army in the field, but, when his majesty was in the hands of his enemies, he readily accepted of a colonel's commission; and, as he had been engaged against the Irish rebels before, he thought it consistent with the duty he owed, and which he had hitherto inviolably maintained, to the king to oppose them again. Soon after he was made commander-in-chief of all the parliamentary forces in the north of Ireland. He was afterwards called to account for having treated with the Irish rebels, and summoned to appear before the parliament, who, after hearing him at the bar of the house, passed a vote, "That they did disapprove of what major-general Monk had done, in concluding a peace with the grand and bloody Irish rebel Owen Roe O'Neal, and did abhor the having any thing to do with him therein; yet are easily persuaded that the making the same by the said major-general was, in his judgment, most for the advantage of the English interest in that nation; and that he shall not be further questioned for the same in time to come." This vote highly offended the major-general, and his friends endeavoured to clear his reputation by publishing his reasons for agreeing with O'Neal, yet nothing could wipe off the stain of treating with Irish rebels, till it was forgotten in his future fortune.

About this time his elder brother died without issue male; and the family estate devolved upon him. He had scarcely settled his private affairs, when he was called to serve against the Scots, who had proclaimed Charles II. He was made lieutenant-general of the artillery by Cromwell, and had a regiment given him. He was so extremely serviceable that Cromwell left him commander-in-chief in Scotland, when he returned to England to pursue Charles II. The Dutch war having now been carried on for some months, the lieutenant-general was joined with the admirals Blake and Dean in the command at sea, in which service on the 2d of June 1653 he contributed greatly by his courage and conduct to the defeat then given to the Dutch fleet. Monk and Dean were both on board the same ship; and, Dean being killed the first broadside, Monk threw his cloak over the body, and gave orders for continuing the battle, without suffering the enemy to know of his death. Cromwell, in the mean time, was paving his way to the supreme command, which he soon obtained, under the title of protector; and in this capacity concluded a peace with the Dutch. Monk remonstrated warmly against the terms of this peace; and his remonstrances were well received by Oliver's own parliament. The protector afterwards took him into favour; and, on the breaking out of fresh troubles in Scotland, sent him there as commander-in-chief. He set out in April 1654, and finished the war by August, when he returned from the highlands, and fixed his abode at Dalkeith, a seat belonging to the countess of Buccleugh, within five miles of Edinburgh; and here he resided during the re-

maining time that he resided in Scotland, which was five years, devoting himself to rural occupations. He was then employed as one of the protector's council of state in Scotland, whose commission bore date in June 1655. Cromwell however distrusted him at times, on account of his popularity; nor was this distrust entirely without the appearance of foundation, as it is certain the king entertained good hopes of bringing him over to his interests, and to that purpose sent to him the following letter from Cologne, August 12th 1655.

"One who believes he knows your nature and inclinations very well assures me that, notwithstanding all ill accidents and misfortunes, you retain still your old affection to me, and resolve to express it upon the first seasonable opportunity, which is as much as I look for from you. We must all patiently wait for that opportunity, which may be offered sooner than we expect: when it is, let it find you ready; and in the mean time have a care to keep yourself out of their hands who know the hurt you can do them in a good conjuncture, and can never but suspect your affection to be, as I am confident it is, towards Your, &c., CHARLES, Rex."

While in Scotland Monk made no scruple of discovering every step taken by the cavaliers which came to his knowledge, even to the sending of this letter to the protector, and joined in promoting addresses to him from the army. Upon the death of Oliver, Monk joined in an address to the new protector Richard, whose power he prognosticated would be but short-lived, it having been his opinion that even Oliver, had he lived much longer, would scarcely have been able to preserve his high station. And indeed Cromwell himself began to be apprehensive of that great alteration which took place in his government after his death, and suspected that the general was engaged in those measures which procured it, if we may judge from a letter written by him a little before, to which was added the following remarkable postscript:—"There be that tell me that there is a certain cunning fellow in Scotland, called George Monk, who is said to lie in wait there to introduce Charles Stuart. I pray you, use your diligence to apprehend him, and send him up to me." We cannot in the present place trace the events which led to the restoration of Charles II., and it may be enough to state that upon the deposition of Richard Cromwell the general was the principal instrument in effecting that important object. He was immediately loaded with pensions and honours, was made knight of the garter, one of the privy-council, master of the horse, a gentleman of the bedchamber, first lord commissioner of the treasury, and soon after created a peer, being made baron Monk of Potheridge, Beauchamp, and Tees, earl of Torrington, and duke of Albemarle, with a grant of 7000*l.* per annum, besides other pensions. On being thus called to the peerage, almost the whole house of commons attended him to the very door of the house of lords, where he acted with great moderation and humility, so that the king, who frequently called him his political father, said, very highly to his honour, "The duke of Albemarle demeaned himself in such a manner to the prince he had obliged as never to seem to overvalue the services of general Monk."

He spent the remainder of his life holding the highest offices in the state, consulted and employed



upon all great occasions by the king his master, and at the same time perfectly esteemed and beloved by his fellow subjects. In 1664, on the breaking out of the first Dutch war, he was entrusted with the care of the admiralty; and, the plague breaking out the same year in London, he was entrusted likewise with the care of the city by the king, who retired to Oxford. He was at the latter end of this year appointed joint admiral of the fleet with prince Rupert, and distinguished himself with great bravery against the Dutch. The many hardships and fatigues he had undergone in a military life now began to affect his constitution, so that in his sixtieth year he was attacked with a dropsy, which, being neglected, put a period to his life in January, 1669-70. His funeral was performed with all imaginable pomp and solemnity, and he was interred in Henry the VIIth's chapel at Westminster, after his corpse had lain in state many weeks at Somerset House.

As an author the duke of Albemarle possessed considerable merit. His principal work is entitled "Observations upon Military and Political Affairs, Written by the most Honourable George Duke of Albemarle."



**ALBERONI, JULIUS.**—This distinguished ecclesiastic was the son of a gardener, who lived in the suburbs of Placentia. He was born on the 31st of May, 1664, and from this very humble origin rose to be the first minister of the king of Spain. The circumstances which gave rise to this singular elevation are believed to be as follows:—The poet Campistron, who was a domestic of the duke of Vendome, was robbed while making a tour of pleasure through Italy, in a place near Parma, where Alberoni was curate. The stranger found relief in his distress from the charity of the priest, and received both clothes and money to carry him to Rome. Campistron afterwards attended the duke of Vendome to Italy as his secretary: and the duke wishing to know where the country people had concealed their corn, and, being at the same time near Alberoni's parish, the secretary took this opportunity of mentioning his benefactor to him. The curate was sent for, and the important information which he communicated to the French army rendered his stay in his own country uneasy and insecure. When Vendome was recalled, he therefore followed. The cure of Anet, in the duke's nomination, soon became vacant, and was offered to Alberoni, who refused it, as he pre-

ferred going in the duke's train to Madrid. The great influence which the princess of Ursino had over Philip V. obliged the duke de Vendome to enter into a close connection with her. He chose Alberoni to manage their correspondence, while he was gone to command the army. The princess took a great liking to him, and he did every thing to ingratiate himself in her favour. After the death of Vendome, he devoted himself to her service, and had the greatest share of her confidence. By her recommendation he was appointed agent for the duke of Parma at the court of Madrid. His sovereign had great reason to be pleased with his appointment, as by his management the princess of Parma was fixed upon for a second consort for the king of Spain. He well knew the jealousy of the princess of Ursino, and her fears that a new queen might lessen her influence. He therefore represented the princess as young and artless, as incapable of attending to anything but pleasure and gaiety, and so far prevailed upon her as to second his views, and to press the king to begin the negotiation. As there was reason to fear that the favourite might be undeceived with regard to the princess, whose wit was equal to her beauty, and influence the king to change his resolution, the duke and Alberoni made what despatch they could to bring the affair to a conclusion. But notwithstanding their activity the princess of Ursino had nearly prevented the completion of the negotiation, as a courier was sent from Madrid to stop the proceedings the evening before it was to be concluded. When the courier came, Alberoni did not allow him to make his appearance. The treaty was finished, and the marriage concluded. The new queen came to Madrid, and, by the advice of Alberoni, the first favour she asked of the king was not to see the princess of Ursino at court; and she was gratified. Alberoni availed himself of the influence which her virtue and beauty gave her over the king. He was made privy counsellor, and afterwards prime-minister, and raised to the purple. He roused the kingdom of Spain out of the lethargy it had been in for more than a century, and awakened the attention, while he raised the astonishment of all Europe. He willingly agreed to the proposal for setting the pretender on the throne of England; but as he had but just come into the ministry, and the affairs of Spain were to be settled before he could attempt to overthrow other kingdoms, there was no great likelihood of his being able to accomplish his object for some time; yet in less than two years he had done much for Spain, and had taken measures to depose the duke of Orleans from the regency of France, and George I. from the throne of Great Britain, when he was, through the influence of a powerful prince, deprived of his dignity, and banished to Rome. But, notwithstanding these events, he still preserved his credit with the court of Spain. He died at Placentia, in June 1792, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. He left his estates in Lombardy to the college of St. Lazarus, and the revenue of those in Romagna to his nephew during life, and afterwards to the same college. The "Testament Politique" of Cardinal Alberoni, collected from the memoirs and letters, was published at Lausanne, 1753.

**ALBERT I.** emperor of Germany, was born in 1248. He was the son of the emperor Rodolph of Hapsburg, who attempted a short time prior



to his death to place the crown on the head of his son Albert, but the electors refused his request. After the death of Rodolph, without waiting for the decision of the diet, he seized on the insignia of the empire. The diet then chose Adolphus of Nassau as emperor, and this circumstance combined with other events induced Albert to deliver up the insignia and take the oath of allegiance to the new emperor.

As soon as he had quelled an insurrection in Switzerland, he was involved in new quarrels with his subjects in Austria and Stiria, especially with the bishop of Salzburg, who had made an incursion into his dominions. In the mean time Adolphus, after a reign of six years, had lost the regard of six princes of the empire. Albert endeavoured to avail himself of this change of feeling, and succeeded so far, by assumed mildness, in deceiving the princes, that they chose him emperor, after deposing Adolphus at the diet in 1298. Adolphus, however, would not resign the imperial dignity, and force was found necessary to remove him. The rivals met, with their armies, near Gellheim, between Worms and Spire. The leaders engaged hand to hand, and Adolphus exclaimed to his adversary, "Thou shalt lose at once thy crown and life." "Heaven will decide" was the answer of Albert, striking him with his lance in the face. Adolphus fell from his horse, and was despatched by the companions of his antagonist. The last barrier had thus fallen between Albert and the supreme power, but he was conscious of having now an opportunity of displaying his magnanimity. He voluntarily resigned the crown conferred on him by the last election, and, as he had anticipated, was re-elected.

His coronation took place at Aix-la-Chapelle, in August, 1298; and he held his first diet at Nuremberg, with a remarkable degree of splendour. But a new storm was gathering over him. The pope, Boniface VIII., denied the right of the electors to dispose of the imperial dignity, declaring himself the real emperor. He accordingly summoned Albert before him, to ask pardon, and to submit to such penance as he should dictate; he forbade the princes to acknowledge him, and released them from their oath of allegiance. The archbishop of Mentz from a friend became the enemy of Albert, and joined the party of the pope. On the other hand, Albert formed an alliance with Philip le Bel of France, secured the neutrality of Saxony and Brandenburg, and, by a sudden irruption into the electorate of Mentz, forced the archbishop not only to renounce his alliance with the pope, but to form one with him for the five ensuing years. Dismayed by this rapid success, Boniface entered into negotiations with Albert, in which the latter again showed the duplicity of his character. He broke his alliance with Philip, acknowledged that the western empire was a grant from the popes to the emperors, that the electors derived their right of choosing from the see of Rome, and promised to defend with arms the rights of the pope, whenever he should demand it against any one. As a reward, Boniface excommunicated Philip, proclaimed him to have forfeited his crown, and gave the kingdom of France to Albert. Philip, however, chastised the pope, and Albert engaged in several successful wars with Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Hungaria, Bohemia, and Thuringia. While preparing to revenge a defeat which he had suffered in Thuringia, he received the news of the revolt of the Swiss, and saw himself obliged to di-

rect his forces thither. Albert, however, had not only foreseen this consequence of his oppression, but desired it, in order to subject Switzerland entirely to himself. A new act of injustice, however, put an end to his ambition and life. Suabia was the inheritance of John, the son of his younger brother, Rodolph. John had repeatedly asserted his right to it, but in vain. When Albert set out for Switzerland, John renewed his demand, which was contemptuously rejected by the emperor, who scoffingly offered him a garland of flowers, saying, "This becomes your age; leave the cares of government to me." John, in revenge, conspired with his governor, Walter of Essenbach, and three friends, against his life. The conspirators improved the moment when the emperor, on his way to Rheinfelden, was separated from his train by the river Reuss, and assassinated him on the 1st of May, 1308. He was a prince regardless of right and equity, tyrannical, avaricious, and ambitious, but able as a commander.

ALAMANNI, LEWIS, an eminent Italian poet, who was born at Florence, the 28th of October, 1495. He studied in his own country, under the celebrated James Diacetto. The friendship which he contracted with him and Buondelmonte nearly cost him his life, for he entered with them into a conspiracy against Julius de Medici, and, the plot being discovered, Diacetto was beheaded, but Alamanni and Buondelmonte saved themselves by flight. Julius de Medici having been elected pope next year, under the name of Clement VII., they resolved to retire into France; as they passed through Brescia, they were arrested and thrown into prison, but Capello having used his interest in their favour they were again set at liberty. When Charles V.'s army took Rome, the pope was obliged to retire to the castle of St. Angelo. The Florentines seized this opportunity to acquire their liberty; and, having driven the Medici out of the city, recalled Alamanni and Buondelmonte, with many others who had been exiled. But, the emperor's army having been very successful in Italy, Nicholas Capponi, one of the chief magistrates of Florence, being apprehensive of some new misfortune, proposed entering into an agreement with his imperial majesty. Several persons were of his opinion; and, a council of the city being called, Alamanni made a long speech in support of Capponi's motion, and the commonwealth having raised an army, in 1528, they appointed Alamanni commissary-general, and his commission was sent to him at Genoa.

A truce having been concluded between the emperor and Francis I., the Florentines thought it advisable to send deputies to solicit peace with his imperial majesty; but he refused to treat with them unless they restored the sovereign power to the Medici; and, upon their refusal to comply with this demand, the emperor's and the pope's armies entered into Tuscany and besieged Florence. The Florentines applied to Francis I., but, not finding him disposed to give them any relief, they had recourse to their citizens in exile: Alamanni, who had a strong love for his country, forgetting the ill-treatment he had received, raised a considerable sum of money in order to assist his fellow-citizens; but it was too late, as the Florentines were obliged to surrender their city on the 10th of August, 1530, and Alexander de Medici was invested with the sovereign authority. The leading men of the popular party were put to death, and Alamanni, among others, was

banished to Provence; but, not conforming to his sentence, was summoned to appear, and, upon his non-appearance, declared a rebel, in 1532. He now went again to France, where Francis I., from a love to his genius and merit, became his patron. This prince employed him in several important affairs, and honoured him with the collar of the order of St. Michael. Peace having been concluded in 1544, between the emperor and the king of France, Alamanni was sent ambassador to the imperial court. Among the several poems which he had composed in the praise of Francis I. there was one severe satire upon the emperor, in which the cock says to the eagle,

Aquila grifagna  
Che per piu divorar due becchi porta.

Two crooked bills the ravenous eagle bears,  
The better to devour.

The emperor had read this poem; and when Alamanni appeared before him, and pronounced an eloquent speech in his praise, beginning every period with the word *Aquila*, he heard him with great attention, and at the conclusion thereof made no reply, but repeated

Aquila grifagna  
Che per piu divorar due becchi porta.

This, however, did not disconcert Alamanni, who immediately answered, "Sir, when I composed these lines, it was as a poet, who is permitted to use fictions; but now I speak as an ambassador, who is bound in honour to tell the truth. I spoke then as a youth; I speak now as a man advanced in years: I was then swayed by rage and passion, arising from the desolate condition of my country; but now I am calm and free from passion."

After the death of Francis, Henry duke of Orleans, who succeeded him in 1537, showed considerable favour to Alamanni; and in the year 1551 sent him as his ambassador to Genoa. This was his last journey to Italy; and, having returned to France, he died at Amboise on the 18th of April, 1561, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. He left many beautiful poems, in the Italian language.

ALAN, WILLIAM, usually called the great English cardinal, was born at Rossal in Lancashire, in 1532. In 1547 he was entered at Oriel College, Oxford, and in 1556 he was chosen principal of St. Mary's Hall, being then but twenty-four years of age. In 1558 he was made canon of York. But, on Queen Elizabeth's accession to the throne, he lost all hopes of preferment, and, in 1560, retired to Louvain in the Spanish Netherlands, where an English college was erected, of which he became the chief support. Here he began to write in defence of the catholic religion, and his first production was an attack on Bishop Jewell. In 1568 he went to Mechlin, in the duchy of Brabant, where he read lectures on divinity with great applause; thence he removed to Douay, where he was made doctor of divinity: he had also the canonry of Cambrai bestowed upon him as a reward for his zeal in the service of the catholic church.

Dr. Alan, having written various treatises in defence of the doctrines and practices of the Romish church, was now esteemed the champion of his party, but in his own country he was reputed an enemy of the state, all correspondence with him was deemed treason, and Thomas Alfield was executed

for bringing certain works of his into England. Alfield was condemned for introducing Dr. Alan's "Defence of the Twelve Martyrs," a work which materially injured the catholic cause in England. Its leading tenets may be gathered from the following extract:—"The bond and obligation we have entered into for the service of Christ and the church far exceedeth all other duty which we owe to any human creature; and therefore, where the obedience to the inferior hindereth the service of the other, which is superior, we must, by law and order, discharge ourselves of the inferior. The wife, if she cannot live with her own husband, being an infidel or a heretic, without injury or dishonour to God, she may depart from him; or, contrariwise, he from her for the like cause. The bond-slave, which is in another kind no less bound to his lord and master than the subject to his sovereign, may also, by the ancient imperial laws, depart and refuse to obey or serve him if he become a heretic; yea, *ipso facto*, he is made free. Finally, the parents that become heretics lose the superiority and dominion they have, by the law of nature, over their own children: therefore let no man marvel that, in case of heresy, the sovereign loseth the superiority over his people and kingdom."

It was thought to be owing to the instigation of Dr. Alan, and some fugitive English noblemen, that Philip II. undertook to invade England. In order to facilitate this, Pope Sixtus V. was prevailed upon to renew the excommunication fulminated against Queen Elizabeth by Pius V. About this time too Sir William Stanley betrayed the town of Darenter to the Spaniards, and entered with his whole regiment into their service. Alan wrote a treatise in defence of this scandalous proceeding: it was printed in English, in the form of a letter, and afterwards in Latin, under the title of "*Epistola de Daventriæ ditione*." For this, and other services, he was created cardinal on the 28th of July, 1587, and soon after the king of Spain gave him an abbey of great value in the kingdom of Naples.

In April, 1586, Alan published a work consisting of two parts, the first explaining the pope's bull for the excommunication and deprivation of Queen Elizabeth; the second exhorting the nobility and people of England to desert her, and take up arms in favour of the Spaniards. Many thousand copies were printed at Antwerp, to be put on board the armada, that they might be dispersed all over England; but, on the failure of that enterprise, all these books were destroyed. One of them, as soon as printed, having been transmitted by some of the lord treasurer's emissaries to the English council, Queen Elizabeth sent Dr. Dale into the Low Countries to complain of it to the prince of Parma. After the armada was destroyed, the earl of Arundel, who had been three years in prison under a charge of high treason, was brought to trial; and, it being proved that he held a correspondence with Cardinal Alan, he was found guilty by his peers. Alan spent the remainder of his life at Rome. In the latter part of his life, he is said to have altered his sentiments, and to have been extremely sorry for the pains he had taken to promote the invasion of England by the Spaniards. He died on the 26th of October, 1594, in the sixty-third year of his age, and was buried in the English college at Rome, where a monument is erected to his memory.



ALBERTUS MAGNUS, bishop of Ratisbon, was a distinguished scholar of the thirteenth century. Besides his theological learning, he was well versed in history, and, for the period in which he lived, he had an excellent knowledge of philosophy. He was born in the early part of the twelfth century, at Lavingen in Suabia, of the noble family of Bollstädt, and studied at Padua, where he was made provincial of his order, and in 1260 received from Pope Alexander IV. the bishopric of Ratisbon. Two years later he returned to his convent, and there produced many learned works on arithmetic, geometry, optics, music, and astronomy. They make twenty-one volumes in folio. This learned bishop died in 1280.

ALBINUS, BERNHARD SIEGFRED, a celebrated anatomist, who was born of an illustrious family, at Frankfort on the Oder, in 1697. His father was then professor of medicine in the university of Frankfort; but in the year 1702 he repaired to Leyden, being nominated professor of anatomy and surgery in that university. Here his son had an opportunity of studying under the most eminent masters in Europe, who, from the singular abilities which he then displayed, had no difficulty in prognosticating his future eminence. But, while he was distinguished in every branch of literature, his attention was particularly turned to anatomy and surgery. His peculiar attachment to these branches of knowledge gained him the intimate friendship of Ruysch and Rau, who at that time resided in Leyden; and the latter, so justly celebrated as a lithotomist, is said to have seldom performed an important operation without inviting him to be present. Having finished his studies at Leyden, he went to Paris, where he attended the lectures of Du Verney, Vailant, and other celebrated professors. But he had scarcely spent a year there when he was invited by the curators of the university of Leyden to become lecturer in anatomy and surgery at that place. Though contrary to his own inclination, he complied with their request, and upon that occasion was created doctor of physic without any examination. Soon after, upon the death of his father, he was appointed to succeed him as professor of anatomy. In the capacity of a professor he not only bestowed the greatest attention upon the instruction of the youth entrusted to his care, but in the improvement of the medical art. With this view he published many important works of his own, which were splendidly illustrated. In 1745 he was appointed professor of the practice of medicine at Leyden, and was succeeded in the anatomical chair by his brother Frederick Albinus. He was twice rector of the university, and as often refused that high honour when it was voluntarily offered him. At length, worn out by long service and intense study, he died on the 9th of September, 1770, in the seventy-fourth year of his age.

ALBUQUERQUE, ALFONSO DE, a viceroy of India, who was so distinguished as a military commander that he was surnamed *the Great*, and was also called the *Portuguese Mars*. He was born at Lisbon in 1452, of a family that derived its origin from a race of kings. A heroic and enterprising spirit at that time distinguished his nation. They had become acquainted with, and had subjected to their power, a large part of the western coast of Africa, and began to extend their sway over the seas and nations of

India, when Albuquerque was appointed viceroy of their acquisitions in this quarter of the globe. He arrived in September, 1503, with a fleet and a body of troops, on the coast of Malabar, took possession of Goa, which he made the centre of the Portuguese power and commerce in Asia, and subdued the whole of Malabar, Ceylon, the Sunda islands, and the peninsula of Malacca. In 1507 he made himself master of the island of Ormus, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf; and, when the king of Persia demanded the tribute which the princes of this island had formerly paid him, Albuquerque laid before the ambassadors a bullet and a sword, saying, "This is the coin in which Portugal pays her tribute." He made the Portuguese name highly respected by all the nations and princes of India, and several, as the kings of Siam and Pegu, courted his friendship and protection. All his enterprises were extraordinary in a military point of view. His discipline was strict; he was active, cautious, wise, humane and just, respected and feared by his neighbours and beloved by his inferiors. His virtues made such an impression on the Indians that they, for a long time after his death, made pilgrimages to his tomb, and besought him to protect them against the tyranny of his successors. Notwithstanding his great merits, he did not escape the envy of the Portuguese court, and the suspicions of King Emanuel, who sent Lopez Soarez, his personal enemy, to fill his place. The ingratitude of his sovereign severely afflicted him, and he died a few days after receiving the intelligence, at Goa, in 1515, having recommended his only son to the king's favour, in a letter written a short time before his death. Emanuel honoured his memory by a long repentance for the injustice with which he had treated him, and raised his son to the highest dignities of the kingdom.

ALCÆUS, one of the greatest Grecian lyric poets, was born at Mitylene, in Lesbos, and flourished there at the close of the seventh and the beginning of the sixth centuries, B.C. Somewhat older than Sappho, he paid homage to the beauty and talents of his distinguished countrywoman. He engaged in the civil war which convulsed his country at the time of the expulsion of the tyrants, and used both the lyre and the sword in the cause of liberty. At the commencement of the war he took part with Pittacus, subsequently against him, when he took the reins of government into his own hands, after the overthrow of the petty tyrants, in order to unite and quiet the divided people. When Alcæus was expelled from Mitylene by the change of circumstances he wandered about for a long time, and at last fell into the hands of Pittacus, in an attempt to force his way into his native city, at the head of a body of exiles. The latter magnanimously restored him to liberty. His songs breathe the same spirit with his life. A strong manly enthusiasm for freedom and justice pervades even those in which he sings the pleasures of love and wine. But the sublimity of his nature shines brightest when he praises valour, chastises tyrants, describes the blessings of liberty and the misery of exile. His lyric muse was versed in all the forms and subjects of poetry, and antiquity attributes to him a variety of hymns, odes, and songs. A few fragments only are left of all of them, and a distant echo of his poetry reaches us in some odes of Horace. He wrote in the Æolic dialect, and was the inventor of the metre that bears his name, one



of the most beautiful and melodious of all the lyric metres.

ALCIBIADES, the son of Cleonias, was one of the most distinguished statesmen and generals during the Peloponnesian war. The precise date of his birth is not known, but he first appeared in public life about the year 421, B.C. He lost his father in the battle of Charonea, and was afterwards educated in the house of Pericles. His beauty and birth, and the high station of Pericles, procured him a multitude of friends and admirers, and his reputation was affected by the dissipation in which he became involved. He was fortunate in acquiring the friendship of Socrates, who endeavoured to lead him back to virtue, and undoubtedly obtained a great ascendancy over him, so that Alcibiades often quitted his gay associates for the company of the philosopher. He bore arms for the first time in the expedition against Potidea, and, when wounded, Socrates, who fought at his side, defended him, and led him out of danger. In the battle of Delium, he was among the cavalry who were victorious, but, the infantry being defeated, he was obliged to flee, as well as the rest. He afterwards overtook Socrates, who was retreating on foot, accompanied him, and protected him. On the death of Cleon, Nicias succeeded in making a peace for fifty years between the Athenians and Lacedæmonians.

Alcibiades, jealous of the influence of Nicias, and offended because the Lacedæmonians, with whom he was connected by the ties of hospitality, had not applied to him, fomented some disagreement between the two nations into an occasion for breaking the peace. The Lacedæmonians having sent ambassadors to Athens, Alcibiades received them with apparent good will, and advised them to conceal their credentials, lest the Athenians should prescribe conditions to them. They suffered themselves to be duped, and, when called into the assembly, declared that they were without credentials. Alcibiades rose immediately, accused them of ill faith, and induced the Athenians to form an alliance with the Argives, so that a breach with the Lacedæmonians was the consequence.

Alcibiades now pursued a life of the most unbounded prodigality. His extravagance was conspicuous at the Olympic games, where he entered the stadium not like other rich men with one chariot, but with seven at a time, and gained the prizes. He seems to have been victor also in the Pythian and Nemæan games. All this together drew upon him the hatred of many of his fellow-citizens, and he would have fallen a sacrifice to their jealousy if he had not, in connection with Nicias and Phæax, who feared a similar fate, contrived to procure the banishment of his most formidable enemy. Soon afterwards the Athenians, at the instance of Alcibiades, resolved on an expedition against Sicily, and elected him commander-in-chief, together with Nicias and Lamachus. But, during the preparations, all the statues of Mercury were broken in one night by some sacrilegious person. The enemies of Alcibiades charged him with the act, but postponed a public accusation till he had set sail, when they stirred up the people against him to such a degree that he was recalled, in order to be tried. Alcibiades had been very successful in Sicily when he received the order to return. He obeyed and embarked, but, on reaching Thurium, concealed himself. He was consequently condemned to death in Athens, and

said, when the news reached him, "I shall, by my deeds, show the Athenians that I am yet alive." He now went to Argos, thence to Sparta, where he made himself a great favourite, by conforming closely to the prevailing strictness of manners. Here he succeeded in inducing the Lacedæmonians to form an alliance with the Persian king, and, after the unfortunate issue of the Athenian expedition against Sicily, he prevailed on them to assist the inhabitants of Chios in throwing off the yoke of Athens. He went thither himself, and, on his arrival in Asia Minor, roused the whole of Ionia to insurrection against the Athenians, and did them considerable injury. But Agis and the principal leaders of the Spartans became jealous of him, on account of his success, and ordered their commanders in Asia to cause him to be assassinated.

Alcibiades suspected their plan and went to Tissaphernes, a Persian satrap, who was ordered to act in concert with the Lacedæmonians. Here he changed his manners once more, adopted the luxurious habits of Asia, and, as he could no longer trust the Lacedæmonians, he undertook to serve his country, and showed Tissaphernes that it was against the interest of the Persian king to weaken the Athenians. On the contrary, that Sparta and Athens ought to be preserved for their mutual injury. Tissaphernes followed this advice and afforded the Athenians some relief. The latter had, at that time, considerable forces at Samos, and Alcibiades sent word to their commanders that, if the licentiousness of the people was suppressed, and the government put into the hands of the nobles, he would procure for them the friendship of Tissaphernes, and prevent the junction of the Phœnician and Lacedæmonian fleets. This demand was granted and Pisander sent to Athens, by whose means the government of the city was put into the hands of a council consisting of 400 persons. As, however, the council showed no intention to recall Alcibiades, the army of Samos chose him their commander, and exhorted him to go directly to Athens, and overthrow the power of the tyrants. He wished, however, not to return to his country before he had done it some services, and therefore attacked and totally defeated the fleet of the Lacedæmonians. When he returned to Tissaphernes, the latter, in order not to appear a participator in the act, caused him to be arrested in Sardis. But Alcibiades found means to escape, placed himself at the head of the Athenian army, conquered the Lacedæmonians and Persians, at Cyzicus, by sea and land, took Cyzicus, Chalcædon, and Byzantium, restored the sovereignty of the sea to the Athenians, and returned to his country, whither he had been recalled at the suggestion of Critias. He was received with general enthusiasm, for the Athenians considered his exile the cause of all their misfortunes. But this triumph was of short duration. He was sent with 100 ships to Asia; but, not being supplied with money to pay his soldiers, he saw himself under the necessity of seeking help in Caria, and committed the command to Antiochus, who was drawn into a snare by Lysander, and lost his life and a part of his ships.

The enemies of Alcibiades improved this opportunity to accuse him and procure his removal from office; but he went to Pactyæ in Thrace, collected troops, and waged war against the Thracians. The Athenian fleet was at that time lying at Ægos Pota-



mos. He pointed out to the generals the danger which threatened them, advised them to go to Sestos, and offered his assistance to force the Lacedæmonian general, Lysander, either to fight or to make peace. But they did not listen to him, and soon after were totally defeated. Alcibiades, fearing the power of the Lacedæmonians, betook himself to Bithynia, and was about to go to Artaxerxes, to procure his assistance for his country. In the mean time the thirty tyrants whom Lysander, after the capture of Athens, had set up there, requested the latter to cause Alcibiades to be assassinated. But Lysander declined, until he received an order to the same effect from his own government. He then charged Pharnabazes with the execution of it, who set fire to his house, and killed him with their arrows when he had succeeded in escaping the conflagration. Alcibiades was a man of most accomplished mind, but without moral principle. He was endowed by nature with distinguished qualities, a rare talent to captivate and rule men, and uncommon eloquence, but was governed only by external circumstances. He was without that elevation of soul which steadily pursues the path of virtue; on the other hand, he possessed that boldness which arises from consciousness of superiority, and which shrinks from no difficulty, because always confident of success.

ALCIPHRON, the most distinguished of the Grecian epistolary writers. Nothing is known of his life, and even his precise age is uncertain. It is probable that he belongs to the second century after Christ. We have 116 letters by him, the object of which seems to be to represent the manners, thoughts, and feelings of certain strongly-marked classes in the free communication of epistolary intercourse. These letters are distinguished by purity, clearness, and simplicity of language and style. The principal editions are those of Geneva, printed in 1606, and that of 1798, by Wagner.

ALCOCK, JOHN, a celebrated doctor of laws and bishop of Ely in the reign of King Henry VII., born at Beverley in Yorkshire, and educated at Cambridge. He was first made dean of Westminster, and afterwards master of the rolls. In 1471 he was consecrated bishop of Rochester, in 1476 translated to the see of Worcester, and afterwards preferred to the see of Canterbury. He was a prelate of great learning and piety, and so highly esteemed by King Henry that he appointed him lord president of Wales, and afterwards lord chancellor of England. Alcock founded a school at Kingston-upon-Hull, and built the spacious hall belonging to the Episcopal Palace at Ely. He was also the founder of Jesus College in Cambridge, for a master, six fellows, and as many scholars. This house was formerly a nunnery, dedicated to St. Radegund; and Godwin states that the building being greatly decayed, and the revenues reduced almost to nothing, the nuns had all forsaken it except two; so that Bishop Alcock procured a grant from the crown and converted it into a college. But Camden and others tell us that the nuns of that house were so notorious for their incontinence that King Henry VII. and Pope Julius II. consented to its dissolution. Bale accordingly calls this nunnery a "community of spiritual harlots." He died October 1, 1500, and was buried in a chapel he had previously built at Kingston-upon-Hull.

ALCUINUS, FLACCUS, an English ecclesiastic

of great learning and ability, who was born in 732 and educated under the care of the venerable Bede and Bishop Egbert. Charlemagne became acquainted with him in Parma, on his return from Rome, and invited him in 782 to his court, and made use of his services in his endeavours to civilize his subjects. In the Royal Academy he was called Flaccus Albinus. To secure the benefit of his instructions, Charlemagne established at his court a school called Palatina, and entrusted him with the superintendence of several monasteries, in which Alcuinus exerted himself to diffuse a knowledge of the sciences. Most of the schools in France were either founded or improved by him; thus he founded the school in the abbey of St. Martin of Tours in 796, after the plan of the school in York. He instructed a large number of scholars in this school, who afterwards spread the light of learning through the empire of the Franks. Alcuinus took his leave of the court in 801 and retired to the abbey of St. Martin of Tours, but kept up a constant correspondence with Charlemagne to the time of his death in 804. He left, besides many theological writings, several elementary works in the different branches of philosophy, rhetoric, and philology, also poems, and a large number of letters, the style of which, however, is not pleasing, and plainly betrays the uncultivated character of the age; nevertheless, he is acknowledged as the most learned and polished man of his time. His works were collected by Andrew du Chesne, and published in one volume in folio.

ALCYONIUS PETER, a learned Italian, who flourished in the sixteenth century. He was well versed in the Greek and Latin tongues, and wrote some other works which were much admired. He was corrector of the press for Aldus Manutius, and is entitled to a share in the praises given to the editions of that learned printer. He translated into Latin several treatises by Aristotle.

Alcyonius was professor at Florence in the pontificate of Adrian VI., and, besides his salary, had ten ducats a month from the cardinal de Medicis, to translate one of Galen's works. As soon as he understood that this cardinal was created pope, he asked leave of the Florentines to depart. He lost all his fortune during the troubles the Columna faction raised in Rome; and some time after, when the emperor's troops took the city in 1527, he received a wound when flying for shelter to the castle of St. Angelo. He died in 1528 and was engaged till the time of his death in typographical labours.

ALDHELM or ADELIN, an English divine who was bishop of Shireburn in the time of the Saxon heptarchy. William of Malmesbury says that he was the son of Kenred, brother of Ina king of the West-Saxons. He was born at Malmesbury in Wiltshire, and was partly educated on the continent and partly in his native place. When Hedda bishop of the West Saxons died, the kingdom was divided into two dioceses, namely, Winchester and Shireburn; and king Ina promoted Aldhelm to the latter, comprehending Dorsetshire, Wiltshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall. He was consecrated at Rome by Pope Sergius I. Aldhelm, by the directions of a diocesan synod, wrote a book against the mistake of the Britons concerning the celebration of Easter, which brought over many of them to the catholic usage in that point. He likewise wrote a work partly in prose and partly in hexameter verse in praise of celibacy, dedicated to Ethel-

burga, abess of Barking, and published amongst Bede's *Opuscula*, besides several other treatises, which are mentioned by William of Malmesbury, who gives him the following character as a writer: "The language of the Greeks," says he, "is close and concise, that of the Romans splendid, and that of the English pompous and swelling: as for Aldhelm, he is moderate in his style, seldom makes use of foreign terms, and never without necessity, his catholic meaning is clothed with eloquence, and his most vehement assertions adorned with the colours of rhetoric: if you read him with attention you would take him for a Grecian by his acuteness, a Roman by his elegance, and an Englishman by the pomp of his language." The monkish writers have ascribed many miracles to Aldhelm; but the origin of their wonderful legends may generally be traced to the early mythologies, and as such to times long prior to the Christian era.

ALDOBRANDINI, the name of a princely family at Rome, celebrated in the history of art on account of an antique fresco in their villa, representing a wedding, and called by the name of the *Aldobrandine wedding*. It was discovered in the time of Clement VIII., not far from the church Santa Maria Maggiore, in the district where formerly stood the gardens of Mæcenæ, and carried thence to that villa. Winckelmann supposed it to be the wedding of Peleus and Thetis: the count Bondy that of Manlius and Julia.—Several scholars also of this name have distinguished themselves, especially Sylvester Aldobrandini, celebrated for his knowledge of law, and his brother Thomas, both in the sixteenth century.

ALDRED.—This celebrated abbot was promoted to the bishopric of Worcester in the year 1046. He was much in favour with King Edward the Confessor, and took a journey to Rome in 1054. He was afterwards sent ambassador to the emperor Henry II.; and was very honourably entertained by Herman, archbishop of Cologne, from whom he gathered much important information relating to ecclesiastical discipline, which on his return he established in his own diocese. In the year 1058 he went to Jerusalem, which no archbishop or bishop of England had ever done before him. Two years after he returned to England, and Kinsius archbishop of York dying, in 1060, Aldred was elected in his stead on Christmas day following. Aldred went soon after to Rome, in order to receive the Pallium from the pope: he was attended by Toston earl of Northumberland, Giso bishop of Wells, and Walter bishop of Hereford. The pope received Toston very honourably, but, Aldred being found guilty of Simony, the pope deprived him of all his honours and dignities, so that he was obliged to return without the Pallium. On his way home he and his fellow-travellers were attacked by robbers, who took from them all that they had. This obliged them to return to Rome, and the pope, either out of compassion or by the threatenings of the earl of Northumberland, gave Aldred the Pallium, but he was obliged to resign his bishopric of Worcester. However, as the archbishopric of York had been almost entirely ruined by the many invasions of foreigners, King Edward gave the new archbishop leave to keep twelve villages or manors which belonged to the bishopric of Worcester. Edward the Confessor dying in 1066, Aldred crowned Harold his successor. He also crowned William the Conqueror, after he had made him take an oath "that he would protect the

holy churches of God and their leaders, that he would establish and observe righteous laws, and that he would entirely prohibit and suppress all rapine and unjust judgments."

A striking instance of the power of the ecclesiastics at this period occurs in the conduct of Bishop Aldred when reproving his royal master for a small violation of respect. The king, having presented himself before the bishop, prostrated himself on the ground, and kissed the hem of his robe. At this the nobles were highly indignant, but the prelate, unmoved, answered calmly, "Good men, let him lie there, for he is not at Aldred's but at St. Peter's feet: he must feel St. Peter's power, since he dared to injure his vicegerent." Having thus reproved the nobles by his episcopal authority, he vouchsafed to take the king by the hand and to tell him the ground of his complaint. The king humbly excused himself by saying he had been ignorant of the whole matter, and begged of the noblemen to entreat the prelate that he might take off the curse he had pronounced, and change it into a blessing. Aldred was at last prevailed upon to favour the king thus far; but not without the promise of several presents and favours.

The Danes having invaded the north of England in the year 1068, under the command of Harold and Canute, Aldred was so much afflicted at it that he died of grief the 11th of September in the same year, having besought God that he might not see the desolation of his church and country.

ALDRICH, HENRY, an eminent scholar and divine, born in 1647. He was educated at Westminster under the celebrated Dr. Busby, and admitted of Christ Church, Oxford, in 1662. Having been elected student he took a master of arts degree in April 1669, and entering soon after into orders he became an eminent tutor in his college. In the controversy with the catholics, under James II., he bore a considerable part; and Burnet ranks him among those eminent clergymen who "examined all the points of popery with a solidity of judgment, a clearness of arguing, a depth of learning, and a vivacity of writing far beyond any thing which had before that time appeared in our language." In short, he had rendered himself so conspicuous that at the Revolution, when the catholic dean of Christ Church went to Italy, the deanery was conferred upon him, and he was installed in it June the 17th, 1689. In this station he acted in a most exemplary manner, and zealously promoted learning, religion, and virtue in the college where he presided. In imitation of his predecessor Bishop Fell, he published generally every year some Greek classic, or portion of one, as a gift to the students of his house. He wrote also a system of logic, entitled "*Artis Logicæ Compendium*." The publication of Clarendon's History of the Rebellion was committed to him and Bishop Spratt, and they have been charged with having altered and interpolated that work; but the charge has been proved to be groundless.

Besides being very eminent as a scholar, he possessed great skill in architecture and music. The three sides of the quadrangle of Christ Church, Oxford, called Peckwater Square, were designed by him, as was also the elegant chapel of Trinity College, and the church of All Saints in the high street, to the erection of which Dr. Ratcliff, at his solicitation, was a liberal contributor. He was also a good musician; and his catch of "Hark, the Bonny Christ Church



Bells," has been considered as the best specimen of that species of music ever produced in this country. Besides the preferments already mentioned, he was rector of Wem in Shropshire, and prolocutor of the convocation in 1782. He died at Christ Church, in December, 1710.

ALDROVANDUS, ULYSSES, professor of philosophy and physic at Bologna, the place of his nativity. He was a most laborious enquirer into natural history, and travelled into the most distant countries for the purpose of gaining accurate information respecting their natural productions. Minerals, fossils, plants, and animals, were the objects of his researches; but he applied himself principally to the study of ornithology. Aubert le Mire says that he gave a painter a yearly salary of 200 crowns for more than thirty years, and that he employed at his own expense Lorenzo Bernini and Cornelius Swintus, as well as the celebrated engraver Christopher Coriolanus. These expenses ruined his fortune, and it is said that he died blind in an hospital at Bologna, in 1605. Antiquity does not furnish us with an instance of a design so extensive and so laborious as that of Aldrovandus with regard to natural history. Pliny has treated of more subjects, but only touches lightly on them; while Aldrovandus has collected all that could be obtained on the subject. His compilation, or that compiled upon his plan, consists of thirteen volumes in folio, several of which were printed after his death. He himself published his Ornithology, or History of Birds, in three folio volumes, in 1599, and his seven books of insects, which make another volume of the same size. The volume of Serpents, three of Quadrupeds, one of Fishes, the History of Monsters, with the supplement to that of Animals, the treatise on Metals, and the History of Trees, were published, after the death of Aldrovandus, by different persons.

ALEMBERT, JOHN LE ROND D', an eminent French philosopher, was born at Paris in 1717. He derived the name of John le Rond from that of the church near which after his birth he was exposed as a foundling. He received his first education in the College of the Four Nations, among the Jansenists, where he gave early marks of capacity and genius. In the first year of his philosophical studies, he composed a Commentary on the epistle of St. Paul to the Romans. The Jansenists considered this production as an omen that portended to the party of Port-Royal a restoration to some part of their ancient splendour, and hoped to find in M. d' Alembert a second Pascal. To render this resemblance more complete, they engaged their rising pupil in the study of the mathematics, but they soon perceived that his growing attachment to this science was likely to disappoint the hopes they had formed with respect to his future destination; they therefore endeavoured to divert him from this course of study, but their endeavours were fruitless.

At his leaving college, he found himself alone and unconnected in the world, and sought an asylum in the house of his nurse, resolving to apply himself entirely to the study of geometry. And here he lived, during the space of forty years, with the greatest simplicity, discovering the augmentation of his means only by increasing displays of his beneficence.

As M. d' Alembert possessed but little fortune, his friends advised him to think of a profession that might enable him to augment it. He accordingly turned his views to the law; but soon abandoned this

plan and applied to the study of medicine. Geometry, however, was always drawing him back to his former pursuits; and, after many ineffectual efforts to resist its attractions, he renounced all views of a lucrative profession, and gave himself over entirely to mathematics and his original poverty.

In the year 1741 he was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences, for which distinguished literary honour he had prepared the way by correcting the errors of a celebrated mathematical work.

Two years after his election to a place in the academy, he published his *Treatise on Dynamics*. The new principle developed in this treatise consisted in establishing equality, at each instant, between the changes that the motion of a body has undergone and the forces or powers which have been employed to produce them. So early as the year 1744, M. d' Alembert had applied this principle to the theory of the equilibrium, and the motion of fluids, and all the problems before solved by geometricians became in some measure its corollaries. The discovery of this new principle was followed by that of a new calculus, the first trials of which were published in a *Discourse on the General Theory of the Winds*, to which the prize-medal was adjudged by the academy of Berlin in the year 1746, and which was a new and brilliant addition to the fame of M. d' Alembert. This new calculus of partial differences he applied, the year following, to the problem of vibrating chords, whose solution, as well as the theory of the oscillations of the air and the propagation of sound, had been given but incompletely by the geometricians who preceded him. In the year 1749 he furnished a method of applying his principle to the motion of any body of a given figure; and he solved the problem of the precession of the equinoxes, determined its quantity, and explained the phenomenon of the nutation of the terrestrial axis discovered by Dr. Bradley.

While the studies of M. d' Alembert were confined to geometry, he was little known or celebrated in his native country. His connections were limited to a small society of select friends, and he had never seen any men in high office except Messrs. d'Argenson. Satisfied with an income which furnished him with the necessaries of life, he did not aspire after opulence or honours, nor had they been hitherto bestowed upon him. His cheerful conversation, his smart and lively sallies, a happy knack at telling a story, a singular mixture of malice of speech with goodness of heart, and of delicacy of wit with simplicity of manners, rendered him a pleasing and interesting companion, and his company consequently was much sought after in the fashionable circles. His reputation at length made its way to the throne, and rendered him the object of royal attention and beneficence. He received also a pension from government, which he owed to the friendship of Count d'Argenson.

He now published his celebrated Encyclopedical Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, in conjunction with Diderot. The preliminary discourse he has affixed to it, concerning the rise, progress, connections, and affinities of all the branches of human knowledge is perhaps one of the most extraordinary productions of which the philosophy of the present age can boast. Nor will it be disputed that the master-builders of this new and stupendous temple of science, for the worship of nature, had also really in view the advancement of human knowledge and the improvement of

the arts and sciences. But it is equally true that in the *inner court* of this temple there was a confederacy formed against all those who looked higher than *nature*, for the principal object of their veneration and confidence.

Some time after this, d'Alembert published his Philosophical, Historical, and Philological Miscellanies. These were followed by the memoirs of Christina, queen of Sweden, in which d'Alembert showed that he was acquainted with the natural rights of mankind, and was bold enough to assert them. M. d'Alembert gave very elegant specimens of his literary abilities in his translations of some select pieces from Tacitus. But these occupations did not divert him from his mathematical studies; for about the same time he enriched the *Encyclopédie* with a multitude of excellent articles in that branch of science, and composed his "Researches on several Important Points of the System of the World," in which he carried to a higher degree of perfection the solution of the problem of the perturbations of the planets, that had several years before been presented to the academy.

In 1759 he published his "Elements of Philosophy," a work extolled as remarkable for its precision and perspicuity, in which however are some tenets, relative both to metaphysics and moral science, that are far from being admissible.

In the year 1765 he published his "Dissertation on the Destruction of the Jesuits." This work drew upon him a swarm of adversaries, who confirmed the merit of his work by their manner of attacking it. Besides the works already mentioned, he published nine volumes of memoirs and treatises, under the title of *Opuscules*, in which he has solved a multitude of problems relative to astronomy, mathematics, and natural philosophy. He published also "Elements of Music," and rendered the system of Rameau intelligible; but he did not think the mathematical theory of sonorous bodies sufficient to account for the rules of that art. In the year 1772 he was chosen secretary to the French academy. He formed, soon after this preferment, the design of writing the lives of all the deceased academicians from 1700 to 1772; and in the space of three years he executed this design, by composing seventy eulogies. M. d'Alembert died in 1783, and his character has been thus briefly summed up by the bishop of Limoges: "I do not know him personally, but I have always heard that his manners are simple, and his conduct without a stain. As to his works, I read them over and over again, and I find nothing there except an abundance of talent, great information, and a good system of morals. If his religious opinions are not as sound as his writings, he is to be pitied, but no one has a right to interrogate his conscience."

ALEXANDER, king of Macedon, surnamed the Great, was the son of Philip of Macedon. He was born, according to the most authentic accounts, B.C. 356, and, when he was sixteen years old, his father delegated the government to him during his absence. In the battle at Chæronea he obtained great reputation by conquering the sacred band of the Thebans. "My son," said Philip, after the battle, embracing him, "seek another empire, for that which I shall leave you is not worthy of you." The father and son, however, quarrelled, when Philip repudiated Olympias. Alexander, who took the part of his mother, was obliged to flee to Epirus, to escape the

vengeance of his father; but he soon obtained pardon and returned. He afterwards accompanied Philip on an expedition against the Triballi, and saved his life in a battle.



Philip, having been elected chief commander of the Greeks, was preparing for a war against Persia, when he was assassinated, B.C. 336, and Alexander, not yet twenty years of age, ascended the throne, punished the murderer, went into the Peloponnesus, and received, in the general assembly of the Greeks, the chief command in the war against Persia. After his return he found the Illyrii and Triballi in arms. He met them, forced a passage through Thrace, and was every where successful. But the Thebans, having heard a rumour of his death, had taken up arms, and the Athenians, urged by Demosthenes, were about to join them. Alexander hastened to prevent this junction, appeared before Thebes, and, having summoned it in vain to surrender, took and destroyed the city. 6000 of the inhabitants were put to the sword, and 30,000 carried into captivity. The house and family of the poet Pindar alone were spared.

When he approached the Granicus he learned that several Persian satraps, with 20,000 foot and as many horse, awaited him on the other side. He without delay led his army through the river, and obtained a complete victory, having overthrown with his lance Mithridates, the son-in-law of Darius, and exposed himself to every danger. The Macedonians, encouraged by his example, bore down every thing before them, and the whole army crossed the river. The Greek auxiliaries of the Persians, who were formed in phalanxes, were all destroyed except 2000 who were taken prisoners. Alexander performed splendid funeral ceremonies in honour of those of his army who had fallen, and granted privileges to their fathers and children. Passing onward he conquered Lycia, Ionia, Caria, Pamphylia, and Cappadocia. But a dangerous sickness, brought on by bathing in the Cydnus, checked his course. On this occasion he received a letter from Parmenio, saying that Philip, his physician, had been bribed by Darius to poison him. Alexander gave the letter to the physician, and at the same time drank the potion which he had prepared for him. Scarcely



was he restored to health when he advanced towards the defiles of Cilicia, where Darius had imprudently placed an immense army, instead of awaiting his adversary on the plains of Assyria. The disorderly masses of the Persians were broken by the charge of the Macedonians, and fled in wild confusion. On the left wing 30,000 Greeks in the pay of the Persian king resisted longer, but they also were obliged to yield, and the treasures and family of Darius fell into the hands of the conqueror. Alexander did not pursue Darius, who fled towards the Euphrates, but, in order to cut him off from the sea, turned towards Cœlosyria and Phœnicia, where he received a letter from Darius proposing peace. Alexander answered that, if he would come to him, he would restore to him not only his mother, wife, and children, without ransom, but also his empire. The victory at Issus had opened the whole country to the Macedonians, and he took possession of Damascus, which contained a large portion of the royal treasures, and secured all the towns along the Mediterranean Sea. Tyre, emboldened by the strength of its situation, resisted, but was taken after seven months of incredible exertion, and entirely destroyed. Alexander continued his victorious march through Palestine, where all the towns surrendered except Gaza, which shared the fate of Tyre. Egypt, weary of the Persian yoke, received him as a deliverer, and, in order to confirm his power, he restored the former customs and religious rites, and founded Alexandria, which became one of the first cities of ancient times. He then went through the desert of Libya, to consult the oracle of Jupiter Ammon. At the return of spring he marched against Darius, who, in the mean time, had collected an army in Assyria, and a battle was fought at Gaugamela, not far from Arbela. Notwithstanding the immense numerical superiority of his enemy, Alexander was not a moment doubtful of victory. At the head of his cavalry he attacked the Persians, and routed them immediately; he then hastened to the aid of his left wing, which had been in the mean time severely pressed. The Persian army was entirely destroyed and immense treasures fell into the hands of the victor. Babylon and Susa, where the riches of the East lay accumulated, opened their gates to him. Alexander, after destroying a new division of the Persian army, entered Persepolis triumphant.

From this time the glory of Alexander began to decline. Master of the greatest empire in the world, he became a slave to his own passions, gave himself up to arrogance and dissipation, showed himself ungrateful and cruel, and, in the arms of pleasure, shed the blood of his bravest generals. Hitherto sober and moderate, this hero, who strove to equal the gods and called himself a deity, sunk to the level of vulgar men. Persepolis, the wonder of the world, was burned in a fit of intoxication. Ashamed of this act, he set out with his cavalry to pursue Darius. Learning that Bessus, satrap of Bactriana, kept the king prisoner, he hastened his march with the hope of saving him. But Bessus, when he saw himself closely pursued, caused Darius to be assassinated, because he was an impediment to his flight. The discontent of the army gave occasion to the scene which ended in the death of Clitus, who had been one of his most faithful friends and bravest generals, and Alexander was afterwards a prey to the keenest remorse. Alexander now formed the idea of con-

quering India, the name of which was then scarcely known. He passed the Indus and formed an alliance with Taxilus, the ruler of the region beyond this river, who assisted him with troops and 130 elephants. Conducted by Taxilus, he marched towards the river Hydaspes, the passage of which Porus, another king, defended at the head of his army. Alexander conquered him in a bloody battle, took him prisoner, but restored him to his kingdom. He then marched victoriously through India, established Greek colonies, and built, according to Plutarch, seventy towns, one of which he called Bucephala, after his horse, which had been killed on the Hydaspes. Intoxicated by success, he intended to advance as far as the Ganges, when the murmurs of his army compelled him to return, in doing which he was exposed to great dangers. When he had reached the Hydaspes he built a fleet, in which he sent a part of his army down the river, while the rest proceeded along the banks. On his march he encountered several Indian princes, and, during the siege of a town belonging to the Mallii, was severely wounded. Having recovered, he continued his march, sailed down the Indus, and thus reached the sea. Nearchus, his admiral, sailed hence to the Persian Gulf, while Alexander directed his march by land to Babylon. He had to wander through immense deserts, in which the greater part of his army, destitute of water and food, perished on the sands. Only a fourth part of the troops with which he had set out returned to Persia. On his return from Ecbatana to Babylon the magicians are said to have predicted that this city would be fatal to him, but the representations of his friends induced him to despise their warnings. He went to Babylon, where many foreign ambassadors waited for him, and was engaged in extensive plans for the future, when he died in consequence of surfeit at a banquet. At this period he was only thirty-two years old, and his wars, which were of the most destructive kind, were generally of an offensive character; so that even after his power was fully established he still sought to extend his dominions, regardless of the expense of blood by which his victories were cemented. War and party politics have been justly characterised as the madness of many for the gain of a few; and it is gratifying to know that, in this our day, no man with the same pretences could so recklessly destroy human life. For even the wars of Napoleon were not without some appearance of necessity in the eyes of his subjects.

ALEXANDER SEVERUS, a Roman emperor, who was born at Acre, in Phœnicia, in the year 205. He was the son of Genesius Marcianus and of Mammæa, niece to the emperor Severus. He was admirably educated by his mother, and was adopted and made Cæsar by his cousin Heliogabalus, then but a few years older than himself, at the prudent instigation of their common grandmother, Mæsa. That contemptible emperor, however, soon grew jealous of his cousin, and would have destroyed him, but for the interference of the prætorian guards, who soon after put Heliogabalus himself to death, and raised Alexander to the imperial dignity in his seventeenth year. Alexander adopted the noble model of Trajan and the Antonines; and the mode in which he administered the affairs of the empire, and otherwise occupied himself in poetry, philosophy, and literature, is eloquently described by Gibbon. On the whole, he governed ably both in peace and war;



but, whatever he might owe to the good education given him by his mother, he allowed her a degree of influence in the government which threw a cloud over the latter part of his reign. Alexander acted with great magnanimity in one of the frequent insurrections of the prætorian guards; but, either from fear or necessity, he allowed many of their seditious mutinies to pass unpunished, although, in one of them, they murdered their prefect, the learned lawyer Ulpian, and, in another, compelled Dion Cassius, the historian, then consul, to retire into Bythinia. At length, undertaking an expedition into Gaul, to repress an incursion of the Germans, he was murdered, with his mother, in an insurrection of his Gallic troops, headed by the brutal and gigantic Thracian, Maximin, who took advantage of their discontent at the emperor's attempts to restore discipline. This event took place in the year 235, after a reign of twelve years. This emperor was favourable to Christianity, following the predilections of his mother, Mammæa; and he is said to have placed the statue of the Saviour in his private temple, in company with those of Orpheus and Apollonius Tyanæus.

**ALEXANDER.**—There have been several distinguished ecclesiastics who have filled the papal chair bearing this name. We may briefly notice them in chronological succession. Alexander I. reigned from 109 to 119, and is known only as having introduced the use of holy water in the service of the church.

Alexander II. of Milan, previously bishop of Lucca, was, in 1061, raised to the papal throne by the party of Hildebrand, afterwards Gregory VII., while the adherents of the German king, and of the nobility of Rome, chose Honorius II. at Basle. This antipope expelled Alexander from Rome, but Hildebrand, then the soul of the papal government, supported him; a synod at Cologne acknowledged him in 1062, and the Italians themselves revolted in 1063 from Honorius. Thus Alexander attained quiet possession of Rome, and of the papal power, which, however, Hildebrand administered in his name. The papal bulls, therefore, against lay investiture, against the marriage of priests and the divorce of Henry IV., and the haughty summons of this king to appear before the papal chair, must be ascribed to the influence of Hildebrand, who used the weak Alexander II. as his tool. This pope died in 1073.

Alexander III. reigned from 1159 to 1181, and struggled with varied fortune, but undaunted courage, against the party of the emperor Frederic I., and the antipopes Victor III., Paschal III., and Calixtus III., who rose one after the other against him. He was obliged to flee to France in 1161, where he lived at Sens, until the dissatisfaction of the Lombards with the government of Frederic, the assistance of the German ecclesiastical princes, and the desire of the Romans, opened a way for his return in 1165. He now strengthened his power by a league with the cities of Lombardy, but was obliged to return in 1167, before the imperial army, and resided in Benevento, Anagni, and Venice, until after the victory of the Lombards over the emperor at Legnano, followed by the peace of Venice (so humiliating to the pride of the emperor Frederic, who was compelled to kiss the feet and hold the stirrup of Alexander in 1177), the abdication of the third antipope, and the return of the victor to Rome. Alex-

ander humbled, also, Henry II. king of England, who had exposed himself to the papal vengeance by the assassination of Becket. The terms on which the German and English sovereigns were restored to favour were such as to increase the power of the pope in both countries. He placed Alphonso II. on the throne of Portugal, and laid Scotland under an interdict on account of the disobedience of the king. The rest of his labours were principally directed to the augmenting of the papal power, in which he succeeded to the fullest extent.

Alexander IV., count of Segni and bishop of Ostia, ascended the papal throne in 1254, at a very unfavourable time. Conquered by Manfred of Sicily, implicated in the quarrels of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, despised in Italy, this pope, with good intentions and a peaceable disposition, was not able to prevent, either by his prayers or his excommunications (which were only laughed at), the disturbances prevailing over the whole country. At his death, in 1261, he left the papal power in a state of great weakness.

Alexander V. a Greek from Candia, under the name of Peter Philargi, a mendicant friar, rose to the dignity of cardinal, and was chosen pope in 1409, at the same time with the antipopes Gregory XII. and Benedict XIII. He was considered by the greater part of Christendom as the legitimate pope, but carried his prodigality and luxury in Bologna, where he constantly resided, to an extent injurious to the interests of the church. At the council of Pisa, he promised to reform the abuses prevailing in the church, but took no steps towards it. While occupied in the condemnation of the doctrines of Wickliffe, and in preparations for the trial of the Bohemian reformer, Huss, he died in 1410, probably by poison.

Alexander VI. was born at Valencia, in Spain, in 1430, and ascended the papal throne in 1492. His name was Rodrigo Lenzuoli; but he took the ancient name of his mother's family, Borgia. In his youth he was remarkably dissipated, though not destitute of talent. Alexander was made a cardinal by Pope Calixtus III., his uncle, and by bribing the cardinals Sforza, Riario, and Cibo, he prepared his way to the papal throne, after the death of Innocent VIII. The long residence of the popes in Avignon, at a distance from their dominions in Italy, had diminished both their authority and revenues. To make up this loss, Alexander VI. endeavoured to impair the power of the Italian princes, and seize upon their possessions, for the benefit of his own family. To effect this end, he employed the most execrable means. His policy, foreign as well as domestic, was faithless and base, particularly in the case of France, whose king, Charles VIII., was his enemy. He understood how to extract immense sums of money from all Christian countries. This pope died seventy-four years old, in 1503.

Alexander VII., who was employed, when Cardinal Chigi, as papal nuncio, in the negotiations for peace at Munster Osnabruck, was revered on account of his pious zeal for the church and holy life. He, however, laid aside the mask of sanctity after his elevation to the papal throne in 1655, and gave himself openly up to luxury and voluptuousness. He surrounded himself with show and splendour, and appeared in the character of an intriguing politician. He quarrelled not only with the Sorbonne, and the parliament, but even with King Louis XIV.; so that the latter declared war against him, took Avignon



and Venaissin, and forced him in 1663 to make a disgraceful peace at Pisa. His improvements in the city of Rome, his attempts at poetry, and encouragement of learned men, could not indemnify the catholic court for the loss of its authority in France. This pope died May 22, 1667.

Alexander VIII., an Ottoboni from Venice, became pope in 1689. By artful negotiations, he induced Louis XIV. to deliver up Avignon and Venaissin, and to renounce the privileges belonging to his ambassador in Rome. He supplied the Venetians with men, money, and ships to carry on a war against the Turks, and, less intent upon the weal of the church than on enriching his own family, he delayed the condemnation of the four articles of the Gallican church, in order to gain advantages for his relations. The library of the Vatican is indebted to him for the purchase of the excellent library of the queen Christina of Sweden. He died in 1691, eighty-one years old.

ALEXANDER NEWSKOI, a celebrated Russian hero, who was the son of the grand duke Jeroslav, was born in 1219. In order to defend the empire, which was attacked on all sides, but especially by the Mongols, Jeroslav quitted Novogorod, and left the charge of the government to his sons, Fedor and Alexander, the former of whom soon afterwards died. Alexander repulsed the assailants. Russia, nevertheless, came under the Mongolian dominion, in 1238. Alexander, when prince of Novogorod, defended the western frontier against the Danes, Swedes, and knights of the Teutonic order. He gained, in 1240, a splendid victory on the Neva over the Swedes, and thence received his surname; and he overcame in 1242 the knights of the sword, on the ice of lake Peipus. After the death of his father, in 1245, Alexander became grand duke of Wladimir. This distinguished military commander died in 1263. The gratitude of his countrymen has commemorated the hero in popular songs, and raised him to the dignity of a saint. Peter the Great honoured his memory by the erection of a splendid monastery in Petersburg on the spot where Alexander gained his victory, and by establishing the order of Alexander Newskoi.

ALEXANDER.—Several kings of Scotland have borne the name of Alexander. The first was a son of Malcolm III., who succeeded his brother Edgar in 1107. He was called the *Fierce*, from his vigour and impetuosity. A conspiracy was formed against his life, and the traitors obtained admission into his bed-chamber at night. Alexander killed six of them and then made his escape. He died in the seventeenth year of his reign.—Alexander II. succeeded his father, William the Lion, in 1214, in his sixteenth year, and died in his fifty-first year.—His son, Alexander III., succeeded him in 1249. He married Margaret, daughter of Henry III. of England. In 1263 he defeated, at Largs, Haquin, king of Norway, who had landed an army in his kingdom. He was killed in hunting, by his horse rushing down a high precipice. This prince introduced many good regulations of government, and greatly contributed to diminish the burdens of the feudal system and to restrain the licence and oppression of the nobility. His death forms an era in Scottish history.

ALEXANDER, WILLIAM, earl of Stirling, an eminent statesman of Scotland, who lived in the reigns of James VI. and Charles I. After travelling

with the duke of Argyle as his tutor or companion, he wrote a poetical complaint under the title of "Aurora." He then removed to the court of James VI., and in 1607 he published some dramatic performances, entitled "The Monarchic Tragedies," dedicated to King James, who was so well pleased with them as to call him his philosophical poet. After this he is said to have written a supplement to complete the third part of Sir Philip Sidney's *Arcadia*; and in 1613 he produced a poem called "Doomsday, or the Great Day of Judgment." He was made gentleman-usher to prince Charles and master of the requests, was knighted, and obtained a grant of Nova Scotia, where he projected the settlement of a colony, but afterwards sold it to the French. In 1626 he was made secretary of state for Scotland; and in 1630 he was created a peer of the realm by the title of Viscount Canada, Lord Alexander of Menstrie; he was afterwards made earl of Stirling. His last appearance as an author was the republication of his poetical works, under the title of "Recreations of the Muses." He died on the twelfth of February, 1640, in the sixtieth year of his age.

ALEXANDER, NOEL, an indefatigable writer of the seventeenth century, who was born at Rouen, in Normandy, in 1639. After finishing his studies at Rouen, he entered into the order of Dominican friars, and was professed there in 1655. Soon after he went to Paris, to go through a course of philosophy and divinity in the great convent, where he distinguished himself so much that he was appointed to teach philosophy there, which he did for twelve years. M. Colbert being determined to omit nothing to perfect the education of his son, afterwards archbishop of Rouen, he formed an assembly of the most learned persons, whose conferences upon ecclesiastical history might be of advantage to him. Father Alexander was invited to this assembly, where he exerted himself with so much genius and ability that he gained the particular friendship of young Colbert. These conferences gave rise to Alexander's design of writing an ecclesiastical history; for, being desired to reduce what was material in these conferences to writing, he did it with so much accuracy that the learned men who composed this assembly advised him to undertake a complete body of church-history. This he executed with great assiduity, collecting and digesting the materials himself, and completed his work in 1686. Towards the latter part of his life he was afflicted with the loss of his sight, a great misfortune to one whose whole pleasure was study, yet he bore it with the most exemplary patience and resignation. He died merely of a decay of nature, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

ALEXANDER I., PAULOWITSCH.—This emperor and autocrat of all the Russias, and king of Poland, was born on the 23rd of December 1777, and ascended the throne in March 1801, and was crowned on the 27th of September, the same year, in Moscow. Alexander was one of the most important men of modern times. Nature had endowed him with great talents, which were judiciously cultivated by his mother and his instructors. He recognized the spirit of the age, frequently acted in accordance with liberal principles, had sense enough to know that a monarch, to play an important part, must have respect to the wishes of the people, whatever his ultimate object may be, loved justice, if it did not mi-



litate against his love of power, which was indeed of a higher order than that of a common tyrant, and sought to make himself, like Napoleon, master of Europe, though with different means. Indeed in many respects he resembled the great pope Gregory VII. He was, whether from policy or conviction of its necessity, in a religious point of view, the principal contriver and the chief support of the "Holy Alliance"—a league which history will denounce as the origin of infinite evil. His father did not take any part in his education, which was directed by the empress Catharine II. and colonel Laharpe. His mother Maria, the daughter of the duke Eugene of Württemberg, always possessed his love and confidence, and retained a great influence over him through his whole reign. His first governor, count Nicholas Soltikoff, received orders from Catharine not to give the young prince any instruction in poetry and music, as requiring too much time for the attainment of proficiency. Professor Kraft instructed him in natural philosophy, and Pallas, a short time, in botany.—He no doubt took part in the conspiracy against his father, though it is not likely that he had the most distant thought against his life. He wished to save himself and many nobles of the empire from the mad persecution of the emperor, and nothing short of dethroning him could afford them safety. He is often said, therefore, to have acted in self-defence.

The history of his government may be divided into three periods. The first was peaceful, and entirely devoted to the execution of the schemes of Peter the Great and Catharine II., respecting the internal administration. The second, extending from 1805 to 1814, was a time of war with France, Sweden, the Porte, and Persia, and developed the resources and the national feeling of the people. In the third period, he used the experience acquired in the two preceding to carry into effect the declaration of Peter the Great, made 100 years before, in 1714, after a victory over the Swedish fleet, near the Aland islands—"Nature has but one Russia, and it shall have no rival."

Alexander was distinguished for moderation, activity, and attention to business, personally superintending the multiplied concerns of his vast empire, while his simple and amiable manners gained him the love and confidence of his subjects. He understood and was zealous in promoting the welfare of his people. Great attention was paid during his reign to education and intellectual culture, and many improvements were introduced into the internal administration of the empire; for instance, the establishment of the senate by the ukase of 1802, of the imperial council and the ministry of eight divisions by the ukase of 1810, of the provincial administration in the governments, &c. The shackles which hung on the industry of the nation were removed, and its commerce increased. Alexander likewise advanced the military establishments of Russia to a high degree of perfection; he also developed in his people the sentiments of union, courage, and patriotism; and, lastly, he raised Russia to a high rank in the political system of Europe, and made its importance felt even in Asia. It must be also acknowledged that, during his reign, taste and intelligence became diffused among the higher classes, so that eminent and even liberal statesmen were formed, though it is in this, as in so many other things, difficult to distinguish what is owing to the prince and what to the spirit of the age.

Among the most intimate associates of the emperor were general Jermoloff, afterwards Wolchonsky, Araktschejeff, and Diebitsch. In the earlier part of his reign, several Greeks stood high in his favour, as did the French ambassador, Count Caulaincourt, from 1807 to 1812.—Among the merits of Alexander are to be reckoned his exertions for the improvement of the Slavonian nations, and the cultivation of their language and literature. He founded or new-modelled several universities, at Dorpat, Kazan, Charkov, Moscow, Wilna, Warsaw, and St. Petersburg; also many academies, and seminaries for the education of teachers, and above 2000 common schools. He did much for the distribution of the Bible, by the aid which he rendered to the Bible societies. He granted important privileges, by a ukase of 1817, to Jews becoming Christians, and he appropriated large sums for the printing of important works, as the *Voyage of Krusenstern*, the *History of Russia* by Karasmin, &c. Alexander attended particularly to the education of young men of talent, whom he sent to travel through foreign countries. He endeavoured at the same time, by moderate measures, to relieve his subjects from the tyranny of their lords, the nobles, the boyars, starosts, &c. Servitude was abolished in 1816 in Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland; and Alexander declared that he would no longer transfer with the crown-lands the boors or peasants who cultivated them. He forbade the advertising of human beings for sale, and gave leave to a number of boors, a part of the bondmen of the late chancellor Romanzoff, to ransom themselves from their master. He endeavoured, with much earnestness, to give to his people a good system of laws, but the civil code of Russia still requires many improvements. The custom of slitting the nose and branding, hitherto connected with whipping with the knout, was abolished in 1817. He likewise abolished the secret court, as it was called, before which political criminals, were brought and compelled, by hunger and thirst (not however by instruments of torture), to confess. He checked the abuse of power in the hands of governors, by preventive laws; and the privilege of the nobles, that their estates could not be confiscated as a punishment for their crimes, was extended by Alexander to all his subjects. He also rendered efficient aid to manufactures and commerce in his empire, by the introduction of a better tariff, the improvement of the finances and currency of the country after the establishment of a sinking fund, the erection of the bank of the imperial chamber, on the 19th of May 1817, by providing continually for the construction of roads and canals, by making Odessa a free port, and granting it other privileges. The condition of manufactures in Russia was greatly improved after the attention of the emperor had been called to it.

The whole foreign policy of Russia,—the voyages round the world, under the patronage of her government,—the embassy to Persia in 1817, to which was attached a Frenchman, Gardanne, who was acquainted with all the plans of Napoleon respecting India and Persia,—the mission to Cochin China and Khiva,—the relations of Russia with the United States of North America, Brazil, and Spain,—the treaties of commerce and navigation with the Porte,—the settlements on the western coast of North America, all prove the enlightened commercial policy of the Russian cabinet. The travels of Alexander in foreign



countries, even his short stay in England, his intercourse with well-informed and sensible men, but principally his frequent journeys through the provinces of his empire, afforded the materials of his numerous projects for the benefit of his country. On this his attention was continually fixed.

The peace of Tilsit, in 1807, makes an epoch in the Russian military system. It not only opened the way to the conquest of Finland in 1809, and of two of the mouths of the Danube in 1812, but afforded Alexander time to remove the defects of the military system hitherto in use. The armies of Russia, during the war with Napoleon, were remarkable for their equipment and discipline; and the active interest which the emperor took in the proper ordering of all the branches of the administration is the reason why the nation was so strongly attached to him. He gave his word to his people, that he would never negotiate with Napoleon, as long as an armed enemy was in the country: and the activity which prevailed in the military department of the Russian administration is proved by the army which appeared in 1813, in Germany, which was kept ready till 1815 to march against France. It comprised 300,000 men and 2000 pieces of cannon. The peaceful character of Alexander's policy is remarkable. His personal friendship for the king of Prussia, Frederic William III., which was confirmed at the tomb of Frederic II., in 1805, led to important consequences. The queen, Louisa, was the living tie of this union, but admiration for the dazzling qualities of Napoleon drew him over to his side. He believed too that he might, in connection with the emperor of France, decide the fate of Europe. This was the cause of his celebrated meeting with Napoleon at Erfurt, in September 1808. But when he saw that the ambitious conqueror wished to involve him in political contradictions, and prescribe laws to him injurious to the welfare of his empire, he resolutely maintained his independence. He succeeded, at an interview with the prince royal of Sweden, at Abo, in 1812, in forming an alliance with that country, after having induced the Porte to conclude the peace of Bucharest.

This monarch distinguished himself by the magnanimity with which he treated Paris and all the French, the strict discipline of his troops; and the assurances which the allies, at his instance, tendered to the nation facilitated the settlement of peace; and it is asserted that he acted from the belief that he was complying with the wishes of the French, and not from adherence to the principles of legitimacy, in recalling the Bourbons. He did not treat the conquered and dethroned emperor unkindly, but respected in him the former sovereign and distributor of crowns, regardless of his birth. He called upon the empress Josephine, and dined with her at Malmaison; and interceded in favour of the prince Eugene Beauharnois. The enthusiasm of the Parisians for him was unlimited, and in June 1814 he came to this country, where he was joyfully received. He left England 28th of June, and reached Petersburg 25th of July, where he declined the name of *the Blessed*, offered to him by the senate. A later ukase of the emperor Alexander forbade the praises which the clergy were accustomed to bestow on him from the pulpit. His presence in Vienna, during the congress, had a great influence upon the policy of Europe, occasioned the admission of many liberal views into the acts of the assembly, and added the

kingdom of Poland to the gigantic power of Russia. The draft of the Polish constitution, prepared at the instance of Alexander, was the first symptom of a disposition in the European rulers to perform the promises made to their subjects during the wars with Napoleon. Alexander again visited Paris, July 1815, and from that period the great influence of Russia upon the French cabinet, in opposition to the influence of England, was apparent, especially when Richelieu, who had formerly been in the Russian service, was placed at the head of the ministry of Louis XVIII. In Spain, also, the same influence manifested itself. Even the court of Rio Janeiro showed a desire of allying itself with Russia; and the kingdom of the Netherlands, as well as Prussia, Wirtemberg, and other states, entered into a closer union with the Russian court. From the formation of the holy alliance in Paris, 26th of September, 1815, to his death, Alexander was actively engaged in politics, and kept his emissaries all over Europe, who reported to him every important occurrence. Among these was Kotzebue, the German author, who was assassinated by the student Sand. The memoir, directed to all the Russian ambassadors, concerning the affairs of Spain,—the answer of the Russian cabinet to the Spanish minister, the chavellier Zea Bermudez,—and the declaration of the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, 15th of November 1818, are interesting documents in the history of this monarch. In 1821 the affairs of Greece occupied the attention of the Russian cabinet. It is possible that, from a sincere love of peace, he suffered the best opportunity to escape of liberating Greece, and increasing his empire. That he was a man of liberal principles cannot be doubted. His answer to a deputation of the Livonian nobility, requesting his ratification of the new constitution, which had been made for the benefit of the Livonian peasantry, sufficiently proves that fact. He says, "You have acted in the spirit of our age, in which liberal ideas afford the true basis of the happiness of nations." His remark to Madame de Stael, several years before, was characteristic: "You will be offended with the sight of servitude in this land. It is not my fault; I have set the example of emancipation, but I cannot employ force; I must respect the rights of others as much as if they were protected by a constitution, which, unhappily, does not exist." Madame de Stael answered, "*Sire, votre caractère est une constitution*" (Sire, your character is a constitution).

At the beginning of his reign, he abolished the secret police of state and the censorship of books (the latter of which, however, he introduced again at a later period), and declared in 1801, "I acknowledge no power to be lawful which does not emanate from the laws." Alexander in an especial degree developed the internal resources and the external power of his immense empire. The addition of Georgia, Bialystock, Finland, Warsaw, Schirvan, and Bessarabia has rendered its frontiers almost everywhere impenetrable, and increased the number of its inhabitants from thirty-six millions to more than forty-three, for the most part Europeans. The speedy rebuilding of Moscow, the progress of cultivation in Siberia and the Crimea, the number of inhabitants in the governments of Tobolsk, Tomsk, and Irkutsk, increased by 800,000, are similar proofs of the advancing prosperity of the empire, and have immortalized the reign of this monarch.



The population of southern Russia has been greatly increased by the admission of German emigrants, and the same plan was extended to Poland. Schools and universities have been established, the system of Bell and Lancaster introduced, the ecclesiastical affairs of the Protestants and the Catholics arranged, the conversion of the Jews (or *Christian Israelites*, as they are called) encouraged, the activity of all public institutions for instruction increased, and the scientific institutions in Petersburg and Moscow much improved. The expulsion of the Jesuits, indeed, disturbed a little the relations of the emperor with the see of Rome, but satisfactory explanations were made by Alexander to the pope at Laybach. Lastly, the emperor nominated a bishop, and established a general consistory for the Lutheran church throughout the empire, in 1820, which was to maintain, in their purity, the doctrines of the Protestant church. Towards the conclusion of his reign, in spite of the vigilance of the police, a fearful and widely-spread conspiracy was formed against him, the discovery and punishment of which was reserved for his successor. Perhaps he was aware of the existence of treasonable projects when he followed his sick wife to the Crimea. His intention might have been to choose a place of retirement from the cares of government; but he fell sick at Taganrock of a bilious fever, and died December 1st, 1825, in the arms of his wife. The news of his death had scarcely reached Petersburg when his eldest brother, Constantine, then in Warsaw, was proclaimed emperor; and all the civil officers and the guards took the oath of allegiance. But the grand duke declined accepting the crown, having resigned his right of succession during the life-time of his brother. Before the arrival at Petersburg of the letter of Constantine, in which he announced to his mother and brother, the grand duke Nicholas, that he recognized the latter as emperor, the senate had opened the testament of Alexander, and found in it the document containing the resignation of Constantine, together with a manifesto of the emperor, declaring his second brother, Nicholas, his successor. The death of Alexander was a fortunate event for Europe; for the influence of Russia was growing continually stronger in all the cabinets of the European continent. No other empire has united, on so great a scale, the power of masses, yet rude and vigorous, with experience and the advantages of culture—a union the more dangerous as it was under the control of one absolute master. With Alexander, moreover, perished the principal support of the holy alliance, a sufficient reason for Europe to rejoice at his decease. Russia, however, laments in him a great benefactor. He had the good fortune to ascend the throne at a time when the empire was prepared for the greatest improvements, and his ambition was of a kind to be gratified by promoting the welfare of his people.

ALEXIS, a Greek comic poet, born at Thurium, a colony of the Athenians, in Lucania. He came to Athens when young, and instructed Menander, who was his nephew, in dramatic composition. He flourished in the time of Alexander. A few fragments of his works alone remain, which are to be found in the "*Vetustissimorum Authorum Græcorum Poemata*," 1570.

ALEXIS, MICHAELOVITCH, czar of Russia, was born in 1630, and succeeded his father Michael

in 1646. Alexis, who was predecessor and father to Peter the Great, was an able monarch, and the first Russian ruler who acted on the policy of a more intimate connection with the other states and nations of Europe. He preceded his celebrated son in measures for the civilization and political and commercial improvement of Russia. Alexis, by his diversion of the Turkish arms, in a great measure contributed to the celebrated victory of John Sobieski at Choksim. He died in 1676, aged forty-six. Peter the Great was his son by his second wife Natalia, daughter of a captain of hussars.

ALEXIS, PETEROVITCH, son of Peter the Great and his first wife Eudoxia. This unhappy prince, unfortunately for himself, opposed the new policy of his father, and expressed an unalterable attachment to the ancient usages and customs of his country. His private habits were as intemperate as his public views were limited and uncivilized; and Peter, having in vain endeavoured to inspire him with his own sentiments and with a more enlightened love of his country, at length resolved to disinherit him, in order to avoid the certain overthrow of all his plans, if followed by such a successor. The czarovitch appeared to consent; but, taking advantage of the absence of his father from Russia, he made his escape to the emperor of Germany, his brother-in-law. The imperial court concealed him some time at Vienna, from which place he retired, first to Inspruck, and subsequently to Naples, until, his retreat being discovered by the czar, he was induced to return to Moscow. On his arrival, his sword was taken from him; he was conducted as a criminal into the presence of his father; and in an assembly of the clergy and nobility the czar caused him formally to renounce the succession. At the same time, all his confidants were arrested, some of whom were executed; and his mother Eudoxia was transferred to a monastery near the lake of Ladoga. At last the unhappy prince was tried, and, by an excess of rigour which it is difficult on any theory of justice to vindicate, condemned to death. His sentence was reported to him, and the next day he died in prison, a victim to his own weakness and the merciless severity of his extraordinary parent.

Alexis left a son, who ascended the throne after the death of the empress Catherine. Opinion is much divided as to the motives and necessity for this unnatural sacrifice. It was of course vindicated by Peter, as demanded by the interests of his rising empire. The fate of Alexis forms at once a comparison and contrast with that of Don Carlos of Spain, the immolated son of Philip II. The former suffered for his predilection for ancient institutions and ideas; the latter for his implied attachment to the new light that was then rising up in Europe.

ALEXIS, WILLIAM, a Benedictine monk, and prior of Bussi-au-Perche, was living in 1505. He left various poetical works, which in his own time were much esteemed. For a monk, his subjects are curious, the following being his principal works:—1. "Four Chants Royaux, presented at the Games du Puy at Rouen;" 2. "Le Passetems de tout Homme et de tout Femme," which is a grave performance on the misery of man from the cradle to the grave; 3. "Le Grand Blason des Fausses Amours," being a dialogue on the evils produced by love.

ALFIERI, VITTORIO, an Italian poet of considerable talents, who was born at Astia in Piedmont



on the 17th of January 1749. His parents were both wealthy and noble, but he lost his father when a child, and, his mother having married again, he was placed with his sister under the care of their uncle. He received a costly education, but he is said to have quitted his studies at sixteen, with the acquirement of no accomplishment but that of riding, and along with it an excessive attachment to horses. His next pursuit was travelling; and in the three or four succeeding years he visited nearly all the Christian countries of Europe. He came twice to this country in the course of that period, and, during the last visit of seven months, distinguished himself merely by affairs of gallantry. On his return to Turin, a passionate attachment to a lady of quality first induced him to turn his attention to literature and poetry; and, after some imperfect attempts, he completed a tragedy called *Cleopatra*, which was acted at Turin in 1773, with a small piece by way of farce, also written by himself, which he named "The Poets."



The partial success of these attempts opened a new field to Alfieri, who with characteristic ardour immediately resolved assiduously to cultivate his own language and the Latin tongue, to study the best authors in both, and to follow up dramatic composition upon certain principles invented by himself. The result of this determination was the production of fourteen dramas in the following seven years, together with several works in prose and verse, a translation of Sallust, "A Treatise on Tyranny," "Etruria Avenged," a poem in four cantos, and five odes on the American Revolution. About this period Alfieri visited Florence, when he attached his autograph to a rough sheet of the *Orlando Furioso*, of which we subjoin a fac-simile.

*Vittorio Alfieri*

Alfieri now obtained the hand of the widow of the last Pretender, a princess of the house of Schomberg, usually called the countess of Albany; and in her company he visited France, in order to print his theatre, to which he continued to add new tragedies. Alfieri beheld the opening of the Revolution with the feelings of a lover of liberty, and even strongly recorded them in an ode on the taking of the Bastille.

The horrors produced by the melancholy reaction of centuries of bad government soon however drove him from France, leaving behind him property in the funds, furniture, papers, and books, all which were confiscated. From this time, with more resentment than philosophy, he always expressed the most decided antipathy to the French people, and even disavowed such of his early works as breathed the language of political freedom.

At the age of forty-eight he began to study the Greek language, from which he made several translations, and dedicated himself so laboriously to literature, especially satire and the drama, as to produce a disorder of which he died at Florence on the 3d of October 1803. He was interred in the church of St Croix in the capital, where his widow erected a splendid monument to his memory, executed by Canova, and had it placed between the tombs of Michael Angelo and Machiavel. Of this beautiful work of art we supply a sketch. Alfieri wrote a somewhat too flattering inscription for his own tomb, as also his life, published at Paris, in 1809, and in English, at London, 1810. These memoirs, if somewhat too self-complacent, are not without interest, and show, like more recent instances, the mixed operation of early notions of rank, fortune, and self-consequence, on the principles and conduct of men of genius who are born to inherit them.



The character of Alfieri was too strong and impulsive to be either philosophical or amiable, and his political opinions followed the bent of his temper, being hastily taken up and as hastily laid down. That mind, however, which can follow up a life of early dissipation by a steady determination to become distinguished in literature, with much of the preparatory attainment to acquire, is one of extraordinary energy; and such was that of Alfieri. His tragedies, the dramatis personæ of which are for the most part Greek and Roman, exhibit strength of conception and great occasional energy; but, looking to nature, they aim too much at lofty expression and forcible thoughts. They have of late however excited considerable attention; and more than one dramatist has sought after comparative originality by the study

of them. The works of Alfieri may be looked on as the efforts of a great spirit employed out of its proper sphere of action. Tired of idleness, and desirous of distinction, he became a poet, and found it impossible to be satisfied with a moderate degree of excellence. He frequently expressed a strong desire to have his name handed down to posterity, with the distinguished poets of his own country. But his proud and passionate mind was animated with a political, rather than a poetical spirit. His violent temper frequently led him into seeming contradictions; but, on the whole, he was independent, honest, and candid in his writings, and his name is ever mentioned by the Italians with respect.

The works of this poet have gone through many editions; and his autobiography and tragedies, with several of his minor compositions, have been published in the Milan collection of the Italian classics, under the title of "*Opera Scelta*," in four volumes 8vo., 1818, and this, though not the only one, is by far the most correct edition of his works.



ALFRED, commonly called the Great, was one of the most illustrious monarchs that ever swayed the sceptre of this island. He was born at Wantage in Berkshire, and his father, who was devoted in his attachment to the see of Rome, sent Alfred, who was his favourite son, to that city when he was but five years old. He distinguished himself during the reign of his brother Ethelred in several engagements against the Danes, and, upon his death, succeeded to the crown, in the year 871, and the twenty-second of his age. On his ascending the throne he found himself involved in a dangerous war with the Danes, and placed in such circumstances of distress as called for the greatest courage and resolution. The invaders had already penetrated into the heart of his kingdom, and, before he had been a month upon the throne, he was obliged to take the field against them. After many battles gained on both sides, he was at length reduced to the greatest distress, and entirely abandoned by his subjects. In this situation Alfred, conceiving himself no longer a king, laid aside all marks of royalty, and took shelter in the house of a poor shepherd. He retired afterwards to the isle of Athelney in Somersetshire, where he built a fort for the security of himself, his

family, and the few faithful servants who repaired thither to him. When he had been about a year in this retreat, having been informed that some of his subjects had routed an army of the Danes, killed their chiefs, and taken their magical standard, he issued a proclamation inviting his nobility to come to him and make an effort to expel the invaders. Before they came to a final determination Alfred assumed the habit of a harper, went into the enemy's camp, where he acquired an exact knowledge of their situation; he then returned to the nobility, whom he ordered to their respective homes, there to draw together as great a force as possible; and, upon a day appointed, there was to be a general rendezvous at Selwood in Wiltshire. This affair was transacted so secretly and expeditiously that, in a short time, the king, at the head of an army, approached the Danes before they had any intelligence of his design. Alfred, taking advantage of their surprise, totally defeated them near Eddington. Those who escaped fled to a neighbouring castle, where they were besieged, and obliged to surrender at discretion. Alfred granted them better terms than they could expect. He agreed to give up the whole kingdom of the East Angles to such as would embrace the Christian religion, on condition they would oblige the rest of their countrymen to quit the island, and, as much as it was in their power, prevent the landing of any more foreigners. For the performance thereof he took hostages; and when, in pursuance of the treaty, Guthrum the Danish captain came, with thirty of his chief officers, to be baptized, Alfred answered for him at the font, and gave him the name of Athelstane. In 884 a great number of Danes landed in Kent, and laid siege to Rochester, but, the king coming to the relief of that city, they were obliged to abandon their design. Alfred had now great success, which was chiefly owing to his fleet, an advantage of his own creating. Having secured the sea-coasts, he fortified the rest of the kingdom with castles and walled towns, and he besieged and recovered from the Danes the city of London, which he resolved to keep as a frontier city.

After some years' respite, Alfred was again called into the field, for a body of Danes came with a fleet of 250 sail of ships on the coast of Kent, and, having landed, fixed themselves at Appletree. Shortly after, another fleet came up the Thames; the invaders landed, and built a fort at Middleton. Before Alfred marched against the enemy he compelled the Danes settled in Northumberland and Essex to give him hostages for their good conduct. He then moved towards the invaders, and pitched his camp between their armies, to prevent their junction. A great body, however, moved off to Essex, and, crossing the river, proceeded to Farnham in Surrey, where they were defeated by the king's forces. Meanwhile the Danes settled in Northumberland, notwithstanding they had given hostages for their good behaviour, equipped two fleets, and, after plundering the northern and southern coasts, sailed to Exeter, and besieged it. The king, as soon as he received intelligence, marched against them; but before he reached Exeter they had got possession of it. He kept them, however, closely shut up on all sides, and reduced them to the greatest extremities. Being at length rendered desperate, they made a general sally on the besiegers, but were defeated, though with great loss on the king's side. Before Alfred had time to



recruit his forces another Danish leader came, with a great army out of Northumberland, and destroyed all before him, marching to the city of Chester, where they remained the rest of that year. The year following they invaded North Wales, and, after having plundered and destroyed every thing, they divided, one body returning to Northumberland, another into the territories of the East Angles, from whence they proceeded to Essex, and took possession of a small island called Meresig. Here they did not long remain; for, having parted, some sailed up the river Thames, and others up the Lea, where they built a fort not far from London; and, when the harvest time arrived, the king was obliged to encamp with a body of troops in the neighbourhood of the city, in order to cover the reapers from the excursions of the Danes. They were, however, shortly afterwards compelled to quit the island. Alfred now employed himself in collecting the laws of his predecessors, and endeavoured to improve the condition of his subjects by an impartial administration of justice. He translated the "Psalms," the "Fables of Æsop," and the writings of other authors into the Anglo-Saxon language. His familiar acquaintance with the most learned men of his time improved his own mind and enabled him to do much for the good of his people. He laid the foundation of the English navy by causing ships, or rather galleys, to be built, which exceeded, in size and strength, any that had previously been employed. He also made many geographical discoveries in the north of Europe and the Baltic Sea, the results of which have been handed down to posterity in his translation of Orosius. His history, considering the times in which he lived, presents one of the most perfect examples on record of an able and patriotic monarch united with the highminded and strictly moral individual. Alfred died in October, A. D. 900, and was buried at Hyde Abbey in Winchester.

Alfred, in addition to his general patronage of the sciences, paid particular attention to those useful arts which lead to an extension of commerce. Thus

exportation. Some notion of the style of ornaments prepared by these workmen may be obtained by the accompanying sketch, which delineates a jewel which, according to the Saxon inscription, was made by order of King Alfred.

ALGARDI, ALEXANDER, a distinguished sculptor, who was descended from a family of great respectability in Bologna. He was educated in the academy of Lodovico Caracci, and went when twenty years old to Mantua. The attempt to imitate, in sculpture, the celebrated pictures of Giulio Romano was sufficient to give his genius a wrong direction, since the excellences of these pictures are directly opposed to those of sculpture. The duke of Mantua had recommended him to Cardinal Ludovisi, nephew of Pope Gregory XV., who was intent on renewing the magnificence of the gardens of Sallust. Here Algardi was employed in restoring mutilated antiques, and in preparing original works.

The statue of St. Magdalen for the church of St. Silvestre on the Quirinal was his first great work. Cardinals and princes now availed themselves of his talents, and the French court wished him to visit Paris; but the prince Pamfili succeeded in retaining him in Rome, where he died in June 1654, in the fifty-second year of his age, and was buried in the church St. Giovanni de Bolognesi. His "Flight of Attila," a basso-relievo in marble, with figures of the size of life, over the altar of St. Leo in St. Peter's Church, is his most celebrated work. But, with all its excellence, an inclination to give to sculpture the effect of painting is observable. This was owing to the influence of the school of Caracci on him. His "God of Sleep," in the Villa Borghese, has often been taken for an antique.

ALGAROTTI, FRANCESCO, COUNT, an Italian writer of considerable celebrity, who was born at Venice in 1712, and who combined the study of the sciences with a highly cultivated taste for the fine arts. He was well acquainted with the Latin and Greek tongues, and paid great attention to the Tuscan style and language. He visited France, England, Russia, Germany, Switzerland, and all the important towns of Italy, to acquire information. When twenty-one years old he wrote at Paris the greatest part of his "Neutonianismo per le Dame," after the model of Fontenelle's "Plurality of Worlds," which laid the foundation of his fame. Until 1739 Algarotti lived alternately in Paris with the Marchioness du Chatelet, and in London. But about that period he made a journey to Petersburg with Lord Baltimore, and, on his return, he visited Frederic II., then crown-prince, and residing at Rheinsburg. The prince was so much pleased with him that, after his ascension to the throne, he invited him to live with him, and raised him to the rank of count. He was not less esteemed by Augustus III., king of Poland, who conferred on him the office of privy counsellor. Algarotti now lived alternately at Berlin and Dresden, but particularly in the former place, after receiving from Frederic in 1747 the order of merit and the office of chamberlain. In 1754 he returned to his own country, where he resided first at Venice, afterwards at Bologna, and, after 1762, at Pisa. Here he died of a consumption in 1764, after suffering long from hypochondria. He himself formed the design of the monument which Frederic II. caused to be erected over his grave in the court of the Campo Santo, at Pisa. He



we find that he brought jewellers from the continent, who manufactured the precious metals for



was called in the inscription, with reference to his "Congresso di Citera" and his "Neutonianismo," a rival of Ovid, and a scholar of Newton. In painting and architecture he was one of the best critics in Europe. In his works, which embrace a great variety of subjects, he shows much wit and acuteness, and his poems, though not of a very high order, are pleasing, and his letters are considered among the finest in the Italian language. A fine collection of his works was published at Venice in 1791; but there have been later editions.

ALI, the son of Abu Taleb, uncle of Mahomet. When the great Turkish impostor assembled his kinsmen and declared his prophetic mission, he asked which among them would be his vizier: "I am the man," exclaimed the youthful Ali, then only fourteen years of age; "whoever rises against thee, I will dash out his teeth, tear out his eyes, and break his legs; O prophet, I will be thy vizier over them." Ali kept his word; distinguished both by eloquence and valour, he became one of the main pillars of the new faith, and obtained the name of the "Lion of God, always victorious." He also received Fatima, the daughter of the prophet, in marriage, by whom he had several children, during the lifetime of their grandfather. He was thus on every account deemed the successor of the prophet, but was notwithstanding preceded by Abubeker, Omar, and Othman; and even when recognized caliph, after the death of the last of the three, he had to contend for the dignity with Moawiyah, and finally lost his life by assassination at Kufa, in the sixty-third year of his age.

There was something of grandeur in the primitive simplicity and fanatical heroism of the first followers of Mahomet, and Ali formed one of the most conspicuous examples of the conjunction. The Mahometan schism caused by the murder of Ali is well known; and his sect is called Shiites or heretics by the Sunnites or orthodox. The Persians, a part of the Usbec Tartars, and some of the princes of India, remain followers of Ali to this day. From Ali a numerous posterity has descended, who alone are allowed to wear green turbans, in honour of their descent from the prophet. There is extant, amongst various writings attributed to Ali, a collection of a hundred maxims, or sentences, which have been translated by Golius and Ockley.

ALI BEG, a man of extraordinary learning and attainments, who was born in Poland of Christian parents, but, being kidnapped in his infancy by a horde of roving Tartars, he was sold to the Turks, in whose language and religion he was educated. His skill in languages procured him at length the post of chief dragoman or interpreter to the court, while his leisure hours were employed in translating the Bible into the tongue of his adopted country. Dangerous as the avowal would have been, he had unquestionably a strong bias towards the faith of his ancestors, and but for his death, which took place suddenly in 1675, would have abjured Mahometanism. The work by which he is principally known to Europeans is a very interesting account of the religious ceremonies, pilgrimages, &c., of the Turks.

ALI BEY, a celebrated Greek, who was born in 1728. His father was a Natolian priest, and Ali, by his extraordinary talents, raised himself from the condition of a slave to the supreme power in Egypt. At the age of thirteen he became the prey of robbers, and was sold by them to a subaltern officer of

janissaries, who reared and adopted him, and to whom he was so strongly attached that, when his patron was murdered by a Circassian named Ibrahim, he killed the assassin with his own hand. The Porte sentenced him in consequence to lose his head, but Ali avoided the execution of the firman by flight, first to Jerusalem, and subsequently to Jaffa. The well-known mutability of affairs and opinions in that quarter of the globe soon restored him, not only to safety, but to power. The Circassian faction was destroyed and Ali obtained the reins of government, which he contrived for a while to render popular, his decisions and actions being marked by far greater humanity and equity than is the usual characteristic of Eastern despotism. In 1768, during the hostilities then raging between the Turks and the Russians, he despatched an auxiliary force of 12,000 men to the aid of the Ottoman cause; but so little gratitude did his efforts excite that his death was even at that moment determined upon in the divan. Gaining intimation of this resolution, Ali, as a measure at once of safety and revenge, declared open war against the Porte, and even marched his troops against the Grand Seignor's dominions in Syria and Arabia; but a Mameluke, to whom he had confided the command of them, named Abou Dahab, revolted with many of the subordinate beys in the hope of rising on the ruins of his master. Ali was then forced to fly from Cairo to Gaza. Here he succeeded in organizing a considerable army, which he led into action against his antagonists on the 13th of April, 1773. Treachery and desertion, however, again pervaded his troops in the moment of battle, and Ali, rushing in despair into the thickest of the fight, was at length cut down, after defending himself with a degree of desperate valour that has never perhaps been exceeded. Although disabled, he was not killed upon the spot, but died of the wounds he had received, about a week subsequent to the action, in the hands of his conquerors. He was possessed of a strong mind and considerable genius, with more generosity of temper and less ferocity than are common among his compatriots. He was slain in the prime of manhood, having just attained his forty-fifth year.

ALI PACHA.—The life of this extraordinary Albanian chief furnishes a striking illustration of the evil effects of unbridled power, which exhibits itself no less in the military satellite than in the eastern despot. Ali rose from a comparatively humble origin, and it is said that the fierce energy of his mother first lighted the fire of ambition in his mind. "My son," she would frequently say to him, "he who does not defend his inheritance, deserves to lose it; recollect that the property of others only belongs to them by the right of the stronger, why then should it not be yours?" and Ali was through life but too obedient to this advice. The leading trait in the character of Ali was deep dissimulation and ingratitude. One of the most striking instances of this occurred in his treatment of a neighbouring pacha named Delvino, who was, according to his own account, his benefactor. This pacha possessed a territory which had long been a subject of dispute between the Porte and the Venetians, and, having sold to the latter a forest near the lake Pelode, Ali had the circumstance secretly represented at Constantinople. The result of this was as Ali had anticipated, for the Porte instantly despatched a firman to Ali



for that chieftain's death. He went to Delvino, was received by the old pacha with his accustomed kindness, and lodged in the seraglio. Every day he waited on his host to pay him the accustomed compliments. One day, however, Ali feigned sickness, and requested the pacha to come to his apartment for the purpose of receiving an important communication. The invitation was accepted, and scarcely had the unfortunate chief entered the room than the assassins, who were concealed in a closet, upon a signal being given rushed out and stabbed him to the heart. When the guards of the murdered man hastened to the spot, to revenge the death of their master, Ali displayed the firman of the sultan, and at the same time exclaimed, "I have killed the traitor by order of our glorious sultan. Here is his imperial mandate."

Ali was subject to the most violent fits of passion; and, in the very characteristic sketch which we subjoin, the artist has succeeded in portraying him in one of those moods just as he has given orders to the *feroshes* to bastinado a criminal.



Ali's contests with the Suliotes developed in the latter many of the noblest qualities of the ancient Greeks. At the commencement of their first war, they possessed sixty-six independent villages, and a large body of experienced soldiers. The whole of this brave Christian republic he, after many years of cruelty and treachery, dispersed or destroyed, and so strong and general was the commiseration excited for them, that it is said to have extended to his own harem.

After the reduction of the Suliotes, Ali found himself in the midst of new enemies. Having refused on the destruction of that republic to withdraw his troops from the district of Tramourica, the beys in authority there resented his conduct, and refused to pay into his hands the maritime duties of the coast, which he had farmed from the Porte. They received considerable aid from the Russians, who increased Ali's jealousy by becoming in 1805 masters of Montenegro. In this war with the beys, Ali took and pillaged more than forty villages. The progress of the French arms in Dalmatia was by no

means pleasing to him, and he opened an active correspondence with Great Britain, which was kept up for many years. From his alliance with this country, Ali obtained one object of his ambition—the possession of Parga, but not till he had paid an indemnity to those of the inhabitants who should refuse to remain after a change of government. This compensation was great, as hardly any of the independent Pargiots chose to submit to the "tyrant of Albania," as he was then called. By this event Ali was placed in possession of all continental Greece, from the frontiers of Attica to the mountains of Illyria, and he ably defined his situation even when in possession of almost unlimited power. "A vizier," he said, "is a man covered with honours, but seated on a barrel of gunpowder." This was in fact his real situation; for the Porte having become jealous of his power, and fearful that his vast treasures should be divided among his children, as would of course be the case if he died a natural death, at last determined on his destruction; he was therefore placed under the ban of the empire, accused of high-treason, his agents and couriers were placed in irons, and it was declared high-treason for any one to speak in his favour.

The command of the forces sent against the rebel vizier, was placed in the hands of Ismael Bey. But Ali did not fall without a powerful struggle; the "old lion," as Ali was frequently called, aroused himself with an energy worthy of his warlike character. He first applied for the interposition of the British with the Porte, but, failing in this, he purchased largely from this country both arms and military stores; and after a considerable period of time had been spent in hostilities, which ended in nothing decisive on either side, he put his long-meditated plan of final defence into execution. This was to destroy the town of Jamaica, and shut himself up within a vast fortress situated on an island in a neighbouring lake. At this period he possessed 8000 regular troops. With these he garrisoned his fortress, and defended it by 250 pieces of cannon. Ali's garrison was provisioned for four years, and were well supplied with ammunition and war-like stores. But, with all these means of defence, he was finally taken by an act of treachery, similar to those which he had so often practised on his enemies. The command of the Turkish army was taken from Ismael Bey, and placed in the hands of Churchid Mahomet Pacha, who, finding it impossible to take him by force of arms, had recourse to treachery. He sent a flag of truce to Ali, stating that the sultan had listened to his frequent representations, and had granted him a pardon, but added that he must deliver up his fortress. Ali complied, and he was immediately afterwards shown the firman of the sultan, demanding his head. "My head," was his reply, "is not to be so easily delivered up," and instantly drawing his pistols he shot two of his enemies dead, but he was struck in the breast by a pistol ball, and almost immediately after expired. His fortress and treasures fell into the hands of the Turkish army. The extraordinary chief whose life we have thus briefly sketched had great natural endowments; he united a remarkably enterprising spirit with the most acute penetration, and an extraordinary knowledge of men with the aptitude to apply that knowledge in almost every emergency. But he was crafty, false, suspicious, and implacable, frequently destroying the



lives of his fellow men for mere wantonness and cruelty. The dissensions of his enemies, the corruption of the divan, and the political weakness of the Porte, were the corner-stones on which this modern Jugurtha built up his ephemeral greatness.

ALLAN, DAVID, a Scottish portrait painter, who was born at Edinburgh in 1744. Some early efforts of his genius having attracted attention, he was sent to an academy of painting and engraving in Glasgow, where he remained several years. He afterwards visited Italy, where he passed sixteen years in pursuing his studies, and copying the remains of antiquity and the old masters. While at Rome, in 1773, he received a gold medal, for the best specimen of historical composition. On his return, he established himself at Edinburgh, where he was appointed master of the academy established in that city for the diffusion of an accurate knowledge of the principles of the fine arts. He died in Edinburgh in 1796. His illustrations of the Gentle Shepherd, the Cotter's Saturday Night, and other sketches of rustic life and manners in Scotland, in aquatint, obtained for him the name of the *Scottish Hogarth*. His principal painting is the *Return of the Prodigal Son*. The subject of his prize composition was the *Origin of Painting*, or the Corinthian Maid drawing the shadow of her lover. This work is well known and much admired.

ALLAN, ETHAN, a distinguished military officer in the American revolutionary army. He was born in Connecticut, and received but the rudiments of a common education. He was for some time successfully engaged in the war of Independence, and in 1775 was twice despatched into Canada, to engage the inhabitants to lend their support to the American cause. In the last of these expeditions, he formed a plan, in concert with colonel Brown, to reduce Montreal, in pursuance of which general Allan crossed the river at the head of 110 men, but was attacked, before Brown could join him, by the British troops, consisting of 500 men, and, after a most obstinate resistance, was taken prisoner. He wrote a history of his captivity, in which he states that for some time he was kept in irons, and treated with much severity. He was sent to this country as a prisoner, with an assurance that, on his arrival, he would meet with the halter. During the passage extreme cruelty was exercised towards him and his fellow-prisoners. They were all, to the number of thirty-four, thrust into a small place in the vessel, enclosed with white-oak plank, not more than twenty feet wide by twenty-two long. After about a month's confinement in Pendennis Castle, near Falmouth, he was put on board a frigate, January 5th 1776, and carried to Halifax. Thence, after an imprisonment of five months, he was removed to New York. On the passage from Halifax to the latter place Allan was treated with great kindness by captain Smith, the commander of the vessel, and evinced his gratitude by refusing to join in a conspiracy to kill the British captain and seize the frigate. His refusal prevented the execution of the plan. He remained at New York for a year and a half, sometimes in confinement and sometimes at large on parole.

In 1778 General Allan was exchanged for Colonel Campbell, and immediately afterwards repaired to the head-quarters of General Washington, by whom he was received with much respect. As his health was impaired, he returned to Vermont, after having

made an offer of his services to the commander-in-chief, in case of his recovery. His arrival in Vermont was celebrated by the discharge of cannon; and he was soon appointed to the command of the state militia, as a mark of esteem for his patriotism and military talents. A fruitless attempt was said to have been made by the British to bribe him to lend his support to a union of Vermont with Canada, and he shortly afterwards died at Colchester, February 13th 1789.

General Allan was a man of a strong and enterprising, but haughty and restless mind. Although his education had been circumscribed, he was daring in his pretensions to knowledge, and bold and peremptory in his assertions. Besides the narrative of his captivity, which we have noticed, and a number of pamphlets on the controversy with New York, he published a "Vindication of the Opposition of the Inhabitants of Vermont to the Government of New York, and their Right to form an Independent State," and a work entitled "Allan's Theology, or the Oracles of Reason," the first formal publication, in the United States of America, openly directed against the Christian Religion. He adopted some of the most fantastical and absurd notions imaginable, believing, with Pythagoras, that the soul of man, after death, would live again in beasts, birds, fishes, &c.

There is however an anecdote extant which proves that he professed to entertain those ideas more from an affectation of singularity than from conviction. Whilst sitting in his library, conversing with a physician named Elliot, General Allan was informed that his daughter was dying, and desired to speak with him. He immediately repaired to her chamber, followed by Doctor Elliot. His wife was distinguished for piety, and had instructed her daughter in the principles of Christianity. As soon as her father stood at her bedside, she said to him, "I am about to die; shall I believe in the principles you have taught me, or shall I believe in what my mother has taught me?" He became greatly agitated; his lip quivered; his whole frame shook; and, after waiting a few moments, he replied, "Believe what your mother has taught you."

ALLATIUS, LEO, a celebrated writer of the seventeenth century, and many years keeper of the Vatican library. He was born in the Isle of Scio, in 1537, and at nine years of age he was removed from his native country to Calabria. He was afterwards sent to Rome, and admitted into the Greek college, where he applied himself to the study of polite learning, philosophy, and divinity. Pope Gregory XV. sent him to Germany in 1622, in order to get the elector Palatine's library removed to Rome, but by the death of Gregory he lost the reward he might have expected for his trouble in that affair. He lived some time after with Cardinal Bianchi, and then with Cardinal Francis Barberini; and was at last, by pope Alexander VII., appointed keeper of the Vatican library. No Latin priest ever showed himself more incensed against the Greek schismatics than Allatius, or more devoted to the see of Rome. In his compositions he shows more erudition than judgment; and he makes frequent digressions from one subject to another. One of these is thus quoted by a contemporary author: "This lamentation was composed by Metaphrast, and that was sufficient for



Allatius to insert a panegyric upon Metaphrast, written by Psellus. As Metaphrast's name was Simeon, he took an opportunity from thence of making a long dissertation upon the lives and works of such celebrated men as had borne the same name. From the Simeons he passes to the Simons, from them to the Simonideses, and lastly to the Simonactides." Allatius died at Rome in 1669, aged eighty-two.

ALLEGRI, GREGORIO, a celebrated musician who was born at Rome, and in 1629 became a singer in the pope's chapel. He was a pupil of Nanini. His celebrated *Miserere* is still sung in the papal chapel during Passion-week, and is forbidden to be copied on pain of excommunication. It is well known that Mozart, having heard it performed twice, retained the score so strongly in his memory that he wrote it down in almost perfect conformity to the original manuscript. The *Miserere* of Allegri was printed in London in 1771, under the superintendence of Dr. Burney; and in 1810 M. Choron inserted it in his collection of classical music. Allegri died in 1652, and was buried in the chapel of Santo Filippo Neri, in the Chiesa Nova at Rome. This is now the common place of interment for the singers of the pontifical chapel, and at the suggestion of Allegri a Latin inscription was placed on the door of the mausoleum. It may be thus translated:—

The pontifical singers,  
Anxious that those  
Whom harmony united in life  
Should not be separated in death,  
Wished this as their burial-place.

ALLEGRI. (See CORREGIO.)

ALLEIN, JOSEPH, a non-conformist minister, who lived in the reign of Charles II. He was author of a work entitled "An Alarm to Unconverted Sinners," which has gone through several editions. His learning, piety, and inoffensive manners could not, however, preserve him from the persecution levelled against all who held similar opinions at the Restoration. He was not only ejected from his benefice of Taunton in Somersetshire, but, persisting in officiating, was amerced by Judge Foster in a fine of 100 marks, and committed to Ilchester jail till the payment of the penalty. At the expiration of little more than twelve months he was released, his friends raising the money; but, his health being already ruined by confinement, his constitution gave way under it, and, after lingering a few months, he died in November 1688, at the early age of thirty-six, and was buried in the church at Taunton, of which he had been the incumbent. He was born in 1623, at Devizes in Wiltshire, and was educated at Oxford, in which university he was a member, first of Lincoln, afterwards of Corpus Christi College.

ALLEN, THOMAS, an eminent scholar who lived in the reign of Elizabeth, and was considered the first mathematician of his day. His skill in this his favourite pursuit laid him open to the same suspicion among the vulgar which had fixed itself upon Roger Bacon. He was generally reputed to be a dealer in the black art, while his intimacy with Robert Dudley earl of Leicester, who patronized and consulted him, drew down on him the accusation of endeavouring to bring about a marriage between his patron and the queen, through the force of enchantment. Allen was a native of Staffordshire, born at Uttoxeter, and in the prosecution of his studies went at an early age to Oxford, where he graduated, and

obtained a fellowship in Trinity College. In 1570 he removed to Gloucester Hall, where he remained till his death in 1632, although a bishopric was at one time offered in vain to tempt him from his retirement. He is the author of several astronomical treatises written in the Latin language, and he published an edition of Ptolemy's second and third books on Judicial Astrology. He also wrote a commentary on Lilly.

ALLESTRY, JACOB, an English poet possessing considerable talents, and the son of James Allestry, a bookseller of London, who was ruined by the great fire in 1666. Jacob was educated at Westminster school, entered at Christ Church, Oxford, at the age of eighteen, and elected student in 1672. He is believed to have composed the verses and pastorals spoken in the theatre at Oxford May 21, 1681, by William Savile, second son of the Marquis of Halifax, and George Cholmondeley, second son of Robert viscount Kells, before James duke of York, his duchess, and the lady Anne, which were afterwards printed in the "Examen Poeticum." He died in October 1686, and was buried in St. Thomas's churchyard.

ALLESTRY, RICHARD, D. D., an eminent divine, born at Uppington in Shropshire in 1619. He was educated in the grammar school at Coventry, and afterwards at Christ Church in Oxford. He entered into the service of King Charles I., and was sometimes seen with his musket in one hand and his book in the other. He was very active in the cause of Charles II. before his restoration, and was employed by the royalists in transacting business with that prince during his exile; but was at last seized at Dover by a party of soldiers, and committed prisoner to Lambeth House, where he was confined six or eight weeks: but soon after the restoration he was made canon of Christ Church, created doctor of divinity, and appointed chaplain in ordinary to the king, and regius professor of divinity. In 1665 he was appointed provost of Eton College, and the western side of the outward quadrangle of that college was built at his expense. The excellent Dr. Hammond, who was his intimate friend, left him his valuable library, which he afterwards bequeathed to his successors in the divinity chair. He was eminent for his piety, benevolence, and integrity, for the sincerity of his friendship and his disinterested temper. He wrote several books, and a collection of his sermons were printed after his decease by Dr. Fell bishop of Oxford. He died in August 1680.

ALLEYN, EDWARD, a celebrated actor in the reigns of Elizabeth and James; but still better known as the founder of Dulwich College. He was born in the parish of St. Botolph, Bishopsgate, in 1566, and his predilection for the stage, for which he was eminently qualified, led him to embrace the theatrical profession very early. According to the testimony of Ben Jonson and the other dramatists of the age, he was the first actor of the day, and, of course, played leading characters in the plays of Shakspeare and Jonson, although, in consequence of the names not being placed against the parts in the old editions of those authors, his particular share in them cannot now be ascertained.

He must have been on the stage previous to 1592, as at that time he was in high favour with the town, and greatly applauded by the best judges, particu-

larly by Ben Jonson, who publicly addressed him in the following lines :—

"If Rome so great, and in her wisest age,  
Feared not to boast the glories of her stage,  
A skilful Roscius and great Æsop—men  
Yet crowned with honours, as with riches then,  
Who had no less a trumpet to their name  
Than Cicero, whose very breath was fame—  
How can so great example die in me  
That, Alleyn, I should pause to publish thee,  
Who both their graces in thyself hast more  
Outstripped than they did all who went before,  
And present worth in all dost so contract  
As others spake, but only thou dost act?  
Wear this renown : 'tis just that who did give  
So many poets life by one should live."



Haywood also warmly applauds his dramatic talents, and, in his prologue to "Marloe's Jew of Malta," calls him Proteus for shapes and Roscius for a tongue. But the strongest evidence of his talents as an actor, and which shows him in no less a light than that of companion to Shakspeare and the originator of one of his most admired passages, will be found in the following letter :—

"Friend Marle,

"I never longed for thy company more than last night : we were all very merrye at the Globe, when Ned Alleyn did not scruple to affyrme pleasauntly to thy friende Will that he had stolen his speech about the qualities of an actor's excellencye in Hamlet hys Tragedye from conversations manyfold which had passed betweene them, and opinyons given by Alleyn touchinge the subjecte.—Shakspeare did not take this talke in good sorte; but Jonson put an end to the strife with wittylye remarkinge, 'This affaire needeth no contentione; you stole it from Ned, no doubt; do not marvel : have you not seen him act tymes out of number?'—Believe me most sycnerilie yours, G. PEELE."

Having acquired considerable wealth, he determined to found a college, and selected Dulwich as its site. It may appear surprising how one of Mr. Alleyn's profession should be enabled to erect such an edifice; but it may be observed that he had some paternal fortune, which, though small, might lay a foundation for his future affluence; and it is to be presumed that the profits he received from acting, to

one of his provident and saving disposition, and one who by his excellence in playing attracted such crowds of spectators, must have considerably improved his fortune: besides, he was not only a distinguished actor, but manager of a playhouse built at his own expense, by which he is said to have amassed considerable wealth. He was also keeper of the king's wild beasts, or master of the royal bear-garden, which was frequented by vast crowds of spectators; and the profits arising from these sports are said to have amounted to 500*l.* per annum. Mr. Aubrey speaks of a tradition current in his time, "that Mr. Alleyn playing a demon with six others, in one of Shakspeare's plays, was, in the midst of the play, surprised by an apparition of the devil, which so worked on his fancy that he made a vow, which he performed by building Dulwich College." He began the foundation of this college under the direction of Inigo Jones, in 1614; and the buildings, gardens, &c., were finished in 1617, in which he is said to have expended about 10,000*l.* After the College was built he met with some difficulty in obtaining a charter for settling his lands in mortmain; for he proposed to endow it with 180*l.* per annum for the maintenance of one master, one warden, and four fellows; also six poor men and as many women, besides twelve poor boys to be educated till the age of fourteen, and then put out to some trade or calling. The obstruction he met with arose from the lord chancellor Bacon, who wished King James to settle part of Alleyn's lands for the support of two academical lectures; and he wrote a letter to the marquis of Buckingham, dated August 18, 1618, entreating him to use his interest with his majesty for that purpose. Mr. Alleyn's solicitation was, however, at last complied with, and he obtained the royal licence "by virtue whereof he did, in the chapel at the said new hospital at Dulwich, called The College of God's Gift, on the 13th of September 1619, publicly read and publish a quadripartite writing in parchment, whereby he created and established the said college; he then subscribed it with his name, and fixed his seal to several parts thereof, in presence of several honourable persons, and ordered copies of the writings to four different parishes." He was himself the first master of his college; so that, to make use of the words of Mr. Haywood, one of his contemporaries, "He was so mingled with humility and charity that he became his own pensioner, humbly submitting himself to that proportion of diet and clothes which he had bestowed on others." We have no reason to think he ever repented of this distribution of his property; but, on the contrary, that he was entirely satisfied, as appears from the following memorial in his own writing, found amongst his papers :—"May 26, 1620 My wife and I acknowledge the fine at the common pleas bar of all our lands to the college; blessed be God that he hath given us life to do it."

He died on the 25th of November 1626, in the sixty-first year of his age, and was buried in the chapel of his new college. This edifice has been materially benefited within these few years by being made the depository of the pictures collected by the late Sir Francis Bourgeois.

ALLIX, JACQUES ALEXANDRE FRANCOIS; a French lieutenant-general, and member of the academy of sciences at Gottingen, born at Perci, in Normandy, Sept. 21, 1776. He distinguished himself



early in life in the war of St. Domingo. In 1808, he entered the army of the king of Westphalia, and in 1813 he defended that kingdom with great courage and talent. On both the occasions when France was conquered by the allies he served his country faithfully; but the ordonnance of Louis XVIII., dated July 24, 1815, obliged him to leave the kingdom. In his exile, he wrote his work against Newton's law of gravitation, in which he attempts to explain all the motions of the heavenly bodies by the evolution of gases in the different atmospheres. This work has been translated into many languages, but was fully answered by Laplace. In 1819 he returned to France, and entered again into the military service, dying at Paris in 1832.

ALLIX, PETER, a French Protestant divine, who was born at Alençon in France in the year 1641. At the time when the edict of Nantes tolerated and protected the Protestants of France, he entered upon his clerical profession, and remained minister of Rouen until the 35th year of his age. In this period he wrote several pieces upon the controversy between the Catholics and the Protestants, which obtained him great fame among his own party. He afterwards removed to Charenton, in the vicinity of Paris, which was the principal church among the reformed, and frequented by persons of the first rank in France who professed the Protestant faith. Here Allix preached a course of excellent sermons in defence of the Protestant religion, some of which were afterwards printed in Holland, and added to his increasing fame. The chief object of these sermons was to repel the attack of the bishop of Meaux, the most ingenious and able opponent of the reformation at that time. The unwise revocation of the edict of Nantes drove Allix and many others to seek refuge in England. Three years after his arrival in England, he had made himself so perfectly master of the English language as to be able to write very correctly a *Defence of the Christian Religion*. This work he dedicated to James II., in testimony of gratitude for his kind reception of the distressed refugees of France. Not long after his arrival in England he was honoured with the title of doctor of divinity, and also received the more substantial honour of being appointed treasurer of the church of Salisbury. Allix still maintained the station of a champion for the Protestant cause, and in opposition to the bishop of Meaux proved that the charge of heresy justly belonged to the Catholics, and not to their opponents, because they had introduced new doctrines into the church. He died at London in the year 1717.

ALLY, nabob of Oude.—The life of this unfortunate individual furnishes a striking example of Eastern vicissitude. He was born in 1781, being, as it is said, the son of a menial of the lowest description. His reputed father, a wealthy and eccentric prince, who had succeeded to the musnud or throne of Oude under the protection of the East India Company, adopted him as his successor. Vizier Ally succeeded accordingly, but was soon deposed by the English government in favour of the brother of the late nabob. A pension of two lacks of rupees, or 25,000*l.* sterling, was settled on the deposed prince, who was ordered to remove from Lucknow to the presidency. He accordingly proceeded to Benares, to which place Mr. Cherry the Company's agent was despatched, to make arrangements for his proceeding to his destination. Shortly after his arrival, Mr. Cherry having

invited him to breakfast, he came attended by an armed retinue, and, after complaining bitterly of the treatment he had received from the Company, gave a signal, on which his followers rushed in and cut to pieces Mr. Cherry and his assistant Mr. Graham. They then proceeded to the house of Mr. Davis, another European resident, who found means to hold them at bay until succour arrived. On this Ally made his escape into the territory of the rajah of Berar, who, being pressed by the East India Company, at length agreed to give him up, on condition that his life should be spared. This proposal was acceded to, and the unhappy man was for the remainder of his days, seventeen years and three months, confined in a large iron cage, his death taking place in May 1817, at the age of thirty-six.

ALMAGRO, DIEGO, a Spaniard of humble birth, one of the adventurers who accompanied Francis Pizarro to South America. In his treatment of the natives he showed himself brave, prodigate, and cruel. In 1525 he took Cusco, the ancient capital of the incas, by storm, when he exhibited the greatest barbarity towards the unfortunate Atahualpa, or *Atabalipa*, as he is sometimes called, the last monarch of the race of Manco Capac, and put him to a dreadful death. Quarrelling with Pizarro about the division of their spoil and power, a schism ensued; and, both factions taking arms, Almagro was defeated, made a prisoner by his rival, and strangled in 1538, at the age of seventy-five.

The son of Almagro, who was a young man of great talents, still remained at the head of a considerable body of troops, and Juan de Herrada, an officer of great abilities, directed his councils, so that, while Pizarro confided in his own security, a conspiracy was formed against him, which terminated in his death. The assassins exulting in their success, and waving their bloody swords, hastened to the street, proclaimed the death of the tyrant, and compelled the magistrates and principal citizens of Lima to acknowledge Almagro as lawful successor of his father. But his reign was of short duration; for in 1541 Vaca de Castro, arriving at Quito, produced the royal commission, appointing him governor of Peru, together with all the privileges and authority of Pizarro. The talents and influence of the new governor soon overpowered the interest of Almagro, who, perceiving the rapid decline of his influence, hastened with his troops to Cuzco, where his opponents had erected the royal standard under the command of Pedro Alvarez Holguin. Herrada, the guide of his councils, died during his march; and from that time his measures were conspicuous for their violence, concerted with little ingenuity, and executed with little address. At length, in September 1542, the forces of Almagro and Vaca de Castro met, and victory long remained doubtful, till at last it declared for the new governor. Almagro conducted the military operations of that fatal day with a gallant spirit, worthy of a better cause and deserving of a better fate; and his followers displayed uncommon valour. In proportion to the number of combatants the carnage was very great. Of 1500 men, 500 fell in the field, and many more were wounded. Almagro escaped, but, being betrayed by some of his own officers, he was publicly beheaded at Cuzco.

ALMAMON, caliph of Bagdat, and second son of Haroun Alraschid, succeeded his elder brother Amin in the year 814. Born at a time when a love



of science began to gain ground among the Saracens, he was carefully educated, and distinguished his reign by an assiduous encouragement of the cultivation of the sciences. For this purpose, he collected from Greece all the works on science in that language, and procured skilful interpreters to translate them into Arabic. Almamon was himself an able astronomer, and made many observations on the obliquity of the ecliptic. He also caused a degree of the meridian to be measured, and revived the sciences in the east, to the production of many learned men in his own time, and long after him. A numerous body of orthodox Mussulmans opposed the learned and philosophical views of their ruler on the ground of innovation and danger to the true faith; but Almamon, as became his character, after exhibiting some disposition to resentment, wisely adopted the just expedient of universal toleration. The conduct of this learned prince was also honourably exempt from the cruelty and ferocity of the eastern despot, magnanimously pardoning a rebellious uncle, and showing great generosity to the depressed house of Ali. In all respects, indeed, he appears to have been a mild, clement, and philosophic character. He died at the age of forty-eight, after a reign of twenty years, by partaking too freely of dates and cold water, on his return from an expedition, which catastrophe the zealots who were offended at his religious liberality called a judgment of providence. This event took place in 833.

ALMANSOR, surnamed the Victorious, was the second caliph of the house of Al Abbas. He was inaugurated in the caliphate in the year 754, but opposed by his uncle Abdallah ebn Ali. Almansor collected an immense army in Persia, Khorasan, and Irak, and gave the command of it to Abu Moslem, who harassed the rebel troops for five months, and at last totally defeated them. Notwithstanding the services which Abu Moslem had rendered to the family of Al Abbas, after this victory he became an object of jealousy, and was assassinated in the presence of Almansor himself, by his express order. After the death of Abu Moslem, the standard of rebellion was raised by Simon, a Magian, who seized on the treasures of the deceased governor of Khorasan, and excited the people of that country to a general revolt; but this insurrection was suddenly quelled by the general of Almansor, Jamhur ebn Morad. The caliph avariciously seized the spoils of this victory, which so incensed Jamhur that he immediately turned his arms against his royal master; but he was soon defeated by the caliph's forces. The patriarch of Antioch was about this time detected in an illicit correspondence with the Grecian emperor, and consequently was banished into an obscure part of Palestine; and in the mean time the Christians in the dominions of the caliph were prohibited from building or repairing any churches, and also were laid under several other severe restraints.

In 762, another plan was formed to dethrone him; but, it being discovered, he severely punished all who were either directly or indirectly concerned in it. He afterwards set out on a pilgrimage to Mecca, and, being seized on the road with a dangerous disease, he sent for his son and intended successor Al Mohdi, and gave him some salutary advice. "I command you," said he, "to treat publicly your relations with the greatest marks of distinction, since this conduct will reflect no small degree of honour and glory

upon yourself. Increase the number of your freedmen, and treat them with all kindness, as they will be of great service to you in your adversity: but neither this nor the other injunction will you fulfil. Enlarge not that part of your capital erected on the eastern bank of the Tigris, as you will never be able to finish it: but this work I know you will attempt. Never permit any of your women to intermeddle in affairs of state, or to have any influence over your councils: but this advice I know you will not take. These are my last commands—or, if you please, my dying advice; and to God I now recommend you." In parting they both gave vent to their feelings in a flood of tears. He did not reach Mecca, but died at Bir-Maimun in the sixty-third year of his age.

ALMEIDA, DON FRANCIS, the name of a celebrated general who served with great distinction in the wars of Ferdinand of Castile with Granada; and in consequence of his important services he was nominated the first governor-general and viceroy of the newly-conquered countries in the East Indies. He set sail from Lisbon early in March 1505, with a powerful fleet, and, to give dignity and influence to his elevated station, a body of guards was appointed to attend his person, several chaplains were assigned to him in addition to every other appendage of state. He touched at the Cape Verde islands, doubled the cape at a considerable distance to the south, and arrived at Guiloa, from which he proceeded to Mombaza, a strongly fortified city in an island, which he reduced, and proceeded to the Angediva islands, not far from Goa, where he built a fort at Cananore, and, arriving at Cochin, he secured it to the Portuguese interest. The island of Madagascar was discovered during his government; and his son Don Lorenzo first surveyed the Maldivé islands, and about the same time discovered the fine island of Ceylon, the principal sovereign of which he brought under submission to the crown of Portugal. Returning from this expedition, while employed in the fleet destined against Calicut, he lost his life in a naval engagement with the Zamorin. His father sustained his loss with an heroic firmness, saying that "Lorenzo could not die better than in the service of his country." On the arrival of Alphonso d'Albuquerque, who was destined to be his successor, Almeida yielded to the impressions of jealousy; and under the pretence of misconduct he confined him in the citadel of Cananore. He engaged in 1508 the whole force of the Mahometans in the port of Dieu; and, gaining a complete victory, facilitated the enterprises of Albuquerque his successor, by contributing to break that formidable league by which the Zamorin was in hopes of being able to compel the Portuguese to abandon their Indian conquests. On his return home, he unfortunately touched at Saldanha Point on the coast of Africa, where some of the sailors in quest of water quarrelled with the natives, who attacked and drove them to their ships. To revenge this outrage they persuaded Almeida to go ashore with 150 men, armed only with swords and lances. The Portuguese were repulsed, and Almeida, with fifty-seven of his men, was killed in this rash and unprovoked attempt.

ALMON, JOHN, a political writer and publisher, who attained considerable celebrity towards the close of the last century. He was born at Liverpool in 1738, and educated at Warrington. In 1748 he was apprenticed to a bookseller at Liverpool, but in 1756 went to sea for some time, and, on his return in



1759, he came to London, where he soon became known as a political writer and pamphleteer, and some time after as a bookseller. Of his literary productions, the most distinguished were—"The Conduct of Lord George Sackville examined," "A Review of the Reign of his late Majesty" (George II.) on his resignation in 1761, "A Review of the Administration of Mr. Pitt," "Anecdotes of the Life of the Earl of Chatham," and "Biographical, Literary, and Political Anecdotes of the most Eminent Persons of the Present Age." As a compiler he was very industrious, and, among other things, published a "Collection of Treaties of Commerce," "A Military Dictionary of Battles and Sieges," "The New Foundling Hospital for Wit," "A Collection of Pieces by Various Authors, in Prose and Verse," &c. &c. His last publication was a collection of the pamphlets and letters of Mr. Wilkes, to whom he had been a constant partisan, and during whose equivocal popularity as a writer and a publisher he was much in vogue. In his edition of Junius he laboured to prove that Mr. Hugh Boyd, an undistinguished young man of letters at that time, was the author of those celebrated epistles, and of course was believed by no one. He retired from business in 1782, but subsequently injured his fortune in a newspaper speculation, and died in depressed circumstances in Hertfordshire in 1805.

**ALOADIN**, prince of the Assassins, or Arsacides, commonly called the Old Man of the Mountains. He was the sheik of a Syrian tribe professing the Mahomedan religion, but blindly devoted to the will of their chief, with whose temporal superiority was also mingled a sort of ecclesiastical character. Uniting, as it were, in his own person the pretensions of prince and prophet, the slightest of his commands was always executed, though at the expense of certain loss of life to the emissary, a circumstance which made this chief a most formidable enemy. Many fabulous stories are related of this prince, and our own Richard, the lion-hearted, is said to have been in his power for some days.

**ALP ARSLAN**.—This extraordinary warrior was the second sultan of the dynasty of Seljuk, in Persia, and great grandson of Seljuk, the founder of the dynasty. He was born in the year 1030, or 421 of the Mahomedan Hegira. In place of Israel, which was his original name, he assumed that of Mahomed when he embraced the Mussulman faith; and, on account of his military prowess, he obtained the surname Alp Arslan, which, in the Turkish language, signifies a valiant lion. Having held the chief command in Khorasan for ten years, as lieutenant of his uncle Togrul Beg, he succeeded him in the year 1063, and, at the commencement of his reign, saw himself sole monarch of Persia, from the river Amu to the Tigris. When he assumed the reins of government, faction and open rebellion prevailed in his dominions, in subduing which he was ably assisted by Nadham al Molk, his vizier, one of the most distinguished characters of his time, whose prudence and integrity in the administration of the affairs of the kingdom proved of essential service both to this prince and to his successor. Peace and security being established in his dominions, he convoked an assembly of the states, and, having declared his son Malek Shah his heir and successor, he seated him on a throne of gold, and exacted an oath of fidelity to him from the principal officers of the em-

pire. With the hope of acquiring immense booty in the rich temple of St. Basil in Casarea, the capital of Cappadocia, he placed himself at the head of the Turkish cavalry, crossed the Euphrates, and entered and plundered that city. He then marched into Armenia and Georgia, which, in the year 1065, he finally conquered. In the former country, the very name of a kingdom and the spirit of a nation were totally extinguished; but the native Georgians, who had retired to the woods and valleys of Mount Caucasus, made a more vigorous resistance. They too however, overpowered by the arms of the sultan and his son Malek, were forced to submission, and reduced to slavery. To punish them for the brave defence which they had made, and as a badge of their humiliating condition, Alp Arslan obliged them to wear, at their ears, horse-shoes of iron. Some, to escape this mark of cruelty and ignominy, professed to embrace the religion of Mahomet.

In the year 1068 Alp Arslan invaded the eastern empire, the seat of which was then at Constantinople. Eudoxia, the reigning empress, saw and dreaded the progress of his arms. To avert the threatened danger, she married Romanus Diogenes, a brave soldier, who was accordingly associated with her in the government, and raised to the imperial dignity. The new emperor, during the exhausted state of their resources, sustained the Roman power with invincible courage. His spirit and success animated his soldiers in the field to act with fortitude and firmness, inspired his subjects with hope, and struck terror into his enemies. In three severe campaigns his arms were victorious; and the Turks were forced to retreat beyond the Euphrates. In the fourth he advanced with an army of 100,000 men into the Armenian territory, for the relief of that country. Here he was met by Alp Arslan, with 40,000 cavalry, or, according to some authors, a much smaller number; and the sultan having proposed terms of peace, which were insultingly rejected by the emperor, a bloody and decisive engagement took place. Alp Arslan, it is said, when he saw that a battle was inevitable, wept at the thought that so many of his faithful followers must fall in the struggle; and, after offering up a devout prayer, granted free permission to all who chose it to retire from the field. Then with his own hand he tied up his horse's tail, exchanged his bow and arrows for a mace and scimitar, and, robing himself in a white garment perfumed with musk, resolved to perish on the spot unless he came off victorious. The skilful movements of the Turkish cavalry soon made an impression on the superior numbers of the Greeks, who were thrown into great disorder, and, after a terrible slaughter, were totally routed. Romanus, deserted by the main body of his army, with unshaken courage kept his station, till he was recognised by a slave, taken prisoner, and conducted into the presence of Alp Arslan. In the Turkish divan the captive emperor was commanded to kiss the ground, as a degrading mark of submission to the power and authority of the sultan, who, it is said, leapt from his throne and put his foot upon his neck. But this is scarcely probable, or consistent with the generous and respectful treatment which he otherwise experienced; for the sultan instantly raised him from the ground, embraced him tenderly, and assured him that his life and dignity should remain inviolable. A ransom of a million, an annual tribute

of 3000 pieces of gold, an intermarriage between the families, and the deliverance of all the captive Mussulmans in the power of the Greeks, were at last agreed to as the terms of peace and the liberty of the emperor. Romanus was now dismissed loaded with presents, and respectfully attended by a military guard. But the distracted state of his dominions, the consequence of a revolt of his subjects, precluded him from fulfilling the terms of the treaty and remitting the stipulated price of his ransom. The sultan seemed disposed to favour and support the declining fortunes of his ally; but the defeat, imprisonment, and death of Romanus interrupted the accomplishment of his generous, or rather ambitious, design.

At this time the dominion of Alp Arslan extended over the fairest part of Asia; 1200 princes, or sons of princes, surrounded his throne; and 200,000 soldiers were ready to execute his commands. He now meditated a greater enterprise, and declared his purpose of attempting the conquest of Turkestan, the original seat of his ancestors. After great preparations for the expedition, he marched with a powerful army, and arrived on the banks of the Oxus. Before he could pass the river with safety, it was necessary to gain possession of some fortresses in its vicinity, one of which was for several days vigorously defended by the governor, Joseph Cothual, a Carizmian. He was, however, obliged to surrender, and was carried a prisoner before the sultan, who, being enraged at his obstinacy and presumption, addressed him in very reproachful terms. Joseph replied with so much spirit that he roused the resentment of Alp Arslan, and was commanded instantly to be fastened by the hands and feet to four stakes, to suffer a painful and cruel death. Joseph, on hearing this sentence, became furious and desperate; and, drawing a dagger which he had concealed in his boots, rushed towards the throne to stab the sultan. The guards raised their battle-axes and moved forward to defend their sovereign; but Alp Arslan, the most expert archer of his age, checking their zeal, forbade them to advance, and drew his bow: his foot slipped, and the arrow missed Joseph, who rushed forward, and, plunging his dagger in the breast of the sultan, was himself instantly cut in pieces. The wound proved mortal, and the sultan expired a few hours after he received it, in the year 1072.

**ALPHONSO I.**, king of Portugal.—This valiant prince was the founder of the Portuguese monarchy. He was the son of Henry of Burgundy, count of Portugal, who died when he was only three years of age; but he did not assume any authority for many years, as his mother governed in his stead. Intestine troubles then prevented his effectually restraining the Moorish generals, who repeatedly invaded the strongholds of his country, and indeed succeeded in obtaining possession of great part of Portugal. The Moorish emperor in Barbary having sent a strong reinforcement to the princes, they were enabled to take the field with an army far superior to that of Alphonso; yet he valiantly met them in the plains of Ourique, and totally defeated their forces. Thus Providence conferred such a signal favour on the Christian arms as procured a residence for Christianity in those parts. The ambitious king of Leon and Castile assumed the title of emperor of the Spaniards, and entered Portugal to waste and destroy; but, after the emperor had received a tem-

porary check, the matter was accommodated, and he withdrew his army. In consequence of the victory obtained on the plains of Ourique, Alphonso was instantly proclaimed king; but the form and constitution of the monarchy were not settled until the nobility, prelates, and commons had assembled at Lamago for that purpose in the year 1145. The conquest of Santarem preceded this event, and was sanctioned by the unanimous concurrence of the states. The honour of crowning the king was conferred upon the archbishop of Braga; and it was legally provided that the crown should descend with an uninterrupted succession to the heirs male of Alphonso. The prelates and nobility, with the concurrence of the people, instituted a code of laws, consisting of eighteen statutes, for the government of the kingdom. It being proposed whether it was their pleasure that the king should go to Leon and do homage to that prince or to any other, every man, drawing his sword, exclaimed, "We are free, and our king is free, and we owe our liberty to our courage; and, if he shall at any time submit to such an act, he deserves death, and shall not either reign over us or among us." The year after his coronation he was married to Matilda, daughter of Amadeus, count of Maurienne and Savoy; and he recovered Lisbon from the hands of the Moors in the year 1147. A multitude of adventurers being assembled at the mouth of the Tagus, in their progress to the Holy Land, greatly assisted him in this conquest. Alphonso afterwards succeeded in adding six additional provinces to his dominions, and his son Don Sancho obtained a very important victory over the king of Morocco, at Santarem. After having formed a good code of laws for the government of his kingdom, he died at Coimbra, in his seventy-sixth year, and his remains were deposited in the church of the Holy Cross.

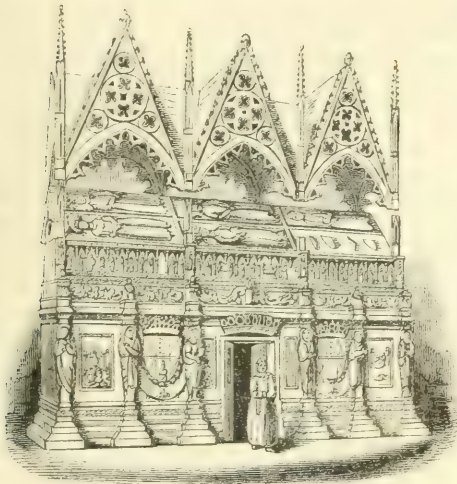
**ALPHONSO II.** of Aragon.—There were several monarchs bearing this name that ruled over Aragon, but this was the most distinguished for his military achievements. His successes against the Moors procured him the name of Alphonso the Victorious, and his chivalrous spirit frequently led him into personal combats with the Moorish chiefs. One of these is so characteristic of the spirit of the fourteenth century, when it occurred, that we give an account of the meeting as it is preserved by an old Spanish chronicler:—

Mulim Abdul, who held a distinguished rank at the court of Grenada, having heard a high character of the beauty of the Princess Joan, who then resided with her brother Alphonso, resolved to visit the city of Zaragoza in disguise. He did so, and, attired as a dervise, presented her with a bouquet so composed as, in the language of flowers, to speak of devotion and hope. On his return to Grenada, he boasted of his successful exploit, which, coming to the knowledge of Alphonso, he declared that the infidel should dearly rue the insult thus offered to a Christian princess. Taking twenty of his bravest knights, he hastened across the Sierra Morena, and, in a few hours, reached the very gates of Grenada. It was the hour of prayer, and the muzeins were proclaiming from the numerous minarets the commencement of a solemn festival, so that even the very guards who should have watched the gates had their faces directed towards Mecca, and, as such, marked not the approach of the infidel Christians. A renegade



that accompanied Alphonso led the way through the spacious streets, and speedily brought them to the principal mosque. Here the king, attaching a declaration of defiance to the point of his javelin, hurled it against the gate, and then, retracing his steps, succeeded with his knights in forcing their way back to the Christian frontier. The Moor accepted the cartel of defiance, and, with a given number of warriors of his own race, met the king in the passes of the Nevada. The result was that the leaders were the only persons who escaped with their lives, and of them the king of Aragon was the only one who recovered of his wounds.

Alphonso, after a long reign, died at Zaragoza, and was buried in the Cathedral del Seu. His tomb is exhibited in the subjoined sketch.



ALPHONSO III., king of Leon and Asturias, called the Great, succeeded his father, Ordogno, in 866. After having subdued by force the powerful nobles of his kingdom, who saw with jealousy the royal dignity remain hereditary in one family, he turned his arms against his foreign enemies, and distinguished his reign by more than thirty campaigns, and numerous victories obtained over the Moors. He crossed the Duero, overthrew the walls of Coimbra, passed the Tajo into Estremadura, added to his dominions a part of Portugal and Old Castile, and peopled Burgos anew. But all these successes did not conciliate his subjects, and he had the grief of seeing his own son, Don Garcia, at the head of the malcontents, endeavouring to tear the crown from his head. Alphonso defeated the rebels, took his son prisoner, and kept him in close confinement at the castle of Gauson. The queen, donna Ximena, then formed a dangerous conspiracy in Garcia's favour, and armed both her other sons against the king. A fierce war desolated the kingdom, until the monarch, defeated by his own son, abdicated the crown, and placed it on don Garcia's head. He afterwards commanded an army, as the general of his son, against the Moors, conquered them, and returned enriched with booty. After this expedition, he died at Zamora in 912.

ALPHONSO X., king of Leon and Castile, surnamed the Wise, succeeded his father Ferdinand

the Holy in 1252. His love of the sciences and of law, which he early exhibited, gave his subjects hopes of a happy reign; but the event did not answer their expectations. Alphonso was neither loved by his family, his subjects, nor his neighbours; but his learning and eloquence had given him so high a reputation in Europe that many German princes favoured his claim to the imperial throne. Instead of employing himself in expelling the Moors, and humbling his own nobility, he exhausted the strength of his kingdom by endeavouring to secure his election to the imperial throne. But it was vain for him to aspire to this dignity in opposition to Rodolph of Hapsburg; and pope Gregory X. not only refused to acknowledge him as emperor, but even to allow his right to Suabia, which he claimed through his mother, Beatrice, daughter of Philip I., archduke of Suabia.

In the mean time his throne was endangered at home by the conspiracies of the nobles and the attacks of the Moors. He finally conquered them, in a bloody battle, in 1263, took from them Xeres, Medina-Sidonia, San-Lucar, and a part of Algarvia, and united Murcia with Castile. But these victories were interrupted by new troubles, excited by his son, the infante Philip, which he succeeded in quieting after a war of three years. But the mildness with which he treated the rebels was considered only a proof of weakness, and, when he at last determined to act with rigour against his own family, his son Sancho again rebelled, and in 1282 deprived him of his crown. Alphonso then sought support in an Alliance with the Moors, and died in 1284 after a series of unsuccessful efforts to regain the throne. Alphonso was the most learned prince of his age, and has gained a lasting celebrity by his collection of laws, called *Las Partidas*. Europe is indebted to this monarch for the astronomical tables which go under his name, and under his patronage the first general history of Spain was composed in the Castilian tongue.

ALPINI, PROSPERO, a celebrated physician and botanist, born in the Venetian territory in 1553. He travelled in Egypt to acquire a knowledge of exotic plants, and has by some been considered as the first who explained the fructification and generation of plants by the sexual system. Upon his return to Venice, in 1586, Andrea Doria appointed him his physician: and he distinguished himself so much in this capacity that he was esteemed the first physician of his age. The leaders of the Venetian government began to be uneasy that a subject of theirs of so great merit as Alpini should continue at Genoa, when he might be of so much service and honour to their state: they therefore recalled him in 1593 to fill the professorship of botany at Padua, and presented him with a salary of 200 florins, which was afterwards raised to 750. He discharged this office with great reputation; but his health became very precarious, having been much broken by the voyages he had made. According to the register of the university of Padua, he died the 5th of February 1617, in the sixty-fourth year of his age; and was buried the day after, without any funeral pomp, in the church of St. Anthony. Alpini wrote several works in Latin, of which the principal were treatises on botany or medicine.

ALREDUS.—This distinguished historian was born at Beverly, in Yorkshire, in the early part of



the reign of Henry I., and is believed to have been educated at Cambridge. He afterwards became one of the canons and treasurer of St. John's at Beverly; and we learn from a note of bishop Tanner's that, for the sake of improvement, he travelled through France and Italy, and at Rome became domestic chaplain to Cardinal Othoboni. He died in the year 1128 or 1129, leaving behind him the following works:—1. "The Annals of Alured of Beverly," published at Oxford in 1716, by Mr. Hearne, from a manuscript which belonged to Thomas Rawlinson. It contains an abridgment of our history from Brutus to Henry I., written in Latin, and with great accuracy, elegance, and perspicuity. 2. "Libertates Ecclesiæ, S. Johannis de Beverlæ."

ALSOP, ANTHONY, an eminent English divine and scholar, who flourished in the early part of the last century. He took the degree of bachelor in divinity at Oxford in 1706, and was subsequently appointed domestic chaplain to Bishop Trelawney, who gave him the living of Brightwell, Berks, with a stall in his cathedral; but a prosecution for a breach of promise of marriage being instituted against him, in 1717, the heavy damages which were awarded forced him to a temporary absence from his country. How long he remained abroad is uncertain, but he returned to England some time previous to his death, which took place in 1726.

His principal work was a selection from Æsop, entitled, "Fabularum Æsopicarum Delectus," published in 1698. The preface to this book, in which the author espouses the part of Boyle in his controversy with Bentley, made a great sensation at the time, though it is now little known. A quarto volume of his Latin odes, edited by Sir F. Bernard, appeared in 1752; and several of his English poems are to be found in the collections of Dodsley and Pearch.

ALSOP, RICHARD, an author of considerable celebrity in the United States of America, who was born in Middleton, Connecticut. He published a number of fugitive pieces in verse and prose, which had considerable success, besides several translations from the Italian and French. The principal one is the *Natural and Civil History of Chili*, from the Italian of Molina. In 1815 he prepared the "Narrative of the Captivity and Adventures of J. R. Jewett among the Savages of Nootka Sound." He died August 20th 1815, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

ALSOP, VINCENT, an eminent divine, who was educated in St. John's College in Cambridge, where he took the degree of Master of Arts. He received deacon's orders, after which he went down into Rutlandshire, and settled at Oakham, where he was an assistant to the master of a free-school. He then settled at Wilby in the county of Northampton, whence he was ejected in 1662 for nonconformity. After this he ventured to preach sometimes at Oakham, and at Wellingborough where he lived, and was once six months in prison for praying by a sick person. A book he wrote against Dr. Sherlock in a humorous style made him well known to the world, and induced Mr. Cawton, an eminent nonconformist in Westminster, to recommend him to his congregation for his successor. On receiving this call he quitted Northamptonshire and came to London, where he preached constantly, and wrote several works which were extremely well received by the public. His living in the neighbourhood of the

court exposed him to many inconveniences; but these ended with the reign of Charles II., or at least in the beginning of the next reign, when Mr. Alsop's son engaging in treasonable practices was freely pardoned by King James. After this he went frequently to court, and is generally supposed to have been the person who drew up the Presbyterian's address to that prince for his general indulgence. After the Revolution, Mr. Alsop gave very public testimonies of his affection for the government; yet upon all occasions he spoke very respectfully of King James, and retained a very high sense of his clemency in sparing his only son. The remainder of his life was spent in the exercise of his ministry, and he attained a very great age.

ALSTON, CHARLES, a respectable Scottish physician and botanist, born in 1683. In conjunction with Dr. Alexander Munro, Dr. Alston projected the revival of medical lectures and studies in Edinburgh. For this purpose they associated themselves with Drs. Rutherford, Sinclair, and Plummer, and laid the foundation of that high character which Edinburgh, as a medical school, has so long enjoyed. Dr. Alston's department was botany and the *materia medica*, which he continued to teach until his death in 1760, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. He published several botanical works, the principal of which is entitled, "*Tirocinium Botanicum Edinburgense*," 1753, in which he attempted to overthrow the system of Linnæus. He has also some papers in the *Edinburgh Medical Essays*, and his "*Lectures on the Materia Medica*," were published after his death.

ALVA, FREDERICK ALVAREZ, of Toledo, a celebrated statesman and general, who was born in 1508 of one of the most illustrious families of Spain. He was celebrated at a very early age for his great military talents, which were in after life disfigured by the most remorseless cruelty and rapine.

His able generalship gained, in 1547, the battle of Muhlberg, against John Frederic of Saxony, when the elector was taken prisoner, and the duke, who presided in the council of war, adjudged him to death, and strongly urged the emperor to execute the sentence. In 1555 he was commissioned to attack the French in Italy, and pope Paul IV., the irreconcilable enemy of the emperor. He gained several victories, relieved Milan, advanced to Naples, where the intrigues of the pope had stirred up a rebellion, and confirmed there the Spanish influence. When Charles V. resigned the government to his son, Philip II., Alva received the supreme command of the army. He conquered the States of the Church, and frustrated the efforts of the French. Philip, however, compelled him to contract an honourable peace with the pope, whom Alva much wished to humble. Recalled from Italy, he appeared in 1559, at the French court, in order to marry Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry II., by proxy, for his sovereign; she was at first destined for the crown-prince, don Carlos. About this time the Netherlands revolted, and Alva strongly advised the king to suppress the insurrection by severity and force. The king entrusted him with a considerable army and unlimited power, to reduce the rebellious provinces. Scarcely had he reached Flanders when he established a general council, at the head of which stood his confidant, Juan de Vargas. This tribunal condemned without discrimination all whose opinions were suspected, and whose riches excited their avarice. The present and absent, the



living and the dead, were subjected to trial, and their property confiscated. Many of the principal merchants and mechanics emigrated to this country; more than 100,000 men abandoned their homes; others resorted to the standard of the proscribed prince of Orange. The cruelty of Alva was increased by the defeat of his lieutenant, the duke of Aremberg, and he caused the counts of Egmont and Horn to be executed upon the scaffold. Soon after, the prince of Orange advanced with a powerful army, and the young Frederic of Toledo sent to his father, asking permission to attack the prince. The duke, who demanded blind obedience from his inferiors, answered that he pardoned him on account of his inexperience, but bade him beware of pressing him further, for it would cost the life of any one who should venture on a similar message. The prince of Orange was forced to withdraw to Germany; and the duke stained his reputation as a general by new cruelties, for it was justly observed that his executioners shed more blood than his soldiers. On account of his success the pope presented him with a consecrated hat and sword—a distinction previously conferred only on princes. Holland and Zealand, however, resisted his arms, and a fleet which was fitted out at his command was entirely destroyed. This circumstance, and perhaps the fear of losing the favour of the king, induced him to request his recall. Philip willingly granted it, as he perceived that the resistance of the Netherlands was rendered more obstinate by the cruelties of Alva, and was desirous of trying milder measures. In December, 1573, Alva proclaimed an amnesty, resigned the command of the troops to Louis de Requesens, and left the land in which he had according to his own account executed 18,000 men, and kindled a war which burned for sixty-eight years, cost Spain 200,000,000*l.* sterling, its finest troops, and seven of its richest provinces in the Low Countries.

Duke Alva was received with distinction in Madrid, but did not long enjoy his former credit. One of his sons had seduced one of the queen's ladies of honour, under a promise of marriage, and was, for that reason, arrested; his father assisted him to escape, and married him to one of his relations, contrary to the will of the king. The duke was on this account banished from the court to his castle at Uzeda, where he lived two years, when the troubles stirred up by don Antonio, prior of Crato, who had been crowned king of Portugal, forced Philip to have recourse to Alva, as one in whose talents and fidelity he placed great reliance. Alva led an army to Portugal, gained two battles in three weeks, drove out don Antonio, and reduced all Portugal, in 1581, to subjection to his sovereign. He made himself master of the treasures of the capital, and permitted his soldiers to plunder the suburbs and surrounding country, with their usual rapacity and cruelty. Philip was displeased at this, and desirous of instituting an investigation into the conduct of his general, who was, moreover, charged with having applied the wealth of the conquered to his own purposes; but a haughty answer from the duke, and the fear of rebellion, caused him to desist. The duke died on the 21st of January, 1582, aged seventy-four years. Alva possessed a proud mien, a noble aspect, and a strong frame; he slept little, but laboured and wrote much. It is said of him that, during sixty years of warfare against different enemies, he never lost a

battle, and was never taken by surprise: but pride, severity, and cruelty tarnished and destroyed his reputation.

ALVARES DEL LUNA, the name of a celebrated minister of John second king of Castile. He was born in 1388, and was the natural son of Don Alvares de Luna lord of Canete in Aragon. Alvares was introduced to court in 1408, and made a gentleman of the bed-chamber to King John, in whose service he acquired the most distinguished favour. In 1427 the hostility of the courtiers compelled him to retire from court: they complained that a man of no military skill, and without any virtue to recommend him, should by mere artifice and dissimulation be advanced to the highest honours; and by the assistance of a few upstart men, whom he had raised and attached to his interest, should rule as absolutely as if he were king. Their efforts against him proving successful, Alvares was banished from court. His banishment was a source of vexation to the king. He was therefore recalled, and, being invested with his former authority, he revenged himself severely upon his enemies. He spent forty-five years at court, and during thirty of them maintained such an ascendancy over the king that nothing could be done without his concurrence: nay, it is related by Mariana that the king could not change an officer or servant, or even his clothes or diet, without the approbation of Alvares. In short he wanted nothing to complete his grandeur but the name of king: he had all the places in the kingdom at his disposal; he was master of the treasury, and had so far gained the affections of the subjects by his profusion that the king, though his eyes were now opened, and his favour withdrawn, was afraid to complain. A day of retribution however was at hand; the popular favour, as well as the affections of the monarch, declined, and Alvares was thrown into prison. Being brought to trial and condemned, he was removed to Valladolid, and there beheaded in the market-place.

AMBERGER, CHRISTOPHER, a German painter of the sixteenth century, born in Nuremberg. He resided in Augsburg, where he painted, in 1530, a portrait of the emperor Charles V., who rewarded him richly, and honoured him highly. This painting is now at Berlin. The *History of Joseph*, in a series of twelve pictures, is said by Sandrart to be his best work. He painted in the powerful style of the elder Holbein, who was living in his time; he copied also many portraits of this master, and engraved some of them in wood. Amberger died between 1550 and 1560.

AMBROSE, SAINT, a celebrated father of the church, who was born in 340 at Treves, where his parent resided as governor of Gaul. According to the monkish historians of the period, happy omens attended him even in the cradle. A swarm of bees is said to have covered the eyes of the boy, while slumbering in the court of his father's castle, and, when the nurse hastened to him, she was astonished to perceive the bees passing in and out of his mouth, without doing him any injury. His father, recollecting perhaps a similar wonder mentioned of Plato, argued from this circumstance that he was destined for greatness. His education was suitable to his rank; the best teachers at Rome, where the family proceeded after the death of his father, formed his mind and his heart. After finishing their studies, Ambrose and his brother Satyrus went to Milan,



where they commenced the study of the law. Here he distinguished himself so much that the Emperor Valentinian appointed him governor of the provinces between the Alps, the Mediterranean, Tuscany, the Adige, and the Adriatic Sea. His kindness and wisdom gained him the esteem and love of the people; but their prosperity was interrupted by the disturbances growing out of the doctrines of Arius, and he was called to the bishopric of Milan by the unanimous voices of Arians and Catholics. Ambrose long refused to accept this dignity, but in vain. He fled by night, and thought himself on the way to Pavia, but unexpectedly found himself again before the gates of Milan. At length he yielded, received baptism, for he had hitherto been only a catechumen, and, eight days after, was consecrated a priest.

One of the most striking instances of the firmness of this ecclesiastic was displayed during the insurrection of the citizens of Thessalonica. While the emperor Theodosius remained in Italy, after the defeat of Maximus, an insurrection took place among the inhabitants, in which they killed the lieutenant-general of Illyricum. Theodosius, being informed of this, ordered the inhabitants to be killed indiscriminately, without regard either to age or sex. They "were cut down like the corn in the harvest," as Theodoret states, to the number of 7000. At this time an assembly of bishops was held at Milan, who all expressed an abhorrence of such cruelty in the emperor. Ambrose wrote a letter to him, in which he represented the enormity of his crime, and exhorted him to make satisfaction by a sincere submission and repentance.

Theodosius, upon his arrival at Milan, was going to perform his devotions in the great church, when Ambrose met him at the door, and is said to have denied him entrance in these terms: "You do not, I believe, consider, O emperor, the guilt of the massacre which you have committed; and, though the violence of your passion be now over, yet your reason has not suggested to you the full extent of your crime. Perhaps your imperial dignity may prevent you from perceiving it, and cast a cloud over your understanding; however, you ought to reflect upon the constitution of human nature, which is very weak and obnoxious to mortality, and that we are derived from dust, and must necessarily be resolved into dust again. Be not deceived so far with the splendour of the purple which invests you as not to consider the infirmity of the body which it covers. They are men of the same nature with yourself, nay, they are your fellow-servants, whom you govern; for there is one Lord and Sovereign of all, he who created the universe. With what eyes will you, therefore, view the temple of our common Sovereign, and with what feet will you tread the sacred floor? How can you stretch out those hands which have been defiled with so much innocent blood? How can you receive the holy body of our Lord in such polluted hands, or touch with your mouth his precious blood, when you have commanded in your passion the blood of so many persons to be unjustly shed? Depart, therefore, and do not aggravate your former guilt by new provocations: receive the bond which God himself, the Lord of all nature, approves and recommends, for it has a salutary power in it." The emperor, struck with these words, returned to his palace in great uneasiness of mind; and expressed his regret that, whilst the church was open to the lowest orders of men, it should be shut to him.

About a year afterwards, however, he was admitted into the church by Ambrose; but not till after he had made atonement for his cruelty, and given marks of a sincere repentance.

Ambrose died in 397, and all agree in the excellence of his conduct both as a prelate and a Christian. In his external deportment he was affable, mild, and modest, and he invariably employed his authority to promote the good of the church. The best edition of his works was published by the Benedictines, in 1686.

AMERICUS VESPUCIUS.—This distinguished navigator was born in March, 1451, at Florence, of an ancient family. He early made great progress in natural philosophy, astronomy, and geography, at that time the three principal branches of science studied at Florence, on account of their importance in relation to commerce. In 1490 he went to Spain for the purpose of trading, and was at Seville when Columbus was making preparations for his second voyage. The success of Columbus's undertaking induced Vespucius to abandon commerce, and explore these newly-discovered countries. According to his own account, in one of his letters, he entered on his first voyage, under the command of Admiral Ojeda, May 20th, 1497, who left the harbour of Cadiz with four ships; and, after a voyage of thirty-seven days, reached the main land of America, explored the bay of Paria, and the coast for several hundred miles, and after eighteen months returned to Spain, and was received with distinction by the court at Seville. In May, 1499, he began his second voyage, the fruit of which was the discovery of a multitude of small islands. After this he entered the service of King Emanuel of Portugal, and made two voyages in Portuguese ships, the first in May 1501, the second in May 1503. The object of this last voyage was to find a westerly passage to Malacca. Americus arrived at Brazil, and discovered the bay of All Saints. In 1505 he again entered the service of the king of Spain, but made no more voyages, as appears from memoranda, showing that he was at Seville till 1508, at which time he was appointed principal pilot. His duties were to prepare charts, and prescribe routes for vessels in their voyages to the new world, which soon received his name. This honour certainly belonged to Columbus rather than to Americus, for the prior discovery of the continent by the former is not to be questioned. We have a chart of America laid down by Americus; a journal of four of his voyages, printed at Paris, 1532, in the Latin language, and "Amerigo's Letters," which appeared at Florence after his death, published by John Stephen di Carlo da Pavia. Vespucius died at Seville, in 1512. Emanuel, king of Portugal, caused the remains of the ship *Victoria*, in which he had made his last voyage to America, to be hung up in the cathedral at Lisbon, and Florence conferred marks of distinction on his family.

AMES, FISHER, one of the most eloquent of American statesmen and writers. He was born at Dedham, in Massachusetts, on the 9th of April, 1758, of very respectable parents. Soon after the completion of his twelfth year, he was admitted to Harvard College, with the reputation of uncommon talents and attainments. Diligence, regularity, and success marked his collegiate course of four years. After receiving his degree, in 1774, the narrow circumstances of his widowed mother compelled him to postpone, for several years, the accomplishment of his original purpose of studying the law. In the in-



terval he acted as an assistant teacher in a public school, and continued to cultivate classical literature, to the marked improvement of his mind. At length, in 1781, he commenced the practice of the law, with the stock of knowledge which he had acquired in the office of a member of the profession, in Boston; and an opportunity soon occurred for the display of his superior qualifications, both as a speaker and an essay writer.

The fame which followed his early efforts conduced to place him in the Massachusetts convention for ratifying the constitution, in 1788. From this sphere, in which he made a deep impression by some of his speeches, particularly that on biennial elections, he passed to the house of representatives in the state legislature. Here he soon became so eminent as an orator and man of business that the voters of the Suffolk district elected him their first representative in the congress of the United States. He had not been long in that assembly before his friends and admirers were satisfied that they had not overrated his abilities. He won there the palm of eloquence, besides proving himself equal to the discussion of the deepest subjects of politics and finance, and the execution of the most arduous committee labours. He remained in congress during eight years, the whole of Washington's administration, which he constantly and zealously defended. "His speech on the British Treaty is considered the era of his political life. For many months he had been sinking under weakness, and, though he had attended the long and interesting debate on the question which involved the constitution and the peace of the North American States, it was feared he would be unable to speak. But, when the time came for taking a vote so big with consequences, his emotions would not suffer him to be silent. His appearance, his situation, the magnitude of his subject, the force and the pathos of his eloquence, gave this speech an extraordinary power over the feelings of the dignified and numerous assembly who heard it. When he had finished, a member in opposition moved to postpone the decision of the question, that they might not vote under the influence of a sensibility which their calm judgment might condemn."

On the retirement of Washington, Mr. Ames returned to his residence at Dedham, where he occupied himself with the management of his farm and the practice of the law. The latter he relinquished in a few years, owing to the decline of his health; but he felt too deep an interest in the welfare of his country to withdraw his mind and pen from politics. He published a considerable number of essays, relating chiefly to the contest between Great Britain and revolutionary France, as it might affect American liberty and prosperity. No writer evinced more ardour for the success of Britain, or more horror of the character and tendencies of the French despotism. In 1804 Mr. Ames was chosen president of Harvard College, an honour which he declined. When Washington died, Mr. Ames, then a member of the council of the commonwealth, was appointed to pronounce his funeral eulogy before the legislature of Massachusetts. Mr. Ames continued to exert himself actively in the service of his country till the time of his death, which occurred July 4th, 1808.

AMES, JOSEPH, a typographical writer of some celebrity, who was born at Yarmouth, in the county of Norfolk, on the 23d of January 1688. He dis-

played at a very early age a taste for English history and antiquities. In this predilection he was encouraged by his friends, and, after many years spent in the collection of his materials and arranging them, he published his well-known work entitled "Typographical Antiquities," being an historical account of printing in England, with memoirs of our ancient printers, and a register of the books printed by them, from the years 1471 to 1600, with an appendix concerning printing in Scotland and Ireland to the same time. He dedicated this work to Philip Lord Hardwicke, lord high chancellor of England.



In 1741 Mr. Ames was appointed secretary to the Society of Antiquaries, and this enabled him to pursue his favourite studies with renewed advantages, which were further increased by his election into the Royal Society. Besides his great work, which we have already noticed, Mr. Ames printed a catalogue of English printers from 1471 to 1700, "An Index to Lord Pembroke's Coins," "A Catalogue of English Heads," or an account of about 2000 prints, describing what is peculiar on each, as the name, or title of the person, age, or time when done, the name of the painter or engraver, and also any remarkable events in the life of the individual represented. This work may be considered as an index to ten volumes of English Portraits which had been collected by Mr. John Nicholls. The last of Mr. Ames's literary labours was the drawing up of the Parentalia, or memoirs of the family of Wren. This work was published in one volume folio, and the papers of Mr. Wren furnished the materials for the work.

The character of Mr. Ames, who departed this life on the 7th of October 1759, was remarkable for exemplary integrity and benevolence in social life; and even his personal enemy, Mr. Cole, says that he was a "friendly good-tempered man, a person of vast application and industry in collecting old printed books, prints, and other curiosities, both natural and artificial." But, on the other hand, it must be confessed that his style of writing was any thing but elegant, as his preface to the "Typographical Antiquities" commences in the form of a preamble to an act of parliament.

AMHERST, JEFFERY, LORD, a distinguished British general officer, who was descended from an ancient Kentish family, and born in 1717. He early



devoted himself to the profession of arms, receiving an ensign's commission when only fourteen years of age. At the age of twenty-five he acted as aid-de-camp to lord Ligonier, in the battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy, and afterwards served on the staff of the duke of Cumberland at those of Laffield and Hastenbeck. In 1756 he received the colonelcy of a regiment, and was appointed major-general, and in the summer of 1758 commanded the expedition against Louisburg, which, together with the whole island of Cape Breton, surrendered to his arms. The capture of fort du Quesne, Niagara, and Ticonderoga in due time followed; and in 1760, the whole of Canada being reduced, general Amherst received, for his share in these exploits, the thanks of the House of Commons, and the order of the Bath.

In 1763 he was made governor of Virginia, in 1770 governor of the isle of Jersey, and in 1772 lieutenant-general of the ordnance and officiating commander-in-chief of the English forces. Besides these, and several other military honours, he was in 1776 created a peer by the title of Baron Amherst of Holmesdale, in the county of Kent.

On the breaking up of Lord North's administration, Lord Amherst was removed from the commandership-in-chief and the lieutenancy of the ordnance, and in 1787 received another patent of peerage as Baron Amherst of Montreal, with remainder to his nephew, William Pitt Amherst; and on the staff being re-appointed, in 1793, he was once more called upon to act as commander-in-chief. In 1795 he resigned the commandership-in-chief to the duke of York, and shortly after received the rank of field-marshal. He died in 1797, in the eighty-first year of his age. Lord Amherst was twice married, but left no issue. He was regarded as a man of a collected and temperate mind, without brilliancy or parade, a strict officer, yet the soldier's friend. He had two brothers, one an admiral of the blue, the other a lieutenant-general: the son of the latter succeeded to his title and estate.

AMHURST, NICHOLAS, a satirical writer, born at Marden in Kent in 1701. He wrote a work entitled *Terræ Filius*, in which he attacked the university of Oxford, from which he had been expelled for improper conduct. He was originally brought up at Merchant Taylor's school, of which seminary his grandfather was head master, and proceeded in due course to St. John's College, on a scholarship belonging to that foundation. In after life he became celebrated as a political writer, and published, with the assistance of Pulteney and Lord Bolingbroke, the work by which he is most known, entitled the "*Craftsman*." He was neglected by his courtly patrons in his latter days, and died in 1742.

AMLOT, FATHER, a French Jesuit, who was born in 1718, at Toulon. He went out as a missionary to Pekin, and has contributed much to our knowledge of China. We owe to him a most elaborate account of the antiquities, the history, the language, and the arts of that kingdom. In 1750 he went to Macao, and in the following year, by the invitation of the emperor of China, to Pekin, where he remained till his death in 1794. Uninterrupted study gave him a knowledge of the Chinese and Tartar languages, by means of which he became acquainted with China through the best sources. Most of his valuable works, which treat of the writing, the art of war, the music, &c., of the Chinese, together with a bio-

graphy of Confucius, and a grammar, &c., of the Mantcheou-Tartar language, are to be found in "*Memoires concernant l'Histoire, les Sciences, et les Arts des Chinois*." He died at Pekin in 1794.

AMMIANUS, MARCELLINUS, a Roman historian, born at Antioch, in Syria, in the fourth century after Christ. His work, in thirty-one books (of which only twenty-four are extant), included the history of the Cæsars, from Nerva to Valens. It may be considered a continuation of Tacitus and Suetonius, and is very interesting and instructive. There is an old and good edition by Gronovius, published at Leyden in 1693, a later one by Ernesti, and the latest by Wagner, published at Erfurt and Leipsic in 1808, three volumes.

AMMIRATO, SCIPIO, a distinguished Italian historian, born at Lecce, in Naples, in 1531. After having travelled through Italy, he was employed by the grand duke of Tuscany to write the history of Florence, for which he was presented to a canonry in the cathedral of that city. He died in 1601.

AMORETTI, ABBATE CARLO, a learned mineralogist, who was born at Oneglia, on the 13th of March, 1741. Till 1772 he was professor of canon laws at Parma; and, being well versed in modern languages, he endeavoured to make known to his countrymen the progress of other nations in the arts and sciences. Between 1775 and 1788 he published at Milan in twenty-seven volumes 4to., with engravings, "*Nuova scelta d'Opuscoli Interessanti sulle Scienze e sulle Arti*," in connection with several friends. His knowledge of the art of mining obtained him a seat, in 1808, in the council of mines. He first encouraged a careful examination of the treasures of the Ambrosian library, in which Maio has since exerted himself so successfully. By his means the following works were printed:—The first voyage round the world of Pigafetta of Vicenza, from 1519—1522, and a treatise on navigation, by the same author; also, the north-eastern voyage through the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans, by Captain Maldonado; and, in 1804, Leonardo da Vinci's "*Trattato della Pittura*," with plates; also a biography of this celebrated painter in 1806. Amoretti died in 1816 at his residence in the city of Milan.

AMORY, THOMAS, a dissenting minister of some celebrity, who was born at Taunton in 1701, and became distinguished by his great eloquence and practical ability. He died at the advanced age of seventy-four. He published several volumes of sermons, besides other works of minor importance.

AMORY, THOMAS, an Irish writer of considerable celebrity, who was born in the county of Clare. It is not known how the early youth of Mr. Amory was spent; but he is believed to have studied medicine for the purpose of becoming a physician. This design, however, if true, was never carried into effect. In 1755 he published a very remarkable work, entitled "*Memoirs, containing the Lives of several Ladies of Great Britain; a History of Antiquities, Productions of Nature, and Monuments of Art; Observations on the Christian Religion, as professed by the Established Church and Dissenters of every Denomination; Remarks on the writings of the greatest English Divines, and a Review of the Works of the Writers called Infidels, from Lord Herbert of Cherbury to the late Lord Viscount Bolingbroke; with a variety of Disquisitions and Opinions relative to Criticism and Manners; and*



many Extraordinary Actions: in several Letters," 8vo. The ladies celebrated in this extraordinary production are presumed to be the creatures of the author's fancy, being all not only beautiful, learned, ingenious, and religious, but strictly of his own persuasion. A second volume was promised, with an account of Dean Swift and Mrs. Grierson, but it never appeared, although from a sort of originality and raciness in the composition and opinions of the first, as well as for the matter pledged, the public would have received it with satisfaction. In 1756 he published the first volume of the life of John Bunce, and in 1766 the second. This work, in which it is thought that the author intended to sketch his own picture, is in some sort a continuation of the "Memoirs." Mr. Amory was also author of a letter to the Monthly Reviewers on the merits of their critique on his "Memoirs," as also of various religious tracts, poems, and songs. From the eccentricity displayed in his writings, a conclusion has been insinuated of his mental derangement; but the truth of the matter seems to be that, while he excluded himself from much actual intercourse, he was very busy in an ideal world of his own. Mr. Amory died in 1789, at the advanced age of ninety-seven.

ANACREON.—But little is known of the life of this celebrated Greek poet. It appears that he was born at Teos, a city on the coast of Ionia, in Lesser Asia, and he enjoyed in a very eminent degree the favour of Polycrates, king of Samos. He remained in that city till the murder of his patron, when he returned to his native country. He died at the advanced age of eighty-five, having been choked by the stone of a grape which had accidentally found its way into a bowl of wine, thus forming a very characteristic death for one whose whole life had been a continued scene of intemperance and sensuality. Many of the poems of Anacreon have escaped the ravages of time. They are for the most part in praise of wine, and of the sensual appetites which have been so often and so improperly dignified by the name of *love*. If we are to decide from the internal evidence contained in his writings, we must at once conclude that he was an amusing profligate; but yet, as some acquaintance with his style is essential to a knowledge of the man, we may select one specimen from his odes, which is justly considered as his masterpiece. It is his fourth ode, translated, or rather imitated, by Cowley:—

"Underneath the myrtle shade  
On flowery beds supinely laid,  
Odorous oils my head o'erflowing,  
And around it roses growing,  
What shall I do but drink away  
The heat and troubles of the day?  
In this more than kingly state,  
Love himself shall on me wait,  
Fill to me, Love! Nay, fill it up!  
And, mingled, cast into the cup  
Wit, and mirth, and noble fire,  
Vigorous health and gay desires,  
The wheel of life no less doth stay  
On a smooth than rugged way;  
Since it equally doth liee,  
Let the motion pleasant be."

Moore has also translated Anacreon, and indeed seems, in many respects, to have identified himself with the Greek poet. One brief extract from the same ode will show the style of his work:—

"Strew me a breathing bed of leaves,  
Where lotus with the myrtle weaves;  
And, while in luxury's dream I sink,  
Let me the balm of Bacchus drink!"

In this delicious hour of joy,  
Young Love shall be my goblet-boy;  
Folding his little golden vest,  
With cinctures, round his snowy breast,  
Himself shall hover by my side,  
And minister the racy tide."

Of the editions in the original Greek the most celebrated is the quarto, printed at Rome in 1781.

ANASTASIUS I., emperor of the east, who succeeded Zeno, A. D. 491. He distinguished himself by his moderation towards different Christian sects, whose quarrels at that time disturbed the peace and safety of the Byzantine empire. Moreover, he repealed a very heavy tax, called *chrysargyrum*, and prohibited the fighting with wild beasts. He died A. D. 518, after a reign of twenty-seven years.

ANASTASIUS II. was another emperor of the east, dethroned by Theodosius, in 719, and afterwards put to death.

ANASTASIUS, BIBLIOTHECARIUS, was an Italian abbot, keeper of the Vatican library, and one of the most learned men in the ninth century. He assisted in 829 at the fourth general council, the acts and canons of which he translated from the Greek into Latin. He also composed the lives of several popes, and other works, the best edition of which is that of the Vatican, four vols. folio, published in 1718.

ANAXAGORAS, one of the most celebrated of the Ionic philosophers, born at Clazomene, in Ionia, in the first year of the 70th Olympiad, or 500 B.C. He devoted himself to the study of philosophy, under Anaximenes of Miletus, or, according to some, under Hermotimus, his countryman. At the age of twenty years he set out on his travels, visited Egypt and all the countries where the sciences were cultivated, and finally settled at Athens. There he formed an intimacy with Pericles, and numbered among his disciples the most respectable citizens. A profound study of the natural sciences enabled him to illustrate the eclipses of the sun and moon, earthquakes, and similar phenomena; but, by the intrigues of his enemies, he became suspected of blasphemy, and, in consequence of this accusation, was obliged to leave Athens. He afterwards went to Lampsacus, where he died in his seventy-second year.

The main principle of Anaxagoras was, "from nothing comes nothing." He adopted therefore the idea of a chaos, and, as the primary element of all bodies, a species of atoms, of the same nature as the bodies which they formed. These atoms, in themselves motionless, were in the beginning put in motion by another equally eternal, immaterial, spiritual, elementary being, which he called Intelligence. By this motion, and by the separation of the dissimilar particles and the combination of those of the same nature, the world was formed, the earthy bodies sunk down, whilst the ether or fire rose and spread in the upper regions. The stars however were, according to him, of earthy materials, and the sun a glowing mass of stone, about as large as the Peloponnesus. The milky way he thought to be, like the rainbow, the reflection of light. The earth was, according to him, flat; the moon a dark inhabitable body receiving its light from the sun; the comets wandering stars. He contended that the existence of things perceived by our senses could not be demonstrably proved, and considered reason as the source of truth. On account of this principle, many have regarded him as the first theist among the philosophers.



ANAXIMANDER, son of Praxiades, a disciple of Thales, who was born at Miletus 610 B.C. His chief study was mathematics. He discovered, or taught, at least, the inclination of the ecliptic, and determined the solstices and equinoxes, by means of a dial. He was also the first who attempted to sketch the outlines of lands and seas on a globe, and made a celestial globe for the explanation of his system of the universe. Yet his statements are not to be entirely relied upon, as his ideas respecting the first principle of things are so obscurely stated that they cannot well be ascertained. His system seems to have been that infinity is the origin of all existence, from which all emanates, and to which every thing returns. He has not, however, defined the nature of this eternal, incorruptible, original matter, the parts of which are variable, the whole unchangeable. The number of worlds is, according to him, infinite. The firmament is composed of heat and cold, the stars of air and fire. The sun occupies the highest place in the heavens, has a circumference twenty-eight times larger than the earth, and resembles a cylinder, from which streams of fire issue. When its opening is obstructed it appears eclipsed. The moon is, according to him, likewise a cylinder, nineteen times larger than the earth; its inclination produces the phases, its entire revolution the eclipses. Thunder and lightning are productions of the wind compressed within the clouds. The earth has the shape of a cylinder, and is placed in the midst of the universe, where it remains suspended. He died in the sixty-fourth year of his age.

ANCILLON, JEAN PIERRE FREDERIC, was born at Berlin, on the 30th of April, 1766. He was early distinguished for his love of learning, and became well known by his writings, particularly by his "*Tableau des Révolutions du Système Politique de l'Europe, depuis le Quinzième Siècle*," in four volumes. He has published several political essays, all of which display attachment to the modern doctrine of legitimacy, yet with a slight tincture of liberalism.

There was another writer of some celebrity bearing the name of Ancillon. He was a Protestant minister, who fled from France after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and died at Berlin, in 1692, seventy-five years old. He was an author of considerable merit, as was also his son Charles, who was historiographer to the king of Prussia, and died at Berlin in 1715.

ANDERSON, ADAM, a native of Scotland, was brother to the Rev. James Anderson, D. D., editor of the "*Diplomata Scotiæ*" and "*Royal Genealogies*." He was for many years a clerk in the South Sea House, and was afterwards appointed chief clerk of the Stock and New Annuities, which office he retained till his death. He was appointed one of the trustees for establishing the colony of Georgia in America, by charter dated Geo. II. He was also one of the court of assistants of the Scots corporation in London. The time of the publication of his "*Historical and Chronological Deduction of Trade and Commerce*," a work replete with useful information, was about the year 1762. Mr. Anderson died at his house in Red Lion Street, Clerkenwell, Jan. 10, 1775.

ANDERSON, SIR EDMUND, an eminent lawyer at the close of the sixteenth century. He received the first part of his education in the country, and went afterwards to Lincoln College in Oxford, from

which he removed to the Inner Temple, where he was in due time called to the bar; and, in the nineteenth year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, he was appointed one of the queen's serjeants at law. Some time after he was made a judge; and, in 1581, being upon the Norfolk circuit at Bury, he exerted himself against the celebrated Browne, the author of those opinions which were afterwards maintained by a sect called, from him, Brownists. For this conduct of Judge Anderson the bishop of Norwich wrote a letter to Treasurer Burleigh, desiring the said judge might receive the queen's thanks. In 1582 he was made lord chief justice of the common pleas, and the year following received the honour of knighthood. In 1586 he was appointed one of the commissioners for trying Mary queen of Scots: on the 12th of October, the same year, he sat in judgment upon her, and, on the 25th of the same month, he sat again in the star chamber, when sentence was pronounced against this unhappy queen. In 1587 he sat in the star chamber on Secretary Davison, who was charged with issuing the warrant for the execution of Mary queen of Scots, contrary to Queen Elizabeth's command, and without her knowledge: after the cause had been heard, Sir Roger Manwood, chief baron of the exchequer, extolled the queen's clemency, which he the said Davison had prevented, and therefore he recommended that he should be fined 10,000*l.* and imprisoned during the queen's pleasure. Chief Justice Anderson, however, said that Davison had done *justum, non justè*; that is, he had done what was right, but not in a right manner. Sir Edmund Anderson died on the 1st of August, 1605.

ANDERSON, JAMES, a Scottish antiquary, born at Edinburgh in 1662, where he was educated. His first work, an "*Essay proving the Independence of the Crown of Scotland*," published in 1705, gained him great credit, and procured him the thanks of the Scottish parliament, under whose auspices he subsequently produced a series of the "*Charters and Seals of the Scottish Monarchs from the Earliest Antiquity down to the Union with England in 1707*." In 1727 came out his "*Collections relating to the History of Mary Queen of Scotland*," in four quarto volumes, a work which throws great light on the occurrences of the period of which it treats. But the book which gained him the greatest reputation, "*Selectus Diplomatum et Numismatum Scotiæ Thesaurus*," did not appear till twenty-one years after his death, which took place in 1728 by an apoplectic stroke. The celebrated grammarian Ruddiman wrote a preface to this work, which is beautifully illustrated by Sturt's engravings.

ANDERSON, JAMES, an eminent writer on agriculture, who was born at Hermiston near Edinburgh in 1739. He was brought up to farming, and lost his father at the age of fifteen, and, notwithstanding his youth, carried on the farm which had belonged to him with considerable advantage. He was equally successful with a large uncultivated farm in Aberdeenshire, which he brought into excellent condition. Although he had not received a liberal education, such was his application and assiduity that he contrived, in the midst of his agricultural pursuits, to acquire a considerable portion of general learning, and published a series of "*Essays on Planting*," in the Edinburgh Weekly Magazine. These papers, which were collected in a volume in 1777, produced him considerable reputation as an agricul-



turist; and in 1780 the university of Aberdeen conferred on him the degree of LL.D. In 1783 he removed to Edinburgh, and projected the establishment of the North British Fisheries, for which purpose he was employed by government to survey the coast of Scotland. He afterwards undertook a periodical work called "The Bee;" and in 1797 removed to London, and began another journal called "Recreations in Agriculture," which ended with the sixth volume. He died in 1808, leaving a widow and six children.

ANDERSON, WALTER, D. D., a native of Scotland, and for fifty years minister of Chirnside, where he died in 1800. Dr. Anderson ranked high as a historical writer, and the works by which he is principally known are his history of the reigns of Francis II. and Charles IX. of France, published in two quarto volumes in 1769, a work which was followed four years afterwards by a history on a similar plan of France, from the beginning of Henry III.'s reign, down to the period of the Edict of Nantes, in one volume quarto. This in 1783 he again continued in two subsequent volumes, bringing the history down to the peace of Munster. He also produced an essay in quarto on the Philosophy of Ancient Greece, and a life of Cræsus king of Lydia.



ANDRÉ, JOHN, an adjutant general in the British army in North America during the revolutionary war. The circumstances which gave celebrity to and caused the death of this unfortunate young officer may be thus briefly detailed:—At the time of this event Major André was serving as aide-camp to Sir Henry Clinton, and was employed by him to negotiate the defection of General Arnold, and the delivery of the works at West Point, on the banks of the river Hudson. The negotiation was carried on between General Arnold and Major André under the supposititious names of Gustavus and Anderson. Mercantile relations were feigned, to disguise the object; and an American, whose dwelling stood between the lines that separated the two armies, served as a common messenger. At this period a rumour began to spread of a division of the French army having sailed, and that Washington

only awaited its arrival to begin the siege of New York. The Marshal de Castries, who then administered the department of the marine with so much reputation, had, in fact, advised the French envoy of the approaching departure of a second expedition. Clinton therefore informed Arnold that it was time to act, and that a day must be fixed for the surrender of the forts; for, if time were given to the allies to effect a junction, it might no longer be in the power of Arnold himself to fulfil his engagements. He asked also for plans of the forts, and the instructions necessary for the safe guidance of the British troops when they were sent to take possession of West Point. Arnold replied to these new importunities in the language concerted with André:—"Our master goes away the 17th of this month. He will be absent five or six days. Let us avail ourselves of this interval to arrange our business. Come immediately, and meet me at the lines, and we will settle definitively the risks and profits of the copartnership. All will be ready; but this interview is indispensable, and must precede the sailing of our ships." It was thus that Arnold apprized Clinton of the approaching departure of the commander-in-chief. Washington had, in fact, appointed to meet Count de Rochambeau, general of the French land-forces, and the Chevalier de Ternay, commander of the squadron. They were to meet at Hartford, in Connecticut, to confer together respecting the operations of this and the ensuing campaigns. But Arnold was not correctly advised as to the period of Washington's departure, and the mistake led to important consequences. He had in other letters solicited an interview with André, and he now exacted it as a condition indispensable for the prosecution of the enterprise. Hitherto, every thing had succeeded beyond his hopes. There had been a total absence of those mysterious rumours, and vague surmises which accompany, and seem to portend, a great conspiracy. Never had so momentous a plot been more felicitously brought so near to its execution. This profound secrecy was owing to the precaution of Arnold, in not having unbosomed himself to any of his own countrymen, and in admitting only Clinton, André, and Robinson as correspondents. He took credit for this policy, and his urgency for an interview with André arose chiefly from his resolution to confide to the hands of this officer, alone, the maps and particular information which Clinton demanded.

The 17th of September, the day specified for the departure of Washington, passed, and he was still at West Point. Arnold advertised Clinton of the delay, and explained his mistake by mentioning a circumstance which had not been before noted. The 17th fell on a Sunday, a day which the Americans consecrated entirely to the duties of religion, and on which most of them abstained even from journeys which, elsewhere, would be thought indispensable. Clinton admitted this explanation the more readily as he knew that Washington respected the scruples of others, and was himself very religious. To obviate untoward accidents, it was agreed that André should leave New York on the 19th of September. He accordingly embarked in the night on board the Vulture sloop of war. Clinton sent with him Beverley Robinson, the colonel through whom Arnold had made his first overture. He expected that the prudence of this officer would moderate the ardour of André. Moreover, Arnold occupied Robinson's house, and the private affairs which he, as a refugee,

had to adjust with congress, furnished a plausible pretence for his approaching the American lines and posts. The next day they arrived almost opposite to Fort Montgomery, situated on the same side as West Point, but five miles lower down. They cast anchor in sight of the nearest American redoubts, but beyond the reach of some small cannon, the only artillery of those redoubts. The Vulture got aground at low water. The movement on board, and some signals which she made, alarmed the vigilance of colonel Livingston, who commanded at Verplanck's Point. He ascertained, on reconnoitring, that the sloop might be sunk by one or two pieces of heavy cannon; and, as those of the forts which he commanded were of too small a caliber, he requested larger from Arnold; but the general refused them, to the great surprise of Livingston.

The ship had not, as yet, been able to communicate with the shore, but, persuaded that Washington must have set out for Hartford, the officers put in execution a stratagem, arranged beforehand with Arnold, to facilitate the rendezvous. Robinson wrote to the American general Putnam, as if to transact with him business relating to his property, and proposed an interview. In this letter was enclosed another to general Arnold. The packet, being directed to Arnold, would be opened only by him; but if, perchance, it fell into other hands, the whole could be read without exciting suspicion of a plot. This letter was despatched to the shore by a flag of truce as soon as the sloop had cast anchor. It happened to be on the very day fixed by Washington for his departure. He had never meant to set out earlier, and had neither sanctioned nor contradicted the various rumours current on the subject. He left his quarters in the morning, and, on reaching the bank, found Arnold there with his barge, ready to transport him to the other side. In crossing, Washington remarked the sloop with the English flag, and took a telescope to observe her motions more narrowly. Some moments after, he gave to an officer near him, in a low voice, according to his usual manner, an order, probably of no consequence, which Arnold was unable to overhear.

Arnold being guilty, whatever he could not immediately penetrate, alarmed his fears. He supposed that the general could not remain ignorant of the circumstance of the flag of truce, and, doubtful even whether he might not be already acquainted with it, he thought it well to show him the two letters which he had received, asking him, at the same time, what course he ought to pursue. Washington, in the presence of several persons, dissuaded him from seeing Robinson, and directed him to give for answer to this officer that his private business appertained exclusively to the jurisdiction of the civil authority. They touched the shore just as this conversation ceased. The commander-in-chief, whose presence kept Arnold in the greatest perplexity, landed, and pursued his journey to Hartford. On the morning after the departure of Washington, Arnold despatched a man called *Joshua Smith*, with two passports to be carried on board the Vulture—one for André, under the fictitious name of *Anderson*, the other for Charles Beverley Robinson, who had not the same reason for practising disguise. He charged him with a letter also, in which he urged them to repair to him on shore. Smith waited until night-fall, and then proceeded to the English sloop in a boat which Arnold

had provided for him. André and Robinson expected that Arnold would himself visit them, and were surprised when his emissary, Smith, appeared before them alone. Robinson declared that he would not go on shore, and used every effort to deter his companion; but the young man, full of impatience and ardour, saw only the chances of success, would listen to no remonstrance, and could not brook the idea either of returning to New York without having executed his mission, or of exposing the main enterprise to miscarriage by a caution which his rivals would infallibly stigmatize as cowardice. He put on a gray surtout, to hide his uniform, and accompanied Smith on shore. Arnold was waiting to receive him at the water's edge. They discoursed there for some time; but, as they were liable to be surprised, Arnold led him to the house of Smith, when he immediately laid before him plans of the forts, a memoir, composed by the chief engineer, Duportail, on the means of attacking and defending them, and minute instructions with respect to the measures to be taken by the British for the occupation of them, when Arnold should have done his part in opening the way.

Arnold and André, calculating anxiously the probable length of Washington's absence, supposed that he would return in three or four days, that is, on the 25th or 26th of September, and one or other of these days was fixed for the execution of the plot. It was settled that André should go back in all haste to New York,—that the English troops, which were already embarked, under pretence of a distant expedition, should be held ready to ascend the river, and sail at the first signal,—that, to facilitate the reduction of West Point, Arnold should march out of the forts all the troops destined for the defence, and entangle them in gorges and ravines, where he would pretend to await the English assailants, while these were to debark on another side, and enter by passes left unguarded; and, at all events, the garrison and troops were to be so distributed that, if they did not surrender at the first summons, they must be immediately cut in pieces. He informed André that the chain which was stretched across the river from West Point to Constitution Island, forming, when perfect, an effectual bar to the passage of the river, was now no longer an impediment. He had detached a link, ostensibly to have it mended; the smiths would not return it for some days; and the two ends of the chain were held together by a fastening too weak to bear even a slight concussion. The English would know at what moment they were to advance, by the kindling of fires, in the night, under the directions of Arnold, on the adjacent eminences. A single cannon fired from their ships, to be followed by a similar discharge from the shore, would proclaim that they had perceived the signals. When they had arrived within three miles of the fortress, two English officers, in American uniform, were to ride full gallop to Arnold's quarters, to learn how matters stood, and to hasten with the intelligence to the British naval commander. Then only was Arnold to put in motion that portion of the garrison which remained in the works, and station it at posts which would not be attacked. Arnold then delivered to Major André draughts of all the works, and of the passes leading to them, several memoirs, written with his own hand, and full returns of the garrisons and the forces of each division of the army. He had never before allowed a single paper to go out of his hands



which might expose him to detection. But he now saw no danger in confiding these to André, who was to re-embark directly on board the sloop, and make sail for New York.

André returned alone to the beach, whence a boat was to convey him to the Vulture. But this arrangement was defeated by an obstacle wholly unexpected. At an early hour, Livingston, still disturbed at the proximity of the sloop, had, of his own authority, caused a four-pounder to be dragged from his redoubt to a point of land from which the shot could reach the vessel. She was aground, and had already sustained some damage from the small piece of the American officer, when she began to float again at the rising of the tide. Robinson took advantage of this circumstance to weigh anchor, and remove some miles lower down, beyond the reach of a similar attack. This change of station attracted the notice of the master and rowers of the boat in which André expected to regain the sloop. They were Americans. The movements which they had witnessed for the two last days were unusual; and, although men of their description, accustomed to ferry all persons indifferently from one side of the river to the other, did not affect to be of any party, they were unwilling to commit themselves. When André proposed to them to convey him to the sloop, they told him that it was too far, and peremptorily refused to go. He went back immediately to Arnold, and urged him to exert his authority in so serious a predicament. But the latter, perplexed at his unlooked-for re-appearance, and already harassed with various disappointments, durst not attempt to compel the men, and told him he must submit to return by land, to lay aside his uniform altogether, and assume another dress. André changed his coat for one which Smith provided. Arnold now wished to withdraw the papers which he had entrusted to him, as he thought it hazardous to send them by land. But André was very desirous of showing to Clinton with what punctuality he had executed his mission. These papers were a trophy of which he would not, therefore, allow himself to be dispossessed. He observed to Arnold that danger of any kind could now no longer be in question, except so far as to show that they both despised it; and added that he would keep the papers, which brought him into greater peril than Arnold, and, to allay his fears, would secrete them in his boots. Arnold submitted, and, leaving André in Smith's house, returned to his quarters, from which he had been absent since the day before. The patrol, spread through the whole neighbourhood, made it imprudent for André to begin his journey before twilight. He was accompanied by Smith: each had a passport from Arnold, "to go to the lines of White Plains, or lower, if the bearer thought proper, he being on public business."

They were accosted, at Crompond, by an American officer of militia, who told them that it was too late for them to reach, that evening, any other quarters. In order not to awaken his suspicions, they resolved to pass the night there. The next day, 23rd, they crossed the Hudson to King's Ferry, pushing forward when they were not observed, and slackening their pace to conceal their eagerness, wherever they were likely to be seen. By means of their passports, they traversed all the American posts without molestation. They arrived, uninterrupted, a little beyond Pine's Bridge, a village situated on the Croton: they had

not, however, crossed the lines, although they could descry the ground occupied by the English videttes. Smith, looking all around, and perceiving no one, said to André, "You are safe—good by," and re-took, at full speed, the road by which they had come. André, on his part, believing himself out of danger, and all further precaution superfluous, put spurs to his horse. He had proceeded four leagues onward with the same good fortune; he could see the Hudson once more, and was about entering Tarrytown, the border village, when a man, armed with a gun, sprang suddenly from the thickets, and, seizing the reins of his bridle, exclaimed, "Where are you bound?" At the same moment two others ran up, who were armed in like manner, and formed, with the first, part of the patrol of volunteer militia that guarded the lines. They were not in uniform, and André, preoccupied by the idea that he was no longer on enemy's ground, thought that they must be of his own party. It did not, therefore, occur to him to show them his passport, which was sufficient to deceive Americans, and could not alter his destination if those who arrested him were of the English side. Instead of answering their question he asked them, in his turn, where they belonged to. They replied, "To below"—words referring to the course of the river, and implying that they were of the English party. "And so do I," said André, confirmed in his mistake by this stratagem. "I am," continued he, in a tone of command, "an English officer on urgent business, and I do not wish to be longer detained." "You belong to our enemies," was the rejoinder, "and we arrest you." André, struck with astonishment at this unexpected language, presented his passport; but this paper, after the confession he had just made, only served to render his case more suspicious. He offered them gold, his horse, and promised them large rewards and permanent provision from the English government, if they would let him escape. These young men, whom such offers did but animate the more in their duty, replied that they wanted nothing. They drew off his boots, and detected the fatal papers. They no longer hesitated to carry him before Colonel Jameson, who commanded the out-posts. When questioned by that officer, he still called himself *Anderson*, the name mentioned in his passport, and evinced no discomposure; he had recovered all his presence of mind, and, forgetful of his own danger, thought only of Arnold's, and of the means of extricating him. To apprise him of it safely, he begged Jameson to inform the commanding officer of West Point that Anderson, the bearer of his passport, was detained. Jameson thought it more simple to order him to be conducted to Arnold. He was already on the way, and the thread of the conspiracy was about to be resumed in the interview of the accomplices when the American colonel, recollecting that the papers found upon the prisoner were in the handwriting of Arnold himself, and adverting to the several extraordinary features of the business, sent after the pretended Anderson, and had him conveyed under guard to Old Salem. Major André's case was then communicated to General Washington, who laid a statement before Major General Green, William Alexander, Marquis de la Fayette, &c. The board declared him a spy from the enemy, and, agreeable to the law and usage of nations, he was executed at Tappan, in New-York, on the 2nd October, 1780. His death caused a great deal of commiseration in

the British camp, and a costly monument was subsequently erected in Westminster Abbey to his memory.

ANDREA DEL SARTO.—This very eminent Italian painter was born in Florence in 1483. He is more distinguished for his talents as a copyist than for his original works. He was however a man of dissolute habits, and died of the plague in his forty-second year in the greatest want.

ANDREWS, JAMES PETIT, a well known miscellaneous English writer, was younger son of Joseph Andrews, esq., of Shaw House, Berks. He was born in the year 1737, and received a private education, but was early distinguished by an attachment to literature and the fine arts, to the former of which he may be said to have been professionally attached until his death, which took place at his house in Brompton in 1797. His principal works are "Anecdotes, Ancient and Modern, with Observations," published in 1789, and a supplement, which appeared in 1790, several editions of which have since appeared; "The History of Great Britain, connected with the Chronology of Europe, with Notes containing Anecdotes of the Times, Lives of the Learned, and Specimens of their Works, from Cæsar's Invasion to the Death of Edward VI., 1794-5. He also wrote several antiquarian papers, which appear in the *Archæologia*. When the new regulation of the police of the metropolis took place, Mr. Andrews was appointed one of the magistrates of Queen Square, Westminster, which situation he held until his death.

ANDREWS, LANCELOT, an eminent English divine, born in London in 1565. He was educated in Merchant Taylor's School, and afterwards took his degree as bachelor of arts at Pembroke College Cambridge. He applied himself to divinity, and Sir Francis Walsingham procured him the vicarage of St. Giles's Cripplegate, and had him afterwards chosen prebendary and residentiary of St. Paul's, and also prebendary of the collegiate church of Southwell. Upon the death of Dr. Fulke, he was chosen master of Pembroke Hall, to which college he became a considerable benefactor. He was also appointed one of the chaplains in ordinary to Queen Elizabeth, with whom he was a great favourite, as he was also with her successor King James I. His majesty having, in his "Defence of the Rights of Kings," asserted the authority of Christian princes over causes and persons ecclesiastical, Cardinal Bellarmine, under the name of Matthew Tortus, attacked him with great bitterness. The king employed Andrews to answer the cardinal, who did so in a work entitled "Tortura Torti," &c. His majesty promoted him to the bishopric of Chichester, and at the same time made him his almoner. Upon the vacancy of the bishopric of Ely, he was advanced to that see, and consecrated in September, 1609. He was also nominated one of the king's privy councillors of England, and afterwards of Scotland, when he attended his majesty to that kingdom. When he had been nine years in the see of Ely, he was advanced to the bishopric of Winchester, and deanery of the king's chapel, which two last preferments he held till his death.

Besides the "Tortura Torti," already mentioned, Bishop Andrews published "A Manual of Private Devotions and Meditations for every Day in the Week;" and "A Manual of Directions for the Visitation of the Sick:" there were likewise several sermons and tracts in English and Latin of his published after his death. He had a share in the trans-

lation of the Pentateuch, and the historical book from Joshua to the first Book of Chronicles exclusively.

ANDRIEUX, FRANÇOIS GUILLAUME JEAN STANISLAS, one of the most distinguished modern French dramatic poets, born at Strasburg in May 1759. By his zeal for true liberty during the revolution, by his firm adherence to the constitution, and by his constant support of the rules of natural right, he was not less distinguished than by his easy wit, and the striking characters and fine poetry contained in his numerous literary works. His writings, however, sometimes want that finish which can only be acquired by early education, particularly in respect to the choice of language. In 1798 he entered the legislative body, as deputy of the department of the Seine, where he made a conspicuous figure by his speeches and motions respecting the establishment of primary schools, the liberty of the press, and the murder of the ambassadors at Radstadt. After the 18th Brumaire, he became tribune; and on the 21st of July, 1800, secretary; and, in September, president of the tribunate. He declared himself with zeal and firmness against the anti-constitutional measures of the first consul and of the senate, until 1802, when he was obliged to resign. Nevertheless, the emperor afterwards made him knight of the legion of honour, and professor of literature at the *College de France*, and of belles-lettres at the polytechnic school. In 1816 the king admitted him a member of the French academy. His principal work of classical reputation is *Anaximander*, a play in one act.

ANELLO, THOMAS, or MASSANIELLO, a poor fisherman, who by a very extraordinary revolution in Naples was for a short time placed at the head of affairs in that city. At the period of the revolution which occurred in 1647 he was about twenty-four years old, and a contemporary historian says that he was a stout man of good countenance and of the middle stature, whose profession was to buy fish and retail them; and, in conformity with the poverty of his condition, usually appeared in a coarse shirt, a blue waistcoat, a mariner's cap, and with naked feet. Observing the general murmurs of the people, and while in the highest state of exasperation himself, he met a celebrated bandit called Perone, with one of his companions, who asked him what had displeased him. He replied in great wrath, "I will be bound to be hanged but I will right this city." Those whom he addressed of course laughed at him; but he convinced them of the possibility of an effective resistance, and engaged them to assist him.

Massaniello first applied to the owners of the fruit-shops, and recommended them to come the next day to the market, but to decline to purchase from the growers any portion of their taxed fruit; and in the mean time instructed, and to a certain extent enrolled many hundreds of the more youthful lazzaroni who frequented the market-place. Of this militia he made himself the leader; and at a signal being given by a fruiterer in the confederacy throwing his taxed fruit to the ground in a rage, and exclaiming, "God gives plenty and the government dearth," a tumult ensued, and a general cry of "No tax" burst from the assembled multitude, who pelted the magistrate, sent to appease them, from the market-place. The immediate consequence was a large concourse of people of all descriptions; when Massaniello leaped



upon the table of one of the fruiterers and addressed the crowd, comparing himself to Moses, who was sent to deliver the Israelites from the Egyptians, and to Peter, also a fisherman, who had rescued the world from the dominion of Satan. His oratory was completely successful; and, under his direction, the toll-houses for fruit were first burnt down; thence the people proceeded to the other toll-houses, and lastly assailed the palace of the viceroy, which they entered and rifled, notwithstanding the resistance of the guards. The viceroy got into his coach to make his escape, but the people surrounded it with drawn swords, and made him promise to take off the taxes. By distributing money and by fair promises, he at length contrived to get into the church of St. Lewis, and ordered the gates to be shut. The populace then applied to the prince of Bisignano, who was much beloved by them, to be their defender and intercessor. He at first complied; but finding himself, after the most strenuous exertions, unable to restrain them, he retired, and the people called for Massaniello to be their leader, at the same time appointing Gencino, a priest of considerable abilities, and the bandit Perone, to attend his person.

Massaniello at first assumed the part assigned to him with considerable spirit and good sense. A stage was erected in the market-place, where, clothed in white like a mariner, he with his counsellors gave public audience, received petitions, and decided all causes, civil and criminal. At this time he had no less than 150,000 men under his command. By a formal decree, the houses and goods of sixty farmers of the taxes were burnt, and the punishment of death was inflicted upon those who attempted to purloin or save from the flames the smallest article. At length, convinced of the formidable nature of the confederacy, the viceroy gave the original popular charter of Charles V. over to the bishop, who induced Massaniello to assemble the people and their leaders together to effect an accommodation. The design proved abortive in the first instance, owing to an attempt to destroy him by an armed force, brought apparently in honour of the occasion. At last however a treaty was completed, and he went in state to visit the viceroy, habited in cloth of silver, and mounted upon a lofty charger, with 50,000 persons in his train, who attended to his smallest sign with the most devoted obedience.

On the following Sunday the capitulation was signed and solemnly sworn to; and had Massaniello now retired, as he had declared his intention to do, he might have been considered the friend of his country; but unhappily he was induced to retain his authority, and the usual effects of unlimited power began to display themselves in acts of caprice and tyranny, which at length were of so extraordinary a nature that they were attributed to frenzy. Indeed, there is little doubt but that his reason became unsettled, and that he was labouring under the effects of some powerfully exciting poison which had been administered by his enemies. In this state he was attacked by four assassins, who, after inflicting a number of wounds, severed his head from his body and flung it into a ditch. Thus ended a revolution which ultimately gave liberty to Naples, but which ended, as popular tumults generally do, in the destruction of their first promoters. Massaniello was in reality a martyr to the cause of liberty, and, if the Neapolitan aristocracy had acted with the same good

faith as the humble and uneducated fisherman, the revolution would have been as bloodless as any in the annals of history.

ANFOSSI, PASQUALE, a musician who was born at Naples in 1729, and studied composition under Sacchini and Piccini. The latter procured him, in 1771, his first employment, in the theatre *delle dame* at Rome. Though he met with no success, Piccini obtained him, in the following year, a second engagement, in which he was also unsuccessful. In a third engagement, the year afterwards, Anfossi was more fortunate. The *Persecuted Unknown* was performed in 1773, with great applause, as were also *La Finta Giardiniera* and *Il Geloso di Cimento* some time afterwards. On the other hand, the *Olimpiade*, in 1776, entirely failed, and the mortification of the author on this occasion induced him to leave Rome. He travelled through Italy, and in 1780 went to France where he performed in the royal academy the *Persecuted Unknown*; but this lovely and delicate music did not meet with the reception which it deserved. From France Anfossi came to London, where, in 1783, he was made director of music at the Italian Opera. In 1787 he returned to Rome, where he brought out several pieces, the success of which made him forget his disappointments, and gained him a reputation which he enjoyed until his death, in 1795. This composer frequently reminds us of Sacchini and Piccini, after whom he formed his style; but his taste, expression, and style of progression and resolution are extraordinary. Several of his *finales* are models in their kind. Of his works, we may also mention the *Avuro*, *Il Curioso Indiscreto* and *I Viaggiatori Felici*, which rank among the best comic operas. He has also composed the music to several oratorios and psalms, written mostly by Metastasio.

ANGELO BUONAROTTI, MICHAEL.—This great artist was born at Chiusi in 1474, and his name stands distinguished in every walk of his profession. Indeed Michael Angelo combined in his single person the united talents of the age in which he lived, and laid the basis of a school which will be admired as long as a love of the fine arts exists. Domenico Ghirlandaio was his first master in the art of drawing. Before he had been with him two years, in the academy of arts established by Lorenzo de Medici, he studied statuary under Bertoldo, and, in his sixteenth year, copied the head of a satyr in marble, to the admiration of all connoisseurs. He attracted no less attention as a painter, and received the honourable commission (together with the great Leonardo da Vinci) of decorating the senate-hall at Florence with historical designs. For this purpose he sketched that celebrated though not completely preserved cartoon which represents a scene from the Pisan war, and is considered one of his most perfect creations. Meanwhile, Pope Julius II. had invited him to Rome, and entrusted him with the charge of erecting his sepulchral monument. Twice this labour was interrupted—once by the offended pride of Angelo, and then by the envy of contemporary artists. Bramante and Giuliano da San Gallo, in particular, persuaded the pope to have the dome of the Sistine chapel painted by Michael Angelo. Knowing that he had not yet attempted any thing in fresco, they hoped that the imperfect execution of the task would alienate the favour of the pope from him. He declined the commission, but the pope would not be refused, and, in the short space of twenty months, the artist finished

the work, which was admired by all connoisseurs, and of which Fresnoi says rightly that it displays, perhaps more than any other of his productions, all the sublimity of his original genius.

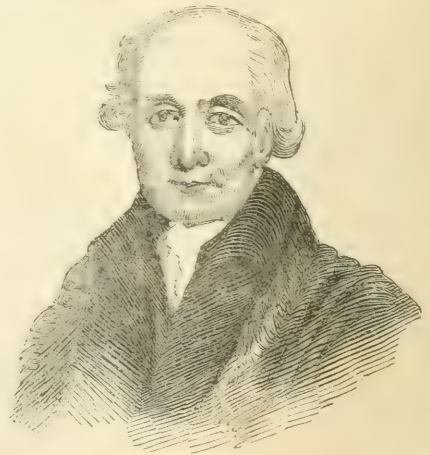
The *Capella Sistina* is certainly the grandest ensemble of art. Angelo was about to proceed with the monument of Julius, when this pope died, and his successor, Leo, sent Angelo to Florence to erect the front of the Laurentian library. Leo, however, shortly after died, and his successor, Adrian VI., employed Angelo to make the statues for the monument of Julius, particularly the celebrated statue of Moses, and the Christ, which was afterwards placed at Rome, in the church della Minerva. Clement VII., who next ascended the pontifical chair, recalled Angelo to Rome, and charged him with the finishing of the new sacristy and the Laurentian library at Florence. In the first, the monuments of the Medici are by him; also the figures of Day and Night. Tumultuous times followed, after the lapse of which he was employed to paint the *Last Judgment* in the Sixtine chapel. The artist, now sixty years of age, unwillingly commenced a work which might endanger his fame. Naturally inclined to deep and earnest thought, preferring the sublime conceptions of Dante to all other poetry, having by a constant study of anatomy investigated the most secret mechanism of the muscles, and conscious of his own power, he endeavoured, in this work, to strike out a new path, and to surpass his predecessors, particularly Luca Signoretti, by a display of terrible power. The picture is grand, nay, gigantic, like the mind which created it. It represents Christ in the act of judging, or rather at the moment of condemning. Martyrs are seen, who show to the Judge of the living and dead the instruments of their torture; souls ascend to the choirs of angels hovering above; the condemned strive to break loose from the grasp of the devils; there the evil spirits burst into shouts of triumph at the sight of their prey; the lost, who are dragged down, endeavour to cling to the good, who remain in Christ's kingdom; the gulf of eternal condemnation is seen opening; Jesus Christ and the Virgin are seen surrounded by the apostles, who place a crown on his head, and by a multitude of saints, while angels above carry in triumph the symbols of his passion; and lower down another company of angels sound the trumpets intended to awaken the dead from their tombs, and call them to judgment. All this, and a vast deal more, is executed in the awful style of Dante. With these scenes of fear and despair, of judgment and of heavenly beatitude, a wall of great height and breadth is filled, and every where is displayed the most profound study, the richest experience, and the lofty spirit of a master.

The effect of this picture resembles that of the sublimest passages of Dante, particularly in connection with the large images of the prophets, who, like warning and stern heralds of the last judgment, look down from the ceiling upon the spectator, resembling beings of another world, rather than images made by the hand of man. Whilst this picture of the *Last Judgment* shows the human figure in all its attitudes and foreshortenings, and gives us the expression of astonishment, of pain, of despair, through all their degrees, it may be considered as an inexhaustible treasure for the study of the arts.

Angelo's latest works in painting were two large pictures—the *Conversion of St. Paul*, and the *Cruci-*

*fixion of St. Peter*, in the Pauline chapel. In sculpture, he executed the *Descent of Christ from the Cross*, four figures of one piece of marble. It is reported of his Cupid in marble that it was a more perfect copy of another Cupid, which he had buried in the ground, after having broken off one of its arms, in order that it might pass for an antique. This perfect Cupid is as large as life. Angelo's statue of Bacchus was thought by Raphael to possess equal perfection with the masterpieces of Phidias and Praxiteles. As late as 1546, Angelo was obliged to undertake the continuation of the building of St. Peter's. He corrected its plan, for which he chose the form of the Grecian cross, and reduced to order the confusion occasioned by the various plans which had been successively pursued in the course of its construction. But he did not live long enough to see his plan executed, in which many alterations were made after his death. Besides this, he undertook the building of the Campidoglio or capitol of the Farnese palace, and of many other edifices. His style in architecture is distinguished by grandeur and boldness, and, in his ornaments, the untamed character of his imagination frequently appears, preferring the uncommon to the simple and elegant. His poems, which he considered merely as pastimes, contain, likewise, convincing proofs of his great genius. They are published in several collections, but have also appeared singly.

One of the greatest historians of our time has suggested that a king of Italy, such as Machiavelli wished him, and every reflecting Italian must wish him, in order to unite that unhappy country, ought to be a man like Michael Angelo—ardent, severe, firm, and bold. His prose works, consisting of lectures, speeches, and *ciccolate*, that is, humorous academical discourses, are to be found in the collection of the *Prose fiorentine*, and his letters in Bottari's *Lettere pittoriche*.



ANGERSTEIN, JOHN JULIUS.—This distinguished merchant and patron of the fine arts was born at St. Petersburg in 1735, and came over to England under the care of the late Andrew Thompson, Esq., with whom he continued in partnership for nearly fifty years after. Mr. Angerstein was distinguished for his public spirit, and was the first to propose a reward of 2000*l.* from the fund at



Lloyd's to be given to the successful inventor of the life-boat. In consequence of his natural abilities and unwearyed application to business, added to his excellent commercial education, Mr. Angerstein ranked so high in the opinion of the under-writers that policies, sanctioned by his subscription, speedily acquired so great a degree of celebrity that for many years they were distinguished by the name of "Julians." Among the many great services which Mr. Angerstein rendered to Lloyd's coffee-house, the following was by no means the least important. It was originally a common practice when vessels had acquired a bad name to send them to a foreign port and get their name changed, and thus make them pass for ships of a fair character. To remedy this evil, Mr. Angerstein applied for and obtained an Act of Parliament, by virtue of which every owner was prohibited from changing the name by which his vessel was originally known. Another act of great good to the commercial world was effected by Mr. Angerstein inducing government to issue a loan of exchequer bills for the relief of trade in the year 1793. After a long life spent in usefulness and industry, Mr. Angerstein retired from the commercial world in the month of August, 1811, and from that period divided his time between his house in Pall Mall and his elegant villa at Blackheath, called Woodlands.

Mr. Angerstein's celebrated collection of paintings are considered inferior to none of the same extent in Europe, and they were purchased by government for 60,000*l.*, as a nucleus of a national gallery. For many years this collection has been open to the public, at Mr. Angerstein's late residence in Pall Mall. A new building is however now in the course of erection, to which this valuable collection will be removed on its completion.

Mr. Angerstein "crowned a life of labour with an age of ease," and ultimately attained the age of eighty-eight, when he gently expired, after an illness of a few days, at Woodlands, on the 22nd of January, 1823. There are several portraits of this eminent patron of the fine arts. For the sketch at the head of this article we have selected the one painted by Sir Thomas Lawrence.

ANICH, PETER, a Tyrolese peasant, astronomer, and geographer, who was born in 1723, at Oberporfess, near Inspruck. He very early became an admirer of the mathematical sciences. The Jesuits in Inspruck perceived his talents, and gave him instruction in mechanics and mathematics. This was sufficient to induce the young man to undertake the making of a celestial globe, of a terrestrial globe, and of many mathematical instruments. When his teacher, a Jesuit, observed the success of his labours, he recommended him to the empress Maria Theresa, who ordered him to draw a map of the northern Tyrol. The superstition of his countrymen made his labours difficult and even endangered his life. Finally, the map was finished; but it was found, in Vienna, that it had been executed on too large a scale, and he was commanded to reduce it to nine sheets. This reduction cost him much labour, and he died before completing it, in September, 1766. The map finally appeared under the title "*Tyrolis Geographicæ Delineata a Petro Anich et Blasio Huever, curante Ign. Weinhart.*"

ANICHINI, LUIGI, a celebrated seal-engraver, who was contemporary with Michael Angelo. His

"Interview of Alexander the Great with a High Priest at Jerusalem" was declared by Michael Angelo to be the perfection of his art.

ANKERSTRÖM, JOHN JACOB, the murderer of Gustavus III. He was, at first, a page in the Swedish court, afterwards an inferior officer in the regiment of body guards, and, later, an ensign in the royal guards. His father was lieutenant-colonel, and knight of the order of the sword. Ankerström was from his youth of a passionate and gloomy character, and maintained a continual opposition to the measures of the king, particularly those for limiting the power of the senate and nobles. In 1783 he received his dismissal, married, and retired to the country; but, in 1790, returned to Stockholm, and united himself with several of the nobility, particularly the counts Horn and Ribbing, barons Bidke and Pechlin, Lieutenant-colonel Liljehorn and others, and they decided upon the death of the king. Ankerström entreated that the murder might be left to him; but, Ribbing and Horn putting in their claims, they cast lots, and it fell to Ankerström. The king had just assembled a diet in Gefle, and the conspirators went there, but found no opportunity to execute their plan. The king returned to Stockholm, and it was known that he would be present at a masquerade; and it was at this festival that Ankerström wounded him mortally. He was discovered, arrested, and confessed his crime, but refused to betray his accomplices. On the 29th of April, 1792, he was condemned to death, scourged during several days, and dragged upon a cart to the scaffold. The counts Horn and Ribbing and Colonel Liljehorn were banished for life. The conspiracy of Ankerström has formed the basis of one of our most popular operas. It is entitled "*Gustavus III.*;" but the author has not strictly adhered to history in the detail of his plot.

ANNA IVANOWNA, a celebrated empress of Russia, who was born in 1693. She was the daughter of Ivan, the elder brother of Peter the Great. She was married to the duke of Courland, was left a widow, and, in 1730, ascended the throne of the czars under very singular circumstances. Peter II., son of the unfortunate Alexis, died in his sixteenth year, and the young princes, Ivan and Basil Dolgorucky, administered the government, under the direction of the old chancellor Ostermann. As the latter flattered himself that he should retain his authority under a princess whom he had partly educated, he used his whole influence to procure the crown for the duchess of Courland. He gained over the synod and the nobles assembled at Moscow, and by his influence Anna was preferred to both the daughters of Peter the Great, and the Prince Basil Dolgorucky was appointed to inform her of the choice of the nation. When he entered her apartment, he found a man in the room, to whom he made a sign to withdraw. The other showed no inclination to obey, and, when Dolgorucky took his arm to turn him out of the door, he was prevented by Anna. It was Ernestus John von Biren, the favourite of his sovereign, whose influence was soon all-powerful in Russia. The empress, at first, promised to remove her favourite, and to limit the unrestrained powers of the czars, but had scarcely ascended the throne when she refused to do either and proclaimed herself autocrat of all the Russias. Biren now put no limits to his ambition, and the

Dolgoruckys were his first victims. Their friends experienced a similar fate, notwithstanding the earnest remonstrances of the empress. In 1737 she forced the Courlanders to choose him duke, and nominated him, at her death, regent of the empire during the minority of Prince Ivan of Brunswick. She died in 1740.

ANNE OF AUSTRIA, queen of France, was the daughter of Philip III., king of Spain, and, in 1615, married Louis XIII. On her husband's death, his son being under age, she became sole regent of France during the minority. She, however, brought upon herself the hatred of the nation, by her boundless confidence in Cardinal Mazarin, and was forced to flee from Paris. In a little time matters were accommodated, and when her son took the reins of government into his own hands, in 1661, she gave up all concern with public affairs, and spent the remainder of her life in retirement. She died in 1666.

ANNE OF CLEVES, the wife of Henry VIII., king of England, was the daughter of John III., duke of Cleves. The king asked her in marriage after having seen a portrait of her, drawn by Holbein; but it was not long before he was disgusted with the "Flanders mare," as he called her, and a divorce ensued, when Anne returned to her own country, where she died in 1557.

The moral conduct of Anne appears to have been as unexceptionable as that of the major part of Henry's wives, and her quiet acquiescence in his tyrannical wishes is as creditable to her womanly feelings as his own conduct was disgraceful to the royal Defender of the Faith. Henry was fortunate in the blind and besotted devotion of his subjects, as we cannot otherwise characterise the homage paid to such a tyrant, who, in our own day, could not retain his dominion over public opinion for a single year, much less through a long reign of licentious rapine and cold-blooded tyranny.

ANNE, queen of Great Britain.—This excellent princess was the second daughter of James II., by his first wife, Lady Anne Hyde. She was born in 1664, and, in 1683, married to Prince George, brother to King Christian V. of Denmark. When, in 1688, the party which invited the prince of Orange to dethrone his father-in-law prevailed, Anne, the favourite daughter of James, wished to remain with her father. But she was in some measure forced by Churchill, afterwards duke of Marlborough, to join the triumphant party. After the death of her sister Mary in 1694, and that of William III., in 1702, without children, and after she herself, in 1699, had lost her only son, the young duke of Gloucester, she ascended the English throne. Her disposition to do good was admitted by all; but she was unfortunately too much under the control of Marlborough and his wife. The tories were satisfied to know that the sceptre was in the hands of a daughter of James II., and hoped to see the old royal house revived in her male descendants. The whigs rejoiced, at least, that the queen, faithful to the triple alliance, opposed the domineering spirit of Louis XIV., in order to defend the liberties of Europe, and to prevent the union of the French and Spanish crowns in one house. She, therefore, took part in the war of the Spanish succession, in which this country captured Gibraltar.

During the reign of Queen Anne, England and

Scotland were united under the name of Great Britain, and, notwithstanding the wishes of the queen for the restoration of her own house to the line of succession, it was settled in the house of Hanover. James in vain attempted a landing in Scotland, and the queen was obliged to sign a proclamation setting a price on his head. Of her seventeen children, all died young; and, when left a widow, she would not listen to the entreaties of the parliament (although but forty-four years old at the time) to conclude a new marriage, which might throw fresh obstacles in the way of the restoration of her own family. She now intended to put all political power into the hands of the tories, who then formed the majority in the three kingdoms. The duchess of Marlborough lost her influence; Godolphin, Sunderland, Somers, Devonshire, Walpole, Cowper, were superseded by Harley, earl of Oxford, Bolingbroke, Rochester, Buckingham, George Grenville, and Sir Simon Harcourt, and the parliament was dissolved. The consequence was that peace was resolved upon. Marlborough was accused, suspended, and banished. Meanwhile Anne, notwithstanding the measures which she publicly took against her brother, seems not to have given up the hope of securing to him the succession; but the irreconcilable enmity of Oxford and Bolingbroke, the former of whom accused the latter of favouring the pretender, was an insurmountable obstacle. Grieved at the disappointment of her secret wishes, she fell into a state of weakness and lethargy, and died July 20, 1714. The words, "O, my dear brother, how I pity thee!" which were the last she pronounced on her death-bed, unveiled the secret of her whole life.

The reign of Anne was distinguished not only by the brilliant successes of the British arms, but also as the golden age of English literature, on account of the number of admirable and excellent writers who flourished at this time, among whom were Pope and Addison. It may be considered the triumph of the English high-church party, owing to her strong predilection for the principles by which it has always been actuated. Her private character was amiable, and the goodness of her disposition obtained for her the title of the "Good Queen Anne." She was an excellent wife and mother, and a kind benefactress to all who merited her confidence. We subjoin her autograph.

*Anna. R.*

ANNESLEY, ARTHUR, earl of Anglesey, lord privy seal in the reign of king Charles II., was born at Dublin, July 10, 1613, and continued in Ireland till he was ten years old, when he was sent to England. At sixteen he was entered fellow commoner at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he pursued his studies about three or four years. In 1634 he removed to Lincoln's Inn, where he studied the law with great attention. He afterwards made the tour of Europe, and continued some time at Rome, but he returned to England in 1640, and was elected knight of the shire for the county of Radnor, in the parliament which sat at Westminster in November



of the same year ; but, the election being contested, he lost his seat by a vote of the house that Charles Price, Esq., was duly elected. In the beginning of the civil war, Mr. Annesley inclined to the royal cause, and sat in the parliament held at Oxford in 1643 ; but afterwards reconciled himself so effectually to the parliament, that he was taken into their confidence, and appointed a commissioner of Ulster in 1645. There he managed affairs with so much judgment that the celebrated Owen Roe O'Neil was disappointed in his designs ; and the archbishop of Tuam, who was the great support of his party, and whose councils had been previously very successful, was not only taken prisoner, but his papers were seized, and his foreign correspondence discovered.

The parliament then sent commissioners to the Duke of Ormond, for the delivery of Dublin, but without success ; and, the state of affairs making it necessary to renew their correspondence with him, they selected a second committee, and Mr. Annesley was placed at the head of this commission. The commissioners landed at Dublin the 7th of June, 1647 ; and they were so successful in their negotiations that in a few days a treaty was concluded with the lord-lieutenant, which was signed on the 19th of that month, and Dublin was put into the hands of the parliament. When the commissioners obtained possession of the supreme power, they were guilty of many irregularities. Mr. Annesley disapproved of their conduct, but could not prevent them doing many things in direct opposition to his wishes ; being therefore displeased with his situation, he returned to England.

Soon after the restoration Mr. Annesley was created earl of Anglesey, and in 1667 he was made treasurer of the navy ; and on the 4th of February, 1672, his majesty in council was pleased to appoint the duke of Buckingham, the earl of Anglesey, the Lord Holles, the Lord Ashley Cooper, and Mr. Secretary Trevor, to be a committee to peruse and revise all the papers and writings concerning the settlement of Ireland, and to make an abstract thereof in writing ; and accordingly, on the 12th of June, 1672, they made their report at large, which was the foundation of a commission, dated the 1st of August, 1672, to prince Rupert, the dukes of Buckingham and Lauderdale, earl of Anglesey, Lords Ashley and Holles, Sir John Trevor, and Sir Thomas Chicheley, to inspect the settlements of Ireland. In 1673 the earl of Anglesey had the office of lord privy seal conferred upon him. In October, 1680, his lordship was charged by the notorious James Dangerfield, in an information delivered upon oath at the bar of the House of Commons, with endeavouring to stifle evidence concerning the popish plot, and to promote the belief of a presbyterian one. The uneasiness he suffered from this attack did not prevent him expressing his opinion freely in the house of lords. In 1682 the earl drew up a very particular remonstrance and presented it to King Charles II. It was very warm and loyal, yet it was far from being well received. This memorial so accurately prophesied the consequences of the religious opinions in which the duke of York had been educated, and contains opinions so remarkably at variance with the spirit of the age in which the earl lived, that we readily preserve a portion of its contents. In one part he says, "The fatal cause of all our mischiefs, present or apprehended, and which may raise a fire which may

burn and consume to the very foundations, is the unhappy perversion of the duke of York (the next heir to the crown) in one point of religion ; which naturally raises jealousy of the power, designs, and practices of the old enemies of our religion and liberties, and undermines and emasculates the courage and constancy even of those and their posterity, who have been as faithful to and suffered as much for the crown as any the most pleased or contented in our impending miseries can pretend to have done." He concludes with these words, "Though your majesty is in your own person above the reach of law, and sovereign of all your people, yet the law is your master and instructor how to govern ; and that your subjects assure themselves you will never attempt the enervating that law by which you are king, and which you have not only by frequent declarations, but by a solemn oath upon your throne, been obliged, in a most glorious presence of your people, to the maintenance of ; and therefore that you will look upon any that shall propose or advise to the contrary as unfit persons to be near you, and on those who shall persuade you it is lawful, as sordid flatterers, and the worst and most dangerous enemies you and your kingdoms have. What I set before your majesty, I have written freely, and like a sworn faithful counsellor, perhaps not like a wise man with regard to myself, as they stand ; but I have discharged my duty, and will account it a reward if your majesty vouchsafe to read what I durst not but write, and which I beseech God to give a blessing to."

It was not however thought necessary to remove him from his high office on this account ; but the duke of Ormond brought a charge against him, on account of his reflections on the earl of Castlehaven's memoirs. This produced a sharp contest between the two peers, which ended in the earl of Anglesey's losing his place of lord privy seal, though his enemies were forced to confess that he was unjustly treated. After this disgrace, he remained at his country seat at Blechingdon in Oxfordshire, where he devoted his time to his studies, and interfered very little with public affairs. His death occurred April 6, 1686, in the seventy-third year of his age.

ANQUETIL DU PERRON, ABRAHAM HYACINTHE, one of the most distinguished orientalist of the eighteenth century ; he was born in Paris on the 7th of December, 1731, studied theology at the university there, and afterwards at Auxerre and Amersfort ; he then devoted himself with great ardour to the Hebrew, Arabian, and Persian languages, and retired to Paris in order to study them with more advantage. Here his assiduous attendance at the library excited the attention of the abbé Salier, keeper of the manuscripts, who introduced him to some of his friends, by whose means the young Anquetil obtained a small salary, under the title of a student of the oriental languages. Having accidentally laid his hands on some fragments of a manuscript of the *Zend-Avesta*, India became the object of his thoughts, and he cherished the hope of discovering there the holy books of the Parsees.

In the harbour of l'Orient, an expedition was preparing for the East Indies, but the endeavours of his protectors to procure a passage for him were fruitless. Anquetil immediately went to the recruiting captain, enlisted as a private soldier, and set out from Paris with his knapsack on his back in 1754. Struck

with such extraordinary zeal for science, the government allowed him a free passage and a salary. Arrived at Pondicherry, he learned the modern Persian, and then went to Chandernagore, where he hoped to study the Sanscrit. But sickness and the war between France and England frustrated his hopes. Chandernagore was captured, and Anquetil, not to lose the whole object of his voyage, returned on foot to Pondicherry, and embarked for Surat. But in order to explore the interior, as well as the coast of Coromandel, he landed at Mahé, and journeyed on foot to Surat. Here he succeeded by perseverance and address in overcoming the scruples of the Parsees. They instructed him so far in the Zend and Pehlvi that he was enabled to translate the dictionary and some other works from this language. He then resolved to go to Benares, to study the languages, the antiquities, and the sacred laws of the Hindoos, when the capture of Pondicherry forced him to return to Europe. He visited London and Oxford, and returned to Paris in 1762 with 180 manuscripts, and other curiosities. The abbé Barthelmy and his other friends obtained for him a salary, with the office of interpreter of the oriental languages at the royal library. In 1763 he was made a member of the academy of belles lettres.

Anquetil then commenced the arrangement of the materials which he had collected with so much toil; he published in succession the *Zend-Avesta*, the *Spirit of Oriental Legislation*, his historical and geographical researches in India, and his work on commerce. Afterwards, the revolution disturbed his literary labours. To withdraw himself from its horrors, he broke off all connection with society, and shut himself up in his chamber, with no friend but his books, no recreation but the recollection of his dear Brahmins and Parsees. The fruits of this retirement were his work, "*L'Inde en Rapport avec l'Europe*," and the "*Unrevealable Mysteries*;" the latter a translation into Latin of a Persian extract from the Vedas. When the national institute had taken the place of the former academies, he was elected a member, but exhausted by continued labours, and a very abstemious diet, he died at Paris in 1805. Immense learning, acquaintance with almost all the European languages, and a restless activity, were united in Anquetil with the purest love of truth, with sound philosophy, great disinterestedness, and an excellent heart.

ANSELM, archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Aosta, in Piedmont, in 1034, became a monk in 1060, some years later a prior, and in 1078 abbot of the monastery of Bec in Normandy, whither the fame of the celebrated Lanfranc had attracted him. In 1093 he succeeded Lanfranc as archbishop of Canterbury, in England, which place he held till his death. Intelligence and piety distinguish his writings. He endeavoured to discover the most conclusive proofs of the existence of God, which he thought he had finally effected in the *ontological* method, as it is called, of which he is falsely styled the inventor. He inferred the existence of a Supreme and Perfect Being by arguments drawn from the abstract idea of such a Being. Notwithstanding the insufficiency of this proof, which found an early opponent in Gaunilo, a monk at Marmontier, the labours of Anselm were of great importance. Though the influence of the church and the fathers, of St. Augustin in particular, is obvious, he deserves the

praise of having developed the principles of his system of philosophical religion in a decidedly logical form, with acuteness and energy, and of having laid at the same time the foundation of the modern scholastic philosophy. He died in 1099, and will be remembered by his writings, "*De Veritate*," "*De Libertate Arbitrii*," by his "*Monologium*" and "*Prologium*," in the latter of which are his arguments in proof of the existence of a Supreme Being.

ANSGAR or ANSHAR, a distinguished ecclesiastic called the *apostle of the North*, because he introduced Christianity into Denmark and Sweden, who was born in 800, in Picardy, and educated in the monastery of Corvey. He became in 813, a Benedictine. At the instigation of the emperor, Louis le Débonnaire, he went to Denmark in the suite of some baptized Danish princes, and, after many disappointments and persecutions, converted the king and the greater part of the nation. After his return he founded a metropolitan church at Hamburg, and became first archbishop in that place. At this time he undertook a new mission into Denmark, in order to convert King Eric I., and went with recommendations from him to Sweden, where he baptized many converts with the permission of King Olaus. He also baptized the successor of Eric. He died in 865, with the reputation of having undertaken, if not the first, the most successful attempts for the propagation of Christianity in the north. His prudence, the purity and warmth of his religious zeal, and the integrity of his life, are equally praised by his contemporaries.



ANSON, GEORGE, LORD.—This distinguished naval commander was born in 1697, at Shugborough in Staffordshire; he entered early into the navy, and after passing regularly through all the minor grades of the service, he was in his twenty-seventh year raised to the rank of post-captain, and was, for a long time, on the South Carolina station. When, in 1739, the ministry considered a rupture with Spain as unavoidable, he was made commander of a fleet in the South Sea, directed against the trade and the colonies of that nation. The expedition consisted of five men of war, and three smaller vessels, which carried 1400 men. Anson left England with this squadron, September 1740, and was attacked on leaving the straits of le Maire by terrible



storms, which prevented him from doubling Cape Horn for more than three months. Separated from the rest of his squadron, he reached the island of Juan Fernandez, where several of his vessels rejoined him in a very miserable condition. After his men had rested, he proceeded to the coast of Peru, without waiting for the missing ships, made several prizes, and captured and burnt the city of Païta. After a fruitless attempt to intercept the annual Manilla galleon, he found himself obliged to burn, not only a great part of his booty, but all except one of his vessels, in order to equip that one, the Centurion, with which he made his retreat to Tinian, one of the Ladrões. Here the Centurion was blown out to sea while the commander was on shore. Upon this much exertion was made to enlarge and fit out a small vessel, found in the island, but the return of his ship relieved him from this difficulty, and, after some weeks of rest, he sailed for Macao, where he formed a bold plan for taking the galleon of Acapulco. For this purpose he spread the report of his having returned to Europe, but, in fact, directed his course to the Philippines, and cruised near the promontory Spiritu Santo. After a month the expected galleon appeared, which, trusting to its superiority, commenced the fight. But the valour of the English prevailed, and the galleon, worth 400,000*l.*, was taken; the booty gained on the former occasion amounted to more than 600,000*l.* With these acquisitions, Anson returned to Macao, sold his prize, and maintained with energy the rights of his flag against the Chinese government at Canton. From this place he sailed for England, and, passing undiscovered through the French fleet in the channel, arrived at Spithead, June 15th, 1744, after an absence of three years and nine months. This perilous voyage through unexplored seas added much to geography and navigation. Lord Anson subsequently published an account of his discoveries and adventures while in these seas. No performance ever met with a more favourable reception from the public. Four large editions were sold off in less than twelve months, and it was almost immediately translated into most of the European tongues. A few days after his return he was made rear admiral of the blue, and not long after rear-admiral of the white; he was also elected a member of parliament. His victory over the French admiral Jonquiere, near Cape Finisterre, in 1747, raised him to the peerage, with the title of Lord Anson, baron of Soberton. Four years afterwards he was made first lord of the admiralty. In 1758 he commanded the fleet before Brest, protected the landing of the English at St. Maloes, Cherbourg, &c., and received the repulsed troops into his vessels. Finally, in 1761, he was appointed to convey the queen of George III. to England. He died in 1762, on his estate at Moor-park.

ANSPACH (See CRAVEN.)

ANSTEY, CHRISTOPHER, an ingenious poet of the eighteenth century, who was son of the reverend Christopher Anstey, D. D., and born in 1724. He was educated at Bury St. Edmunds, whence he removed to Eton. In 1754 he succeeded to his paternal property, when he married Ann, daughter of Felix Calvert, Esq., of Albury-hall, Herts. He then took up his permanent residence at Bath. He had long cultivated poetry; but most of his early productions were Latin translations of English popular

poems, one of which was Gray's *Elegy*. It was not until 1766 that his humorous production, the *New Bath Guide*, was published, which at once became highly popular, and, as usual, led to numerous imitations.

Some notion of the coarse style in which the mis-called wit of this poet was invariably clothed, and which was then so very fashionable, may be gathered from a single stanza, forming the opening of his epistle from Bath. We need hardly add that it is creditable to the age in which we live that such wit is now banished to the columns of the very lowest order of periodicals:—

"Dear Mother, my time has been wretchedly spent,  
With a gripe or a hiccup wherever I went;  
My stomach all swelled, till I thought it would burst:  
Sure never poor mortal with wind was so c—st!"

A better style, in which this poet occasionally indulged, is shown in the stanza beneath:—

"Ye beauteous nymphs, and jovial swains,  
Who, deck'd with youthful bloom,  
In gay assemblage meet to grace  
Philander's cheerful dome."

Much of the high fashion that Bath acquired towards the close of the last century, may be ascribed to this poet, who died there in 1805, in his eighty-first year.

ANTAR, or ANDAR, a celebrated Arabian prince, born in the middle of the sixth century, and one of the seven poets whose successful verses, embroidered with gold upon silk, were hung up at the door of the Caaba. He describes in his *Moallaka* his warlike deeds and his love for Abia. The most complete edition is that of Menil, published at Leyden in 1816. Hartmann's German translation, from the English translation by Sir William Jones, was published in 1802. In the Arabian romance of *Antar* the author, Asmai, a renowned grammarian and theologian at the court of Haroun Al Raschid, in the beginning of the ninth century, who first collected the old Arabian traditions, has added to the name, and the heroic adventures of Antar, the other most chivalrous deeds of the Arabians. Sir W. Jones first made us well acquainted with this remarkable and attractive romance. A copy of the original work is in the imperial library at Vienna, besides which there are several others in Europe. This romance gives the most complete idea of the manners and life, of the way of thinking, of the opinions and the superstitions, of the early Arabians, before the time of the prophet; and the fidelity of the picture is even now to be recognized in many features of the modern Bedouins. It is written in the purest Arabic, and ranked among the classics of Arabian literature. Hamilton, secretary of the British embassy in Constantinople, has also translated it into English. A French translation has since appeared at Paris.

ANTHERMUS.—This distinguished Grecian sculptor, with his brother Bupalus, was born in the Isle of Chios. They descended from a family of sculptors, as their great-grandfather Melas, their grandfather Miciades, and their father Anthermus, all practised the same art. The brothers appear to have sculptured in concert.

Among their joint productions was a ludicrous representation of a contemporary poet, Hipponax, who was much deformed in his person, and who is said to have revenged the insult by so bitter a satire on the caricaturists that they put an end to their lives from vexation. But the account given of these artists by



Pliny disproves the story of this tragical catastrophe, as he represents them as not only surviving the attack of their poetical foe, but as having been subsequently employed in forming many celebrated statues. One of these was a figure of Diana, in the temple of Chios, which, being placed in a very peculiar position, appeared to frown on those who were entering, and to smile on those who were quitting the portal. These statues appear to have formed a high estimate of their own and their father's talents; for they placed inscriptions on their statues, intimating that Chios was not only remarkable for its vines, which yielded fruit of peculiar excellence, but for Anthernus and his sons, who made so many beautiful and curious images.

ANTHING, FREDERICK, known by his biography of the celebrated Field-marshal Suwaroff, whose companion in arms he had been. He was born in Gotha, travelled through Europe, and went to Petersburg, where he lived by taking *silhouettes* (profiles cut in paper), which just then had come into fashion. The likenesses of this sort which he took of the imperial family first made him known. He was for a long time on the most intimate terms with Suwaroff, till this general fell into disgrace with the emperor Paul. Anthing died in 1805 at St. Petersburg.

ANTIGONUS, one of the generals of Alexander, to whom, after his first conquests in Asia, he entrusted the government of Lycia and Phrygia. Antigonus not only defended his provinces with very small forces, but also subdued Lycia. When, after the death of Alexander, his generals divided his conquests among themselves, he obtained the Greater Phrygia, Lycia, and Pamphylia. Perdiccas, who strove to unite all the states of Alexander under his own dominion, and who feared the energy of Antigonus, accused him of disobedience to the commands of the king. He however saw through his intentions, embarked secretly for Europe, and connected himself with Craterus and Antipater. These three then, together with Ptolemy, declared war against Perdiccas. The latter was killed by his own soldiers; but Eumenes, the general of Perdiccas, was still very powerful in Asia. Antigonus continued the war against him alone, got him into his power, and put him to death. Thus, in a short time, he became master of almost all Asia; for Seleucus, who reigned in Syria, and had endeavoured to oppose his usurpations, was likewise overpowered by him, and sought shelter with Ptolemy. Antigonus possessed himself, also, of the greater part of the treasures of Alexander at Ecbatana and Susa, but would not render an account of them to Ptolemy, Cassander, and Lysimachus, and even declared war against Cassander, in order to revenge, as he said, the death of Olympias, and to deliver the young Alexander, who lived with his mother, Roxana, at Amphipolis. Disgusted by his ambition, all the generals united themselves against him; and, whilst Cassander attacked Asia Minor, Ptolemy and Seleucus invaded Syria, where they defeated Demetrius, the son of Antigonus. Seleucus retook Babylon; but as soon as Antigonus was apprized of these events, he returned and obliged Ptolemy to retreat. Demetrius recovered Babylon from the hands of Seleucus. Antigonus, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Cassander concluded a treaty of peace, by which they were to retain, till the majority of the young Alexander, who bore the title of king, the territories in their possession. But, after the murder of the young king, with his mother, by Cassander, the war was

rekindled among the competitors. Antigonus took the royal title, but was obliged to give up his plan of conquering Egypt, as part of his fleet was lost at sea in a storm, and Ptolemy frustrated every attempt at invasion by land. Soon afterwards young Demetrius drove Cassander from Greece. He applied for aid to Lysimachus, who went with a powerful army to Asia, where Seleucus also joined him. Near Ipsus, in Phrygia, 301 B. C., a battle was fought by the three allies against Antigonus and his son, in which Antigonus fell, aged eighty-four years.

There are several other persons of the name of Antigonus mentioned in history. We may particularly notice Antigonus, king of Judea, son of Aristobulus. He besieged Jerusalem, was taken prisoner by Herod, and sent to Mark Antony, who put him to death, B. C. 36.

Antigonus Gonatas, son of Demetrius Poliorcetes. He was distinguished by his mild and humane disposition. At his father's death he succeeded him in the kingdom of Macedon, and all his other European dominions. He died, after a peaceful reign of thirty-four years, B. C. 243. Demetrius II. succeeded him.

ANTINOUS, a young Bithynian, whom the extravagant friendship of Adrian has immortalized. Whether he threw himself into the Nile, with the intention of preserving the life of Adrian, whom he accompanied on his travels, or because weary of his own life, is not now known, but Adrian set no bounds to his grief for his loss. Not satisfied with giving the name of his favourite to a newly-discovered star in the galaxy (which appellation is still preserved), he erected temples in his honour, called cities after him, and caused him to be adored as a god throughout the empire. His image was therefore represented by the arts in every way. Several of these figures belong to the finest remains of antiquity, particularly the statue called the Antinous of Belvedere, in the Vatican, found in the bath of Adrian, and the Antinous of the capitol, found in the villa of Adrian at Tivoli. Antiquaries, however, differ much in opinion respecting these statutes, and many will not believe that they represent Antinous, but recognize in them the characteristics of certain heroes or gods. This dispute is difficult to be decided, because the artists, who represented him as a god, chose divine ideals, to which they gave his features. The Vatican statue which is known by the name of Antinous is probably a Hermes, the Capitoline probably a Hermes-Antinous, "In all the figures of Antinous," says Winckelman, "his countenance has something melancholy; his eyes are always large, with good outlines; his profile gently descending; and in his mouth and chin there is something expressed which is truly beautiful."

ANTIOCHUS, the name of several celebrated Syrian kings, in Roman history. The first who bore this name was a Macedonian. He was a general of King Philip, father of the celebrated Seleucus by his wife Laodice. The son of the latter Antiochus Soter, carried on many unsuccessful wars, and is chiefly known for his love of his step-mother, Stratonice. Though he endeavoured to subdue his passion it threw him into a lingering sickness, which continued till the king's physician, Erasistratus, discovered the cause, and disclosed it to his father, who, from love to his only son, gave him his young and beautiful bride in marriage. One of his descendants was Antiochus the Great, who succeeded his brother Seleucus Ceraunus, as king of Syria, 244 years B. C. He chastised Molo



governor of Media, and conquered Ptolemy Philopator, who was obliged to surrender all Syria.

He was no less successful against the Parthians, and at length engaged in a contest with the Romans. This is the celebrated war of Antiochus, for which, with the aid of Hannibal, he made great preparations. He did not, however, enter fully into the plans of this general, and sent only one army to Greece, which remained inactive, and was defeated first at Thermopylæ, and several times by sea, till at length he became so disheartened that he did not even contest with the Romans the passage into Asia Minor, where they gained a victory at Magnesia, and obliged him to contract a disgraceful peace. Afterwards, attempting to take away the treasures from the temple of Jupiter Elymeus, he was slain, with all his followers. His second son Epiphanes, who is represented in the history of the Maccabees as a most cruel oppressor of the Jews, attacked the Egyptian king, Ptolemy Philopator, and laid siege to Alexandria. But he afterwards abandoned it, as well as all Egypt, where the Romans took the part of Ptolemy. Many other Syrian kings, under the name of Antiochus, with various surnames, succeeded till at last Antiochus Asiaticus was expelled from his dominions by Pompey, and Syria became a Roman province.

ANTIPATER, a distinguished general, who fought under Philip of Macedon. Alexander left him governor of Macedonia when he went to Asia. Although he filled this post with honour, reducing to obedience Memnon, a seditious governor of Thrace, and, after a hard-fought battle, overcoming the Spartans, who were struggling for independence, yet Olympias, the mother of Alexander, with whom he was constantly at variance, succeeded in making him an object of her son's suspicion, so that he summoned him to his presence in Asia, and appointed Craterus governor of Macedonia. But Alexander died before this change was accomplished. Antipater received Macedonia and Greece in the well-known division of the empire, and was appointed guardian of the child with which Roxana, Alexander's widow, was then pregnant. Soon after he was involved in a war with all the powers of Greece. At first he was unsuccessful; but, when Leonatus and Craterus came to his assistance, the Greeks again submitted. This war was followed by another with Perdicas, which terminated as successfully. Antipater died 317 years B. C., at an advanced age, having confided to Polysperchon the guardianship of the young king. The assertion that he caused Alexander to be poisoned is wholly unfounded.

There is a celebrated poet of the same name who was born at Sidon. He was much praised by Cicero, according to whose account he appears to have possessed considerable powers as an extemporaneous poet. He flourished about 140 years before the Christian era; and is well known for his epigrams, some of which are preserved in the *Anthology*, but we subjoin a portion of a poem addressed to Anacreon, which place him in a much higher rank as a writer.

Around the tomb, oh bard divine!  
Where soft thy hallow'd brow reposes,  
Long may the deathless ivy twine,  
And summer pour her waste of roses.

And many a fount shall there distil;  
And many a rill refresh the flowers;  
But wine shall gush in every rill,  
And every fount be milky showers.

Thus, shade of him whom nature taught  
To tune his lyre and soul to pleasure,  
Who gave to love his warmest thought,  
Who gave to love his fondest measure,—

Thus, after death, if spirits feel,  
Thou may'st from odours round thee streaming  
A pulse of past enjoyment steal,  
And live again in blissful dreaming.

ANTISTHENES, the celebrated founder of the sect of the Cynics: who was born at Athens, 421 years B. C. He enjoyed the instructions of the sophist Gorgias, and followed the profession of a rhetorician; but, after he had heard Socrates, he renounced the vain ornaments of eloquence, in order to devote himself entirely to philosophy. From the doctrines of Socrates he acquired that zeal for virtue, and that unexampled hatred to vice, by which the school that he founded is distinguished. He made virtue to consist in voluntary abstinence, and independence of exterior circumstances; and he despised wealth, honours, sensual pleasure, and even knowledge. He aimed to reduce body and mind to the fewest possible wants; nor did he hesitate to appear publicly as a beggar, with a wallet on his back and a staff in his hand. Plato perceived the true design of this strange behaviour. "I see thy vanity," said he to him, "through the holes of thy coat." The eccentricity of his behaviour induced many to imitate him. His most distinguished scholar was Diogenes. The latter is celebrated for the firmness and vivacity of his mind, and the originality of his remarks; but the conduct of Antisthenes was more dignified. He was unalterably a virtuous citizen. He first attacked the accusers of Socrates, procured the banishment of one of them, and the death of another. His conversation was agreeable, and is praised in the *Symposium* of Xenophon. After the death of Socrates, he took up his abode in the Cynosarges, a school of Athens, from which circumstance some suppose the school derived its name. The opinions of Antisthenes are well known, though his numerous works are all lost: for the letters published under his name are considered spurious.

ANTOINETTE, MARIE JOSEPH JEAN DE LORRAINE.—This amiable but unfortunate queen was the daughter of Francis I. She was born at Vienna, November 2, 1755, and, having received a careful education, obtained an acquaintance with various branches of knowledge. Nature had bestowed upon her an uncommon share of grace and beauty. In a letter of Maria Theresa to her future husband, she says, among other things, "Your bride, dear dauphin, is separated from me. As she has ever been my delight, so will she be your happiness. For this purpose have I educated her; for I have long been aware that she was to be the companion of your life. I have enjoined upon her, as among her highest duties, the most tender attachment to your person, the greatest attention to every thing that can please or make you happy. Above all, I have recommended to her humility towards God, because I am convinced that it is impossible for us to contribute to the happiness of the subjects confided to us, without love to him, who breaks the sceptres and crushes the thrones of kings according to his own will."

The departure of Marie Antoinette from Vienna filled the capital with sorrow. Her arrival at Strasbourg, and her journey to Compiègne, where Louis XV. and the dauphin received her, and to Versailles,

where her marriage took place on the 16th of May, 1770, had the appearance of a triumph. It was subsequently remarked that, immediately after the marriage ceremony, a fearful thunder-storm, such as had scarcely ever before been witnessed, threw Versailles and all the surrounding country into the greatest terror. Anxious minds indulged in yet more fearful forebodings, when, at the festivity which the city of Paris prepared on the 30th of May, for the celebration of the dauphin's marriage, through the want of judicious arrangements, a great number of people in the Rue Royale were pressed or trodden to death in the crowd. Fifty-three persons were found dead, and about 300 dangerously wounded.

When Marie Antoinette, after the death of Louis XV., became queen, she imitated the example of Louis XII. An officer of the *gardes du corps*, who had formerly displeased her, and now was about to resign, she ordered to remain at his post and forget the past—"Heaven forbid that the queen should avenge the injuries of the dauphiness!" By this line of conduct she won the hearts of the people. Shortly after, however, she drew upon herself the hatred of the court party, who used every means to make her odious to the nation. She was accused, in pamphlets, of continually contriving plots; and though none of the accusations could be proved, and many of them were wholly improbable, yet it must be confessed that the young and inexperienced queen gave cause for them. Her lively imagination often gave her the appearance of levity, and sometimes of dissimulation. A natural restlessness led her to change, to new fashions, and also to a continual alteration in the pastimes of the court. Great sums of money were by this means taken from more important objects; and it was still more to her disadvantage that she injured her dignity by neglecting the strict formality of court manners. Besides, she expressed herself with pettishness, in reply to the censures that were passed upon her. Her enemies now spread abroad a report that she was still an Austrian at heart, and a natural enemy to the French, to whose happiness she could no longer contribute.

An extraordinary occurrence added fuel to the flame of calumny, while it subjected the name of the queen to a disgraceful law-suit. Two jewellers demanded the payment of an immense sum for a necklace, which had been purchased in the name of the queen. In the examination which she demanded it was proved that she had never ordered the purchase. A lady of her size and complexion had impudently passed herself off for the queen, and at midnight had a meeting with a cardinal in the park of Versailles. Notwithstanding this the enemies of the queen succeeded in throwing a dark shade over her conduct, and, when Calonne reported a great deficiency in the finances, the cause was blindly attributed to the queen's extravagance. At length it became necessary to summon a meeting of the states general. The queen was present at the opening of the first session; but from that moment her tranquillity was gone. Events soon followed which put her courage to the test. She appeared with her husband at the banquet, which the *gardes du corps* gave at Versailles to the officers of the troops of the line, where, soon after the departure of the court, the national cockade was trampled on. This excited the Parisians still more against the queen.

They regarded her as the soul of the party which, at that time, was collecting an army against Paris, and against the national assembly. In consequence of this the Parisians rushed violently to Versailles, broke into the palace, murdered several of the bodyguards, and uttered against the queen the most furious threats. In the middle of the night a clergyman wrote to her, "Take measures for your preservation; early in the morning you are to be murdered." She remained tranquil and concealed the letter. At the hour named, the infuriated mob rushed into her chamber; she fled to the king. To put a stop to the scene of murder, the king and queen showed themselves, with both their children, in the balcony. This spectacle made a momentary impression upon the enraged people; but soon the cry resounded from every mouth, "No children! the queen—the queen alone!" She instantly put her son and daughter into the arms of the king and returned to the balcony. This unexpected courage disarmed the mob; their threats were followed by shouts of approbation. The same day she was obliged to view a most fearful spectacle for six hours, on her way to Paris. Before her carriage were borne on pikes the heads of two guards, and intoxicated furies surrounded her, uttering the most horrid imprecations. When she was questioned, respecting the scene that had just ended, by the officers of justice, who desired to punish the guilty, she replied, "Never will I accuse one of the king's subjects;" and, when the question was repeated, "I have seen all, I have heard all, I have forgotten all," was her answer. The first month after her arrival in Paris she expended 300,000 livres in redeeming clothes pledged by the poor to the pawnbrokers; but all her benefits were insufficient to appease their exasperated minds.

In 1791, when Louis XVI. determined to flee, she followed her husband, though she saw the attempt was fruitless. From Varennes she was brought back to the Tuileries, and, when the committee of the constituent assembly demanded an explanation, she answered, "As the king wished to depart with his children, nothing in the world could hinder me from accompanying him. I have given sufficient proof for these two years that I would never desert him. What made me more decided on that point was the firm conviction that the king would never leave France; if he had wished to do so, I should have employed every effort to restrain him." This tempest was followed by a momentary calm. In the mean time came on the 20th of June and the 10th of August, 1792. Prepared for whatever might happen, on the latter of these days the queen exerted all her power to excite her husband to meet death sword in hand. Led with him into the legislative assembly, she heard his deposition announced, together with the appointment of his judges, and then went with him to the temple. None of her female attendants were suffered to accompany her. Here she occupied a most miserable chamber, with her daughter and the princess Elizabeth. Close bars of iron secured the window, admitting only a glimmering light. She now exhibited the full strength of her character. Invariably calm in the circle of her friends, she urged them to disregard sickness and suffering. When Louis XVI. informed her of his condemnation, she congratulated him on the approaching termination of an existence so painful,



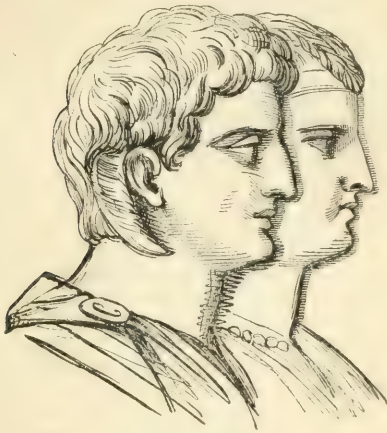
and the unperishing reward that should crown it. After her husband's death, she asked nothing of the convention but a mourning-dress, which she wore the remainder of her days. On the 4th of July, 1793, she was separated from her son. She felt that this separation was for ever, yet her firmness was unchanged.

At midnight, on the 5th of August, she was removed to the keeper's house. A dark and damp dungeon here was her last abode. On the 3rd of October the convention ordered her to be brought before the revolutionary tribunal. She was charged with having dissipated the finances, exhausted the public treasury, given large sums out of it to the emperor, with having corresponded with foreign enemies, and favoured domestic tumults. But, notwithstanding the multitude of witnesses who were examined, no evidence could be brought against her, and her defender, Chauveau-Lagarde, exclaimed justly, "I am embarrassed, not to find answers, but plausible accusations." Bailly, then mayor of Paris, who was summoned as a witness, had the courage to take the queen under his protection, without hesitation, and to censure, with the greatest severity, her blood-thirsty accuser, Fouquier-Tinville, for his testimony, which all might see to be false. The queen herself replied to all enquiries with firmness and decision. When Hébert shamefully accused her of having seduced her own son, she answered, with the deepest indignation, "I appeal to every mother here, whether such a crime be possible." She heard her sentence of death with perfect calmness, and when she was carried back to her prison, after sitting eighteen hours, fell into a gentle sleep. The next day, at eleven o'clock, she ascended the cart which conveyed her to the scaffold. Great efforts were made to induce the people to insult her on the way, but a deep silence reigned. The charms for which she was once so celebrated were gone. Grief had distorted her features, and, in the damp unhealthy prison, she had almost lost one of her eyes. Her look seemed to fill the fierce people with awe. At twelve o'clock the cart arrived at the place of Louis XV. She cast back a long look at the Tuileries and then ascended the scaffold. When she came to the summit, she threw herself on her knees and exclaimed, "O God, enlighten and affect my executioner! Farewell, my children, for ever; I go to your father!" Thus died the queen of France, in the thirty-eighth year of her age; and if the most devoted heroism, united with the most exemplary piety, deserve an undying trophy in the records of history, such a one should be reared for Marie Antoinette. Her death was the darkest stain on the progress of the great revolution which polluted, whilst it in some measure revived, France.

ANTONIUS, MARCUS, the celebrated Roman triumvir, was the son of Marcus Creticus. Dissipation and folly marked his youth, and in the company of young men devoted to pleasure, like himself, he acquired those habits of illicit indulgence which accompanied him through all the succeeding periods of his life. After spending some time in Greece in warlike exercises and the study of eloquence, he went into Syria, and made a campaign under Gabinius. He assisted the same general in restoring Ptolemy Auletes to the throne of Egypt: and in both countries he afforded frequent and striking proofs of great military talents. From Egypt he went to Gaul, where Julius Cæsar was, to whose party he had

been brought over by the influence of his friend Curio. In the official characters of quæstor, tribune of the people, and augur, to which, through the recommendation and interest of Cæsar, he was successively appointed, he enjoyed the most favourable opportunities of promoting the cause which he had espoused. These he improved with great industry; but finding at last that the senate was decidedly hostile to his views, and being ordered by the consul Lentulus to leave the assembly, he went immediately in disguise to Cæsar, and complained not only of the treatment he had personally received, but that affairs at Rome were now conducted without order or justice, or regard to the rights of the people. On this representation, Cæsar, who wanted such a pretext, marched into Italy, from which he soon drove out his rival; and, having proceeded against the legions which Pompey had in Spain, he entrusted the command of the army at Rome to Antony. In the progress of the civil war, Antony was of the greatest service to Cæsar; and he signalized himself in several actions, both by sea and land. On his return to Rome he married Fulvia the widow of Clodius, and was shortly afterwards raised to the consular dignity: at the feast of the Lupeclia he thrice offered Cæsar an imperial diadem, which was as often refused. This being deemed a scheme concocted to try the feelings of the people, a conspiracy was formed which ended in the death of that ambitious leader. The conduct of Antony on this trying occasion was able, artful, and bold. As soon as he heard of Cæsar's death, he retired in disguise, but shortly after invited the conspirators to amicable conference, and went so far as to get an act of oblivion passed, and also procured provincial appointments both for Cassius and Brutus. He gradually, however, threw off the mask, and, equally ambitious as Cæsar had been, he instantly formed a plan to supplant Brutus in the affections of the people. For this purpose he pronounced a funeral oration over the body of the dictator, in which he adverted to every circumstance that could move the pity or rouse the indignation of the multitude, and succeeded so well that the conspirators, to avoid the rage of the populace, were under the necessity of retiring from the city. Anthony having obtained possession of all Cæsar's papers, containing his journals of the past and his plans for the future, and also of Faberius, the secretary by whom they were written, he was able to regulate the army, the senate, and all the other departments of the state, as he found most conducive to his own interests. In the mean time Octavius, Cæsar's nephew, arrived at Rome. Antony, despising his age and inexperience, treated him with great contempt, and they soon came to an open rupture. Taking the field with all the forces they could collect, a general engagement took place near Modena, in which Antony was defeated. He retreated to the other side of the Alps, where Lepidus and Munatius Plaucus were encamped; and, having with some difficulty prevailed upon them to join him, he marched back into Italy with a large army. But Octavius, who perceived that Cicero, with whom he had been hitherto united, wished to restore the state to its former liberty, instead of opposing Antony, soon came to an accommodation with him: and at last the two generals, in conjunction with Lepidus, met, and divided among themselves the empire of the world, as if it had been their paternal inheritance.

Thus was formed that infamous triumvirate which marks such a dark and bloody portion of Roman history : and it is probable, from the disposition and influence of Antony, that its atrocities are to be in a great measure ascribed to him. Upon the defeat of Brutus and Cassius at Philippi, a victory chiefly due to his skill and bravery, Antony passed first into Greece, and then into Asia, where he indulged in the most extraordinary splendour. It was here that he first became acquainted with Cleopatra, whose portrait is combined with that of Antony in the medal we have copied beneath. Her character has been differently estimated by different historians, but she was evidently a woman without any moral principle ; and Antony ultimately owed his ruin to her counsels.



On the death of Fulvia, Antony married Octavia, the sister of his colleague, and a new division of the empire took place, in which the East was assigned to Antony, the West to Octavius, and Africa to Lepidus. But this arrangement was soon broken in upon by his ill-treatment of Octavia, from whom he publicly divorced himself, and expelled from his palace in Rome. He then passed into Egypt, and openly opposed the Roman power, by attaching himself to the interests of Cleopatra, who had declared war against his colleagues. The Egyptian queen was the ruin of Antony's cause. She prevented him from putting forth in time that energy which his situation required, and which might have rendered him victorious. She disgusted by her offensive conduct many of his best and ablest friends. She prevailed upon him to fight by sea, where his antagonist was strongest, rather than by land, where his own superiority was almost decisive : and, in short, at every step of his progress she attended him with the most malignant influence. The two fleets fought at Actium ; and Octavius gained a complete victory. Cleopatra, who had insisted on being present, fled in the middle of the engagement. Antony, unmindful of his former fame, and of the brave men who were fighting in his cause, soon followed her, and, being taken into the ship where she was, sat down in silence, and gave himself up to melancholy reflections. Three hundred of his ships were captured ; and his land forces, after waiting several days for his orders or his appearance, and finding that their general Claudius and other officers had stolen away from the camp, surrendered themselves to the con-

queror. For a while Antony lived in retirement, resolving to imitate Timon of Athens, the misanthropist, by hating and distrusting all mankind : but feeling solitude rather irksome, and the charms of Cleopatra still haunting his imagination, he went to reside with her in her palace, and, with a levity of mind approaching to madness, plunged the whole city of Alexandria into dissipation and riot. However he sent a petition to Octavius, praying that he might be allowed to live in Egypt as a private man, or at least to retire to Athens. This petition was rejected by Octavius, who at the same time intimated to Cleopatra that, if she either killed or banished Antony, there was no favour that she might not expect. Octavius hastened to Alexandria by rapid marches, and encamped near the Hippodrome. After a sally, in which Antony gained some advantage, and sending a challenge to Octavius, which was not accepted, he determined to attack the enemy both by sea and land ; but, his Egyptian troops proving faithless, he determined on self-destruction, which he effected, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

The romantic cast of Antony's adventures has rendered him much more conspicuous in history than the real value of his character at all justifies. In short, he was little more than a luxurious sensualist, elevated by circumstances into a rank for which he was in no shape fitted. Antony left seven children by his three wives ; for he had lawfully married Cleopatra after his divorce from Octavia ; and after his death they were all taken under the protection of the latter. The eldest son of Antony was raised to the highest honours by Augustus, but, being suspected of a conspiracy against him, killed himself.

**ANTONINUS PIUS, TITUS AURELIUS FULVIUS.**—This emperor was born at Lavinium, in the neighbourhood of Rome, A.D. 86. His father, Aurelius Fulvius, had enjoyed the consulship, and early in life he succeeded to the same dignity. He was one of the four persons of consular rank among whom Adrian divided the supreme administration of Italy. He then went as proconsul to Asia, and after his return to Rome became more and more the object of Adrian's confidence. By his wife Faustina, the daughter of Anius Verus, whose licentious conduct he wisely endeavoured to conceal from the view of the world, he had four children. They all died but Faustina, who afterwards became the wife of Marcus Aurelius. In 138 he was adopted by Adrian. The same year he ascended the throne, and, under him, the empire enjoyed great tranquillity and happiness. Temperate and simple in his private life, ever ready to assist the necessitous, an admirer of virtue and wisdom, he was truly the father of his people. He often repeated those beautiful words of Scipio, "I had rather preserve the life of a citizen than destroy a thousand enemies." His wise frugality enabled him to diminish the taxes. The persecution of the Christians he speedily abolished. The only wars carried on during his reign were in our own island, where he extended the Roman dominion, and, by raising a new wall, put a stop to the desolating invasions of the Picts and Scots. The senate gave him the surname *Pius*, because, in gratitude to the memory of Adrian, his second father, he had built a temple in honour of him. Conflagrations, floods, and earthquakes spread desolation in many places during his reign, but his generosity did much to mitigate the consequences of these unhappy events.



He died A. D. 161, having reigned twenty-three years, and his remains were deposited in the tomb of Adrian. The senate built a pillar to his memory, which is yet standing, under the name of the *Antonine column*. The whole kingdom lamented him, and the following emperor assumed his name as an honour. It has been said of him, "He is almost the only monarch that has lived without spilling the blood of his countrymen or his enemies."

**ANTONINUS ANNIUS VERUS**, the philosopher, better known by the name of *Marcus Aurelius*. He was born A. D. 121, and ascended the throne A. D. 161, after the death of Antoninus Pius, who had adopted him. He voluntarily divided the empire with Lucius Verus, whom he made emperor and united in marriage with his daughter Lucilla. Brought up and instructed by Plutarch's nephew Sextus, the orator Herodes Atticus, and the famous jurist Volusius Mecianus, he had become acquainted with learned men, and formed a particular love for the Stoic philosophy. While his generals, Statius Priscus, Avidius Cassius, Marcius Verus, and Fronto, overcame the Parthians, conquered Armenia, Babylon, and Media, and destroyed the great city Seleucia, on the Tigris, he devoted his attention to Rome and Germany. The former was laid waste by pestilence, famine, and inundations, the consequences of which he endeavoured to mitigate; the latter kept the Roman territory in continual alarm by frequent invasions, which, however, were always repulsed. At the same time, he undertook to improve the morals of the people, and the administration of justice. After the termination of the Parthian war, both emperors celebrated a triumph, and assumed the title of *Parthicus*.

**ANVILLE, JEAN BAPTISTE BOURGUIGNON D'**, first geographer of the king of France: he was born at Paris, in 1697. A map, which chance put into his hands, first awakened his love for geography. At the age of twelve years he began to sketch regions mentioned in the Roman historians, and directed all his studies to geography. He read the ancients only to ascertain the position of cities, and to fix the limits of the remote kingdoms, of which we find traces in history. Thus he early acquired an extensive knowledge of geography, became acquainted with the learned, and, at the age of twenty-two, received the office of geographer to the king. He now began to examine and set in order the mass of his knowledge, and acquired a peculiar tact, resembling instinct, which was the result of ingenious and careful comparison. Almost every where his accuracy was rewarded by the discovery of truth. The highest estimation is due to him as a critic, and most of his opinions and conjectures have been verified by later enquiries on the spot.

He published 211 maps and plans, and seventy-eight treatises. His atlas of ancient Egypt is the most deserving. His *Orbis Veteribus notus*, and his *Orbis Romanus*, ought to be in the hands of all who read ancient history. So, also, his maps of Gaul, Italy, and Greece. His maps of the same countries for the middle ages are of equal value. His maps of modern times are as good as could be formed of the materials in his possession. He was modest and unassuming, although too irritable when censured. The natural delicacy of his constitution did not prevent him from labouring fifteen hours daily. Two years before his death, his mental powers sunk beneath the infirmities of age. He died in 1782,

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and his valuable collection of maps was purchased by the French government in 1797.

**APELLES**, one of the most celebrated painters of antiquity, who flourished in the time of Alexander the Great. Pliny seems to have been of opinion that Apelles was born in the isle of Cos, and Ovid has the following lines:—

As Venus rising from the ocean's wave  
Is the chief work of the great Coan artist.

He was in high favour with Alexander, who made a law that no other person should draw his picture but Apelles. He accordingly drew him grasping a thunderbolt in his hand. The painting was finished with so much skill and dexterity that it used to be said there were two Alexanders—one invincible, the son of Philip, the other inimitable, the production of Apelles. On one occasion the facility with which Apelles could trace the likeness of an absent person, was of great service to him. The anecdote is thus related:—"A storm forced the painter to take shelter at Alexandria, during the reign of Ptolemy, where a mischievous courtier, in order to do him an unkindness, went to him, and in the king's name invited him to dinner. Apelles went, and, seeing the king in a prodigious passion, told him by way of excuse that he should not have come to his table but by his order. He was commanded to show the man who had invited him, which was impossible, the person who had put the trick upon him not being present. Apelles however drew a sketch of his image upon the wall with a coal, the first lines of which discovered him immediately to Ptolemy." Apelles left many excellent pictures, which are mentioned with great respect by the ancients; but his Venus Anadyomene is considered his master-piece.

**APICIUS**.—There were three ancient Romans of this name, all very illustrious, not for genius, for virtue, or for great or good qualities, but for gluttony, or (if we may soften the term in complaisance to the growing taste of the times, which has given birth to so many treatises on the culinary art) for the art of refining the science of eating. The first lived under Sylla, the second under Augustus and Tiberius, and the third under Trajan. The second however is the most illustrious personage of the three, and is doubtless the same of whom Seneca, Pliny, Juvenal, Martial, &c., so frequently speak. Athenæus places him under Tiberius, and states that he spent immense sums upon his appetite, and invented various sorts of dishes, which bore his name. We learn from Seneca that he lived in his time, and kept as it were a school of gluttony at Rome,—that he spent two millions and a half in entertainments,—that, finding himself in debt, he was forced at length to look into the state of his affairs,—and that, seeing he had but 250,000 livres left, he poisoned himself from an apprehension of being starved with such a sum. Dion relates the same circumstance, and Pliny mentions very frequently the ragoos he invented, and calls him the most perfect glutton that ever appeared. The third Apicius lived under Trajan, and possessed the power of preserving oysters, which he showed by sending Trajan some as far as Parthia, very fresh when they arrived, which procured him high honours from the emperor, who was a great admirer of the culinary art.

**APOLLODORUS**.—This very celebrated painter flourished 410 years before Christ, and was the first who carried the art of light and shade and chiaro-oscuro to any degree of perfection. His genius was

calculated to astonish and to rivet the attention. Pliny informs us that no painter before him could succeed in holding the spectators of his works in the long contemplation of their excellence. One of the most celebrated pictures exhibited a priest at his devotions, "breathless with adoration;" and another Ajax struck with fire from heaven. The latter was preserved at Pergamos. It may be observed that the subject is more bold than any recorded to have been previously chosen by a painter.

APOLLODORUS, a celebrated architect under Trajan and Adrian, was born at Damascus, and had the direction of the magnificent bridge which the former ordered to be built over the Danube, in the year 104. Adrian, who always valued himself highly upon his knowledge of arts and sciences, and hated every one of whose eminence in his profession he had reason to be jealous, conceived a great dislike to this architect. To show Apollodorus that he had no absolute occasion for him, Adrian sent him a plan of a temple of Venus, which was actually built. Apollodorus wrote his opinion very freely, and showed that it was neither high nor large enough, that the statues in it were disproportioned to its bulk; "for," said he, "if the goddesses should have a mind to rise and go out, they could not do it." This induced Adrian to get rid of the architect who had presumed to think for himself, so he banished him at first, and afterwards had him put to death.

APOLLONIUS of Perga, in Pamphylia, one of four authors (Euclid, Archimedes, Apollonius, and Diophantes) whom we must regard as the founders of mathematical science. He lived about 240 B. C., and studied mathematics at Alexandria, among the scholars of Euclid. The most celebrated of his numerous mathematical works is a book on Conic Sections, a branch of the science to which he added much by new inventions and happy explanations.

Apollonius of Rhodes was born at Alexandria, about 230 B. C. As the jealousy of other learned men incessantly persecuted him in his own country, he retired to Rhodes, where he taught rhetoric with so much reputation, and obtained by his writings so much fame, that the Rhodians bestowed upon him the rights of citizenship. He returned to Alexandria to succeed Eratosthenes, as superintendent of the library of that city. Of his various works we have only the "Argonautica," a poem of moderate merit, though written with much care and labour. There are some passages however of great beauty, especially the episode on the love of Medea.

Apollonius of Tyana, in Cappadocia, was born in the beginning of the Christian era, and became a follower of the Pythagorean philosophy. Euthydemus, the Phœnician, instructed him in grammar, rhetoric, and the various philosophical systems, and Euxenus of Heraclea taught him the Pythagorean philosophy. He felt an irresistible desire to become a disciple of Pythagoras, according to the rigid rules of his sect. At Egæ there was a temple consecrated to Æsculapius, where this god was said to work miracles for the cure of the sick. To this temple Apollonius repaired, and, in obedience to the precepts of Pythagoras, he abstained from all animal food, and lived only on vegetables, drank no wine, dressed in a stuff prepared from plants, went barefooted, and suffered his hair to grow. The priests of the temple instructed him, and initiated him into

their mysteries. He established a philosophical school, and enjoined silence upon himself for five years. During this time he visited Pamphylia and Cilicia, and afterwards Antioch, Ephesus, and other cities. He then determined to pass beyond Babylon to India, in order to become acquainted with the doctrines of the Bramins; and, as his scholars refused to follow him, he began his journey alone. At Babylon he conversed with the Magi, and departed thence, with rich presents, on his way to Texella, where Phraortes, king of India, had his seat of government, who gave him letters of introduction to the first among the Bramins. After several months he returned to Babylon, from whence he proceeded to Ionia, and visited several cities. His fame every where preceded him, and the people came forth eagerly to meet him. He publicly reproached them for their indolence, and recommended a community of goods, according to the doctrines of Pythagoras. He prophesied pestilence and earthquakes at Ephesus, which afterwards really came to pass. At Athens, he recommended to the people sacrifices, prayers, and a reformation of their morals. In every place which he visited, he maintained that he could prophesy and perform miracles. He then visited Spain, returned through Italy to Greece, and thence to Egypt, where Vespasian made use of him for the support of his authority. Thence he journeyed to Ethiopia, and, after his return, was received as favourably by Titus, who consulted him in all the affairs of government. When Domitian ascended the throne, Apollonius was accused of having excited an insurrection in Egypt, in favour of Nerva. He readily submitted to a trial, and was acquitted. After this he went once more to Greece, and passed over to Ephesus, where he opened a Pythagorean school, and died almost 100 years old. Flavius Philostratus wrote a history of his life, very favourable to him, in eight parts.

APONO, PETER D', a celebrated philosopher and physician of his age, who was born in 1250, near Padua. He studied some time at Paris, and was there promoted to the degree of doctor in philosophy and physic. He was suspected of magic, and prosecuted by the inquisition on that account. "The opinion of almost all authors," says Naude, "is that he was the greatest magician of his age,—that he had acquired the knowledge of the seven liberal arts by means of the seven familiar spirits, which he kept enclosed in a crystal,—that he had the dexterity (like another Pasetes) to make the money he had spent come back into his purse." The same author adds that he died before the process against him was finished, being then in the eightieth year of his age, and that after his death they ordered him to be burnt in effigy, in the public place of the city of Padua, in order to suppress the reading of three books which he had written. The first is the "Heptameron," which is printed at the end of the first volume of Agrippa's work; the second that which is called by Trithemius, "Elucidarium Necromanticum Petri de Apono;" and the last, entitled by the same author, "Liber Experimentorum Mirabilium de Annulis secundum xxviii. Mansiones Lunæ." His body was secretly taken up by his friends, and thus escaped the vigilance of the inquisitors, who would have burnt it. It was removed several times, and was at last placed in the church of St. Augustin, without any epitaph or any mark of honour. The



most remarkable book which Apono wrote was that which procured him the surname of Conciliator.

APPIAN, an eminent historian, who wrote the Roman history in the Greek language. He lived during the reign of the emperors Trajan and Adrian, and speaks of the destruction of Jerusalem as of an event which took place in his time. His Roman history is very peculiar, as he did not compile it in a continued series, like Livy, but wrote distinct histories of all the nations that had been conquered by the Romans, and placed every thing relating to those nations in one connected and uninterrupted narrative. It was divided into twenty-four books. This work has been charged with many errors and imperfections, but it displays a greater knowledge of military affairs than any of the previous historians. In the preface he gives a general description of the Roman empire.

Of all this voluminous work there remains only the portion which treats of the Punic, Syrian, Parthian, Mithridatic, and Spanish wars, with those against Hannibal, the civil wars, and the wars in Illyricum, and some fragments of the Celtic or Gallic wars.

APPIANI, ANDREW, a painter of considerable celebrity, who was born in May, 1754. He was descended from an ancient family, but was so far reduced in circumstances as to be compelled to work with the scene-painters for support, and also to go with his masters from town to town. In Parma, Bologna, and Florence, he had an opportunity of studying the master-works of his art. He visited Rome several times, in order to penetrate the secret of Raphael's style of fresco-painting, and soon excelled in this art every living painter in Italy. He displayed his skill particularly in the cupola of Santa Maria di St. Celso, at Milan, and in the paintings which he prepared for the walls and ceiling of the villa of the archduke Ferdinand, at Monza. Napoleon appointed him royal court painter, gave him the order of the legion of honour and that of the iron crown, and made him member of the Italian institute of sciences and arts. Appiani painted afterwards almost the whole of the imperial family.

His best works are the fresco paintings on the ceiling of the royal palace at Milan, allegories relating to Napoleon's life, and his "Apollo with the Muses," in the villa Buonaparte. Almost all the palaces of Milan have fresco-paintings by him. Napoleon's fall affected Appiani's fortune severely. He died in 1817, in reduced circumstances.

APPIUS CLAUDIUS CRASSINUS, a member of the patrician family of the Claudii. Though cruel and arrogant, like his ancestors, yet he was no sooner appointed consul, when, to gain the favour of the people, he supported the law proposed by the tribune Terentilius, or Terentius, which had for its object a change in the form of government. This occurred B. C. 401. Instead of the usual magistrates, decemvirs were appointed to compose a code of laws for Rome (afterwards called the *laws of the twelve tables*), and to possess sovereign power for a year. He was himself chosen decemvir, and when, after the first year, this office was prolonged for a year more, he was the only one who succeeded, by his influence over the chief men among the people, in being rechosen.

He was now resolved never again to give up his power, and conspired with his colleagues for the

accomplishment of this plan. The same year, the Æqui and Sabines laid waste a portion of the Roman territory. The decemviri collected an army, and marched against the enemy. Only Appius and Oppius remained in Rome, to support the authority of the decemviri, already prolonged beyond the lawful term, when an unexpected event overthrew them. Appius conceived a passion for the daughter of Virginius, a plebeian, who was absent with the army. He could not lawfully marry Virginia, who was betrothed to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people; he therefore persuaded M. Claudius, his client, with several associates, to carry her off by violence from the public school where she was, under the pretence that she was the daughter of one of his slaves. The people compelled him to set her at liberty; but Claudius summoned her immediately before the tribunal, when he decided that the pretended slave should be given up, for the present, to her master. But Numitorius, her uncle, and Icilius, her lover, created such a fearful disturbance that the decemvir was compelled to leave Virginia in the hands of her family; but he declared that he would pronounce his decision the next day. Virginius, summoned by his brother and Icilius, appeared in the forum, with his daughter in a mourning dress. He brought the most indubitable proofs of the groundlessness of the claim; but Appius, trusting to the number of his guards, still endeavoured to detain her as his slave. Virginius asked permission of the decemvir to speak to her nurse, in Virginia's presence, that he might, for his own satisfaction, be convinced of his error. Appius consented. The unhappy father tenderly embraced his daughter, and, suddenly seizing the knife of a butcher who was standing by, plunged it into her bosom, with these words; "Go, free and pure Virginia, to thy mother and thy ancestors." The senators' Valerius and Horatius, who hated the decemvirate, excited a spirit of vengeance in the people, already enraged by the sight of Virginia's body, and Appius could silence the disturbance only by summoning a meeting of the senate. In the mean time, Virginius had related the affair to the army, which marched to Rome, demanding revenge. The decemvirs, seeing they could no longer maintain their authority, resigned their offices, and the senate immediately resolved to restore the tribunes and consuls. Appius died by his own hand, as did also several of his confederates.

APULEIUS, LUCIUS, was born at Madaura, in Africa. He was descended from respectable ancestors, and flourished about the middle and in the latter half of the second century. He studied at Carthage, became acquainted with Greek literature at Athens, particularly with the Platonic philosophy, and thence went to Rome, where, he himself says, he learned the Latin language without a teacher, by great mental exertions. To satisfy his thirst for knowledge, he performed several long journeys, in which he was initiated into various mysteries, again lived some time at Rome, studied law, and returned finally to his own country, where he married a rich widow. Apuleius possessed an uncommon share of wit, though much devoted to religious mysticism and magic. His "Golden Ass," a romance in eleven books, contains wit, humour, powerful satire, and much poetical merit. The finest part of this work is the episode of Psyche, called by Herder "the most tender and elegant of all romances. It is

sufficient to render him immortal, even if he be, as some have supposed, only the narrator, and not the inventor of the story." He was also the author of many works on philosophy and rhetoric, some of which are still extant. The best edition of the "Golden Ass," or the "Metamorphosis" ("golden" was a subsequent addition, to express the value of the book), was published at Leyden in 1823.

AQUINAS, ST. THOMAS, generally called the "Angelical Doctor," was descended from the Counts of Aquino, who were related to the kings of Sicily. He was born in the Terra di Lavoro, in Italy, about the year 1250, and at five years of age was placed in the hands of the monks of Mount Cassino for instruction, and was afterwards removed to the University of Naples. In 1240 he entered into the order of the Preaching Friars, without the consent of his parents, who strongly objected to his becoming an ecclesiastic. In 1244 he went to Paris with the grand master of the Teutonic order, and afterwards removed to Cologne, to hear the lectures of Albertus Magnus. Here he remained till he was invited again to Paris, to read lectures upon the "Book of Sentences," which he did with great applause before a very large audience. In the year 1255 he was created doctor in divinity at Paris. He returned to Italy about the year 1263, and was appointed definitor of his order for the province of Rome; and, having taught divinity in nearly all the Universities of Italy, he resettled at last at Naples, where he received a pension from King Charles. Here he spent his time in study, reading of lectures, and the exercises of piety; and refused the archbishopric of that city when it was offered him by Clement IV. In 1274 he was sent for to the second council of Lyons, by Pope Gregory X., that he might read before them the book which he had written against the Greeks, at the command of Urban IV.; but he became ill on his journey, at the monastery of Fossanova, near Terracina, where he died on the 7th of March, aged fifty years.

Sixtus Senensis, in speaking of Aquinas, says that "He approached so nearly to St. Augustin in the knowledge of true divinity, and penetrated so deeply into the most abstruse sense of that father, that, agreeably to the Pythagorean metempsychosis, it was a common expression among all the men of learning that St. Thomas Augustin's soul had transmigrated into St. Thomas Aquinas." Lord Herbert of Cherbury, in his "Life and Reign of Henry VIII." says "that one of the principal reasons which induced this king to write against Martin Luther was that the latter had spoken contemptuously of Aquinas." The authority of Aquinas has been always very great among the Catholics. He was canonized by Pope John XXII. in the year 1323, and Pius V. gave him, in 1567, the title of the Fifth Doctor of the church, and appointed his festival to be kept with great solemnity.

ARABELLA STUART, commonly called the Lady Arabella. This unhappy and innocent victim of jealousy and state policy was the only child of Charles Stuart, earl of Lennox, younger brother to Henry Lord Darnley, the husband of Mary queen of Scots. She was therefore cousin-german to James I., to whom, previously to his having issue, she was next in the line of succession to the crown of England, being grand-daughter of Henry VII., by the second marriage of his eldest daughter, Margaret. Elizabeth, for some time previous to her decease, held the

lady Arabella under restraint, and refused the request of the king of Scotland to give her in marriage to the duke of Lennox, his kinsman, with a view to remove her from England. The pope had likewise formed the design of raising her to the English throne, by espousing her to the duke of Savoy, which project is said to have been entered into by Henry IV. of France, from a wish to prevent the union of England and Scotland. The detection of a plot of some English nobles to set aside James in favour of Arabella, of which she was altogether innocent, ultimately proved her destruction; for, although left at liberty at the time, yet, when it was some time after discovered that she was secretly married to the grandson of the earl of Hertford, both husband and wife were committed to the tower. After a year's imprisonment, they contrived to escape but the unhappy lady was retaken. Being remanded to the tower, the remainder of her life was spent in close confinement, which finally deprived her of her reason. She died on the 27th of September, 1615, aged thirty-eight years. She possessed talents of a superior order, and a very pleasing person.

ARAM, EUGENE, a man of considerable learning, and remarkable for his unhappy fate. He was born in Yorkshire, in 1704. His early education consisted in learning to read; but, being of a studious disposition, he made great progress in mathematical studies and polite literature, by his own unaided exertions. He acquired the Latin and Greek languages, reading all of the Roman and most of the Greek classics, and also became acquainted with the Oriental and Celtic tongues. The most extraordinary event of his life was the murder of Daniel Clark, a shoemaker, with whom he had been before connected in some fraudulent practices. The murder was concealed fourteen years, and was then accidentally discovered. His wife, from whom he was separated, was the principal witness against him; and, after an able defence, which he read to the court, he was found guilty. After his conviction, he confessed the justice of his sentence, and alleged his suspicion of an unlawful intercourse between Clark and his wife as his motive for the commission of the murder. He attempted to end his life, while in prison, by bleeding, but was revived and executed.

The celebrated novel founded on the incidents in the life of Eugene Aram are not historically correct, but enough of truth remains in the general delineation to warrant us in saying that it conveys a powerful view of his extraordinary and anomalous character.

ARANDA, DON PEDRO PABLO, ABARCA DE BOLEA, COUNT OF, was born in 1719, of a distinguished family in Aragon. He devoted himself to military pursuits; but, as he discovered a remarkably penetrating spirit, Charles III. appointed him his minister at the court of Augustus III. king of Poland, an office which he held for several years. After his return, he became governor-general of Valencia. In 1765 the king recalled him, in consequence of an insurrection that broke out in Madrid, and appointed him president of the council of Castile. Aranda not only restored order, but also effected the expulsion of the Jesuits from the kingdom. The influence of Rome and the priests, however, succeeded in inducing the king to send him on an embassy to France, where he remained for several



years and then returned to Madrid, as counsellor of state. Aranda continued president of the council of state till he declared his opinion respecting the war against France, when he was banished to Aragon. He died there, A. D. 1794, leaving a young widow, but no children. Madrid was obliged to him, in a great degree, for its security, good order, and the abolition of many abuses.

ARATUS, a Greek poet, born at Soli (Pompeopolis), in Cilicia. He flourished about 270 B. C., was a favourite of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and a firm friend to Antigonus Gonatus, son of Demetrius Poliorcetes. We know him only from his poem *Phænomena*, in which he has given us, in correct and elegant verse, all that was then known of the heavens, with their signs and appearances, although there is reason to believe that he was not himself an astronomer. The esteem which the ancients had for this work appears from the fact that it was translated by Cicero, Cæsar Germanicus, and Avienus. Eratosthenes, with many other great astronomers, wrote commentaries on it. The best editions are those by Fell, Oxford, 1672, and by Buhle, published at Leipsic, 1793—1801.

ARBUTHNOT, ALEXANDER, a distinguished member of the early reformed church of Scotland, was born in 1538. He visited France in 1561, and for more than five years, studied the civil and canon law under the celebrated Cujacius. Having taken the degree of licentiate, he returned to Scotland with the view of following the profession of an advocate. This plan he, however, relinquished, and afterwards directed his attention to the study of theology. Having received ordination, he was presented to the living of Arbuthnot and Logie-Buchan. In the year 1569, the principal, as well as some other members of King's College, having been expelled by the ecclesiastical visitor, Arbuthnot was promoted to the vacant office. "By his diligent teaching, and dexterous government," says Spotswood, "he not only revived the study of good letters, but gained many from the superstitions whereunto they were given." He soon afterwards established his character as a man of learning, by the publication of his "*Orationes de Origine et Dignitate Juris.*" This production was honoured with an encomiastic poem by Thomas Maitland, who represents Arbuthnot as one of the brightest ornaments of his native country. He was successively chosen moderator of the General Assemblies which met at Edinburgh on the 6th of August 1573, and on the 1st of April 1577; and the Assembly, on various occasions, charged him with commissions of importance. In the year 1583 he received a presentation to one of the churches of St Andrews; but the king commanded him to remain in his college. When the clergy complained of this arbitrary exertion of the royal prerogative, it was answered by his majesty that he had issued the order with a view to the general interests of the church. It is probable, however, that the real cause of the prohibition was an apprehension lest the removal of Arbuthnot to such a situation might tend to the advancement of the plans which were then in agitation. He is said to have had some bias towards the episcopal form of ecclesiastical polity; but, whatever might be his private sentiments, he adhered with steadiness to the presbyterian party; and his personal influence must at that crisis have rendered him an object of suspicion to the reigning

monarch. Arbuthnot did not long survive this unjust treatment. He died at Aberdeen on the 10th of October 1583, before he had completed the age of forty-five. His learned friend, Andrew Melvil, composed a Latin elegy on his death. The probity and moderation of Arbuthnot seem to have equalled his literary attainments; notwithstanding the violence of the times, his name has never been found subjected to censure. "He was greatly loved of all men," says Spotswood, "hated of none; and in such account for his moderation with the chief men of these parts that without his advice they could almost do nothing, which put him in a great fashion, whereof he did oft complain; pleasant and jocund in conversation, and in all sciences expert; a good poet, mathematician, philosopher, theologian, lawyer, and in medicine skilful; so as in every subject he could promptly discourse, and to good purpose."

ARBUTHNOT, DR. JOHN, a celebrated physician in Queen Anne's reign, who was the son of an episcopal clergyman of Scotland, and nearly allied to the noble family of that name. He received his education in the university of Aberdeen, where he took the degree of doctor of medicine. About 1695 Dr. Woodward's "*Essay towards a Natural History of the Earth*" was published, which contained such an account of the universal deluge as Dr. Arbuthnot thought inconsistent with truth; he therefore drew up a work entitled "*An Examination of Dr. Woodward's Account of the Deluge, &c., with a Comparison between Steno's Philosophy and the Doctor's, in the Case of Marine Bodies dug up out of the Earth,*" which gave him a considerable share of literary fame. His extensive learning and agreeable conversation introduced him by degrees into practice, and he became eminent in his profession. Being at Epsom when Prince George of Denmark was suddenly taken ill, he was called in to his assistance. His advice was successful, and his highness recovering employed him afterwards as his physician. In consequence of this, upon the indisposition of Dr. Hannes, he was appointed physician in ordinary to Queen Anne in 1709, and admitted a fellow of the college, as he had been some years before of the Royal Society.

For many years he carried on a correspondence with Pope, Swift, Gay, and Parnell; and in 1714 he engaged with Pope and Swift in a design to write a satire on the abuse of human learning in every branch, which was to have been executed in the humorous style of Cervantes. But this plan was never put in execution on account of the queen's death when they had only planned an imperfect essay, under the title of the first book of the "*Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus.*"

The following general sketch of his character, from Dr. Johnson's life of Pope, is justified by the testimony of his contemporaries and of his works:—"Arbuthnot was a man of great comprehension, skilful in his practice, versed in the sciences, acquainted with ancient literature, and able to animate his mass of knowledge by a bright and active imagination; a scholar with great brilliance of wit; a wit, who in the crowd of life retained and discovered a noble ardour of religious zeal; a man estimable for his learning, amiable for his life, and venerable for his piety."

The queen's death deeply affected Dr. Arbuthnot's spirits. In 1727 he published "*Tables of Ancient*

Coins, Weights, and Measures," in quarto. He contributed, in 1732, towards detecting and punishing the scandalous frauds and abuses that had been carried on under the specious name of "The Charitable Corporation." The same year he published his "Essay concerning the Nature of Aliments, the Choice of them, &c." which was followed the year afterwards by his treatise on the "Effects of Air on Human Bodies." He was apparently led to the subject of these treatises by the consideration of his own case, an asthma, which, gradually increasing with his years, became incurable. In 1734 he retired to Hampstead, in hopes of finding relief; but he died at his house in Cork Street, Burlington Gardens, in February 1735.

ARCESILAUS, a Grecian philosopher, who is distinguished as the founder of the middle academy. He was a native of Æolis, and born in the first year of the 116th Olympiad, or the 316th year B. C. At Athens he had the advantage of studying under Aristotle and Theophrastus, with the latter of whom, as well as with Zeno, the founder of the Stoic sect, he formed an intimate friendship. After the death of Crates he succeeded to the academic chair; and, having made certain innovations in the Platonic doctrines, is considered as the founder of a new school, called the "Middle Academy."

Plato had taught that true science is conversant, not with the objects which are exhibited to our senses, but with the pure objects of intellect, which have existed from eternity as *ideas*, or forms, in the divine understanding. From this it was an inference that no certain knowledge can be derived from merely sensible objects. Arcesilaus carried the scepticism of the academy a degree further, by maintaining that, whatever certainty there may be in the nature of things, every thing is uncertain to the human understanding,—that truth has no certain characters by which it may be distinguished from error,—and, consequently, that opposite opinions may be supported by arguments of equal weight. He disputed against the testimony of the senses and the authority of reason; but at the same time allowed that they are capable of furnishing probable opinions sufficient for the conduct of life.

Arcesilaus was possessed of wealth, of which he made a liberal and benevolent use. Visiting a sick friend, whom he observed to be in straitened circumstances, he silently conveyed a purse of gold under his pillow. When the sick man discovered it, he said, with a smile, "This is one of the generous frauds of Arcesilaus." This liberality, combined with the urbanity and sweetness of his manners, procured him many followers. But, like Aristippus, he was more addicted to luxury and splendour than was consistent with the character of a philosopher. On this account he was scarcely entitled to the compliment of Cleanthes the Stoic, who said of him, "that though he destroyed morals by his doctrines, he established them by his conduct." On hearing this compliment, Arcesilaus said, "Cleanthes, you flatter me." "Is this flattery," rejoined Cleanthes, "to assert that you say one thing and do another?" He is said to have died at the age of seventy-five, a martyr to excess. The Athenians, however, honoured his memory by a magnificent funeral.

ARCHILOCHUS, a Greek poet, who was born on the island of Paros, about 700 B. C. His turbulent spirit hurried him into the whirlpool of political

party, and he was obliged to leave his country. He retired to Tarsus, where he fought against the Thracians, and lost his shield, more by accident than cowardice. He afterwards visited Greece, but the Spartans banished him from their state; and he gained the laurel crown at the Olympic games for a hymn to Hercules. Some historians state that he was killed in battle; others that he was assassinated.

Archilochus was no less formidable with the pen than with the sword. Lycambes, who had promised him his daughter in marriage, and faithlessly violated his agreement, hung himself in despair on account of the satires in which the offended poet wreaked on him his revenge. With the same severity he persecuted all his fellow-citizens who were unfortunate enough to displease him. His memory was honoured in all Greece so highly that he was placed beside Homer.

With regard to his style as a poet, his iambic poems were celebrated for their force of style, the liveliness of their metaphors, a sententious conciseness, elevated feeling, and a powerful but bitter spirit of satire. Even Horace admits his powers in this respect, where he says—

"To keen iambics I first tun'd our lyre,  
And warm'd with great Archilochus's fire,  
His rapid numbers chose."

In other lyric poems of a higher character he was also considered as a model. He used the half-pentameter verse in his poems, whence this verse is called from him, *Archilochian verse*.

ARCHIMEDES, the most celebrated among the ancient geometricians, was born at Syracuse, about 287 B. C. We cannot fully estimate his services to mathematics, for want of an acquaintance with the previous state of science; still we know that he enriched it with discoveries of the highest importance, upon which the moderns have founded their admeasurements of curvilinear surfaces and solids. Euclid, in his elements, considers only the relation of some of these magnitudes to each other, but does not compare them with surfaces and solids bounded by straight lines. Archimedes has developed the propositions necessary for effecting this comparison in his treatises on the sphere and cylinder, the spheroid and conoid, and in his work on the measure of the circle. He rose to still more abstruse considerations in his treatise on the spiral, which, however, even those acquainted with the subject can with difficulty comprehend.

Archimedes is the only one among the ancient geometricians who has left us any thing satisfactory on the theory of mechanics, and on hydrostatics. He first taught the principle "that a body, immersed in a fluid, loses as much in weight as the weight of an equal volume of the fluid," and determined, by this means, how much alloy an artist had fraudulently introduced. Whilst he was engaged in the solution of this difficulty, he happened to go into the bath, where observing that a quantity of water overflowed, equal to the bulk of his body, it immediately occurred to him that this question might be answered by a similar method, on which he leaped out, and ran home, crying, "I have found it! I have found it!" He then made two masses, each of equal weight with the crown, one of gold and the other of silver: when he had done this, he filled a large vessel to the brim with water, and put the silver mass into it, upon which a quantity of water



overflowed equal to the bulk of the mass; then taking the mass out, he filled up the vessel again, measuring the water exactly, which he put in: this showed him what quantity of water answered to a certain quantity of silver. Then he tried the gold in the same way, and found that it caused a less quantity of water to overflow, the gold being less in bulk than the silver, though of the same weight. Then he filled the vessel a third time, and, putting in the crown itself, he found that it caused more water to overflow than the golden mass of the same weight, and thus ascertained the exact quantity of silver employed to adulterate the gold, and by this means discovered the fraud.

But he became most celebrated for his extraordinary engines, by which the city of Syracuse was so long defended, when besieged by Marcellus. "The various efforts made to carry the place had certainly succeeded sooner," says Livy, "had they not been frustrated by one man: this was Archimedes, famous for his skill in astronomy, but more so for his surprising invention of warlike machines, with which in an instant he destroyed what had cost the enemy vast labour to erect. Against the vessels, which came up close to the walls, he contrived a kind of crow, projected above the wall, with an iron grapple fastened to a strong chain. This was let down upon the prow of a ship, and, by means of the weight of a heavy counterpoise of lead, raised up the prow, and set the vessel upright upon her poop: then dropping it all of a sudden, as if it had fallen from the walls, it sunk so far into the sea, that it let in a great deal of water, even when it fell directly on its keel." However, notwithstanding all his efforts, Syracuse was at length taken by Marcellus, who commanded his soldiers to look to the safety of Archimedes; but he was unfortunately slain by a soldier who did not know him. "What gave Marcellus the greatest concern," says Plutarch, "was the unhappy fate of Archimedes, who was at that time in his museum; and his mind, as well as eyes, so fixed and intent upon some geometrical figures, that he neither heard the noise and hurry of the Romans nor perceived the city to be taken. In this depth of study and contemplation, a soldier came suddenly upon him, and commanded him to follow him to Marcellus; which he refusing to do, till he had finished his problem, the soldier, in a rage, drew his sword, and ran him through." Others again say that "as Archimedes was carrying some mathematical instruments in a box to Marcellus, as sun-dials, spheres, and angles, with which the eye might measure the magnitude of the sun's body, some soldiers met him, and, believing there was gold in it, slew him." Livy says he was slain by a soldier, who did not know who he was, whilst he was drawing geometrical figures in the sand, that Marcellus was grieved at his death, and took care of his funeral, making his name at the same time a protection and honour to those who could claim a relationship to him. Archimedes is said to have been killed about 208 years before the birth of Christ. We have several of his works still extant, but the greater part of them are lost.

ARCHYTAS, of Tarentum, a celebrated Pythagorean, who was distinguished as a mathematician, statesman, and general. He devoted himself, at Metapontum, to the study of the Pythagorean philosophy. Being the contemporary of Plato, he must

have lived a century later than Pythagoras, and was still alive when Plato travelled into Sicily. The invention of the analytic method in mathematics is ascribed to him, as well as the solution of many geometrical and mechanical problems. The invention of the categories in philosophy has been ascribed to him. Horace mentions him, in one of his poems, as having been drowned on the coast of Apulia.

ARCON, JEAN CLAUDE ELEONORE D', the well-known inventor of the floating batteries for the attack of Gibraltar. He was born in 1732 at Pontarlier, and was designed for the church, but his father, a lawyer, yielded to the decided inclination of his son for military science. He was received into the military school at Mézières in 1754, and the following year into the corps of engineers. In the seven years' war he highly distinguished himself, particularly at the defence of Cassel, in 1761.

In 1774 he was employed in drawing a map of the Jura and the Vosges, and, to expedite the labour, he invented a new mode of shading, much superior to the common one. He was gifted with an inventive imagination and an unwearied activity. He wrote much, and in all his writings we find a richness of ideas, and traces of a splendid genius. In 1780 he invented the floating batteries; but the jealousy and disunion of the French and Spanish generals prevented the event answering his expectation. Elliot, however, who directed the defence of Gibraltar, did full justice to the inventor. At the invasion of Holland, under Dumouriez, he took several places, including Breda. He then went into retirement, where he wrote his last and best work, the result of all the rest, "*Considérations Militaires et Politiques sur les Fortifications*" (Military and Political Considerations on Fortifications). The first consul placed him in the senate in 1799, and he died on the 1st of July 1800.

ARENDR, MARTIN FREDERIC.—This learned man, so celebrated for his scientific travels through Europe, was born at Altona in 1769. Being recommended by Count de Reventlow, in 1797, he was appointed an *élève* in the botanic garden at Copenhagen. But his predilection for the study of antiquities led him to the library of the university, where, in the most piercing cold, he spent the principal part of his time in examining the rare works it contained. He travelled in 1798 to Finmark, under the royal patronage. He made accurate observations in Norway and other countries, which had been visited by no stranger before him. The most valuable of his papers, drawings, and treatises, all containing researches respecting northern antiquities, he deposited in the library at Copenhagen. He also published several separate treatises in Paris, and in various cities of Sweden, Germany, and Denmark. He afterwards travelled through Switzerland, Spain, Italy, and Hungary; and was so far reduced in circumstances as to live on the charity of strangers and to sleep in the open air. The persecutions which he endured at Naples, on a suspicion of Carbonarism, contributed much to hasten his death, which took place in the neighbourhood of Venice in 1824.

ARETIN, CHRISTOPHER, BARON OF, was born at Ingolstadt, in December 1772, studied at Heidelberg, under von Zentner, and afterwards at Göttingen and Paris. He was, at one time, involved in the affairs of the Illuminati; and in 1799 and 1800

he urged the abolition of the feudal estates, and the assembling of the diet. In the contest of the Bavarian states with the government, in 1800 and 1801, he was very active as a writer. In 1803, after the abolition of the monasteries, Aretin was appointed commissioner, by the government, to examine their libraries; in 1804 he was made vice-president of the academy of sciences; in 1806 chief director of the library of Munich, and, in 1807, secretary of the first class of the academy of sciences.

One of his works excited a long and violent contest between the learned men of Munich, at the end of which Aretin, by order of the king, laid down his former offices, and, in 1811, went to Neuburg, as first director of the court of appeal; and in 1813 he became vice-president, and drew upon him much persecution. In 1819 he was chosen member of the chamber of deputies in the Bavarian diet, and was one of the most influential men in the assembly. In the same year he became a member of the society for collecting the ancient history of Germany. He died in 1824, at Munich, in the office of president of the court of appeal in the circle of Regen.

ARETIN, FRANCIS, a man of great learning, and well acquainted with the Greek language. He translated into Latin the "Commentaries of St. Chrysostom upon St. John," and about twenty homilies of the same father: he also translated the "Letters of Phalaris" into Latin. He studied at Sienna, about the year 1443; and afterwards taught law there with such success that they called him the Prince of Subtleties. He taught also in the university of Pisa, and in that of Ferrara. He was at Rome under the pontificate of Sixtus IV., but did not stay there long, for he soon perceived that the hopes which he had of success would come to nothing. This pope, however, declared he would have given him a cardinal's hat had he not thought he should have done a public injury, by depriving the youth of such an excellent professor. When old age would not permit him to go through the duties of his office, they dispensed with his reading lectures.

ARETINO, GUIDO, or GUI, a Benedictine monk of the eleventh century, who was born at Arezzo. He is said to have first reduced the science of music to a fixed system, and to have been the inventor of the monosyllables of the *soffeggio*—*ut, re, mi, fa, so, la*—drawn from the words of a Latin hymn. It is far from improbable that Aretino was merely the restorer of the true principles of the ancient Greek music, with which in the course of his studies he became acquainted, through sources which have escaped modern research. It is unnecessary to add that the monosyllable *si*, whence the modern scales of the two modes, major and minor, is a later invention.

ARETINO, LEONARD, a very learned Italian historian, born at Arezzo, in Tuscany, in 1370. At the period of the revival of learning, he was a very distinguished scholar, and, being chosen secretary to the republic of Florence, amassed a large fortune. He died in that capital, highly respected, in the year 1443. He translated Aristotle's Ethics and Politics, and Plutarch's Lives into elegant Latin. His original works are also in Latin.

ARETINO, PIETRO, one of the most celebrated Italian authors of the 16th century. He was born at Arezzo, in 1492, and was the natural son of a nobleman, whose name he never bore. From a

bookbinder's apprentice, became an author, who soon gained the favour of kings. He was, indeed, called their *scourge*, but he was profuse in his adulation to them; and he had many warm admirers, notwithstanding the malignity and severity of his satires. Although he was so licentious a writer that his very name is expressive of profligacy, he wrote many works of devotion, and gave the preference to the latter, if his own interest required it. His reputation gained for him the name of *divine*, by which even Michael Angelo addressed him; and his ostentation led him to adopt the name as his title. He caused medals, therefore, to be struck with an inscription implying that he was the *scourge of princes*, and presented them to several sovereigns. Being banished from Arezzo, on account of a sonnet against indulgences, he went to Perugia, and thence to Rome, where he entered into the service of Leo X., and afterwards of Adrian VI. But on account of the sonnets, which he composed as illustrations of as many designs of Giulio Romano, he was obliged to leave Rome. Giovanni de Medici invited him to his court, and took him to Milan, where he found an opportunity of obtaining the favour of Francis I. After having again visited Rome, he returned to his protector, Giovanni de Medici, who grew more and more attached to him, and died in his arms of his wounds. In 1528 Aretino went to Venice, where he acquired powerful friends, among whom was the bishop of Vicenza, who reconciled the pope to him, and recommended him to Charles V. so strongly that he was presented by him with a golden chain. Francis I., wishing to be equally generous, gave him a similar chain. But when Charles afterwards settled on him a pension of 200 dollars, which liberality Francis did not equal, the former alone received all the encomiums which he had formerly divided between them both. By his devotional writings, he regained the favour of the Roman court, and Julius III., who was also from Arezzo, was so pleased with a sonnet addressed to him by his countryman that he sent him 1000 crowns of gold, and made him knight of St. Peter. Three years afterwards he was introduced, by the duke of Urbino, to the pope, who received him not only with honour, but even with tenderness. His death took place in the following manner:—He had several sisters at Venice, who equalled their brother in licentiousness. As a person was one day relating to him one of their adventures, he was so much amused that he burst into a fit of laughter, and losing his balance fell to the ground, and died soon after, aged sixty-five.

His works consist of several religious compositions; also several comedies and a tragedy, the former is full of wit, and genuine comic humour, and the latter is not without merit; the licentious *Ragionamenti*; and *Puttana errante*; the profligate *Sonetti lussuriosi*; several works in rhyme, *stanze*, *capitoli*, partly laudatory, and partly licentious and satirical; with some unfinished epics complete the list.

ARGENS, JEAN BAPTISTE, MARQUIS D', born in 1704, at Aix. He was designed for the law, but, following his inclination, entered into the military service at the age of fifteen. In 1734, at the siege of Kehl, he was wounded, and afterwards, before Philipsburg, rendered incapable of further service by a fall from his horse. Disinherited by his father, he became an author, and went to Holland, that he might write with more freedom. Here



he published his "Lettres Juives," "Lettres Chinoises," and "Lettres Cabalistiques." Frederic II., then crown-prince, wished to become acquainted with the author, and receive a visit from him. He replied that he should be in danger from Frederic William I. with his six feet six (this king being in the habit of compelling tall men to join his regiment of grenadiers). After the death of the king, Frederic again invited him. D'Argens appeared in Potsdam, received the place of chamberlain, and that of director of the fine arts in the academy, and became the king's daily companion, who loved him for his frankness, but ridiculed his melancholy humour. When almost sixty years old he fell in love with a celebrated actress, and married her without the knowledge of Frederic, who never wholly pardoned him for this act. After the seven years' war, being on a journey to France, the second since his residence in Prussia, to visit his family, he found by the way a forged ordinance of the archbishop of Aix, in which he was excommunicated as a blasphemous. This paper at first made him very melancholy, till he perceived the source of it by the signature, in which Frederic had by mistake written *bishop* instead of *archbishop*. He afterwards received permission to take a journey into Provence, where he died in 1771. Frederic II. caused a monument to be erected to him in the church of the Minorites, in Aix.

His numerous writings, the fruits of an unrestrained freedom of thought, once had some reputation, but now, though instructive, are no longer esteemed, because they are deficient in purity, taste, critical discernment, and sound views.

ARGENSON, DE VOYER, MARQUIS D', was born at Paris in 1771. He was the son of the Lieutenant-general d'Argenson, and descended from one of the most distinguished families in the service of the state. His great-grandfather was lieutenant of the police, his grandfather a minister of war, his great uncle minister of foreign affairs; he was also the friend of Voltaire, and a philosopher as well as a politician. His son, the Marquis de Paulmi, was governor of the arsenal, after having been ambassador to Venice and Poland.

The Marquis d'Argenson was studying at Strasbourg at the time of the king's flight to Varennes, and immediately entered into the military service of his country as the aid-de-camp of Lafayette. When Lafayette was obliged to flee from France d'Argenson retired to his estates, married the widow of the Prince Victor de Broglio, mother of the Duke de Broglio, peer of France, and occupied himself in the education of his children, and in agriculture, in Poitou, where he was a friend to the poor and an example of agricultural industry.

After Louis XVIII. ascended the throne, he was appointed prefect of the department of the Bouches-du-Rhone. Being chosen into the chamber of deputies in 1815, he signed a protest in July of the same year, when the foreign troops in Paris closed the entrance to the chamber. In the electoral college of Vienne he declared the power of the people to modify the constitution an inalienable right, before he took the oath prescribed by law. He always spoke, with the liberal party, in favour of institutions of general utility, and against all exclusive privileges.

ARGYROPYLUS, JOANNES, one of the first

of those learned persons who fled into Italy after the taking of Constantinople by Mahomet II. in 1453, and who contributed to the revival of the Greek learning in the west. Cosmo de Medicis, duke of Tuscany, made him professor of Greek at Florence, and appointed him preceptor to his son Peter and to his grandson Lawrence. In addition to these he had several other illustrious pupils at Florence, to whom he read lectures in the Greek language and philosophy, and among the rest Angelus Politianus. He continued many years in his professorship at Florence, but, the plague at length obliging him to quit it, he went to Rome, where he publicly read lectures upon the Greek text of Aristotle. He died from an imtemperate eating of melons, in the seventieth year of his age. He was allowed by all to have possessed great learning, but it does not appear to have civilized or softened his manners; for he is represented as having been very capricious and very morose. He affirmed that Cicero understood neither the Greek language nor philosophy; and he is supposed to have conceived a peculiar dislike against Cicero for saying that the Greek was a language both poor and scanty in words. He was a great epicure, and spent all his income, though very considerable, in eating and drinking.

ARIOSTI, ATTILIO, a musical composer of eminence, born at Bologna. He is said to have given lessons to Handel in his childhood, in conjunction with whom and with the celebrated Bononcini he afterwards produced the opera of "Muzio Scevola," Ariosti composing the music of the first act, Bononcini the second, and Handel the third. He likewise composed several other operas in England about the year 1721, at which time the Royal Academy of Music was established, and is said to have introduced into that country, for the first time, the instrument called the *viol d'amour*, on which he performed a new symphony at the sixth representation of Handel's Amadis, on the 12th of July, 1716, soon after his arrival. He then went abroad, but again returned in 1720, and composed several operas as already stated. He once more left England, after publishing a book of cantatas by subscription, and the place and date of his death are unknown.

ARIOSTO, LODOVICO.—This distinguished Italian poet was born at the castle of Reggio, in Lombardy, September 8th, 1474. He was the son of Nicolo Ariosto of Ferrara, major-domo to the duke of Este, and when a child was highly distinguished for his poetical and dramatic talents. His father, though a man without any literary acquirements, appears to have been anxious to give his son such an education as would fit him for the study of the law, and for this purpose sent him to Padua, where he spent nearly five years, without however making much progress under the professors of that university. When he had attained his twenty-first year his father died, and Lodovico at once quitted the profession of the law to devote himself entirely to the study of poetry. His earliest compositions were in the Latin language, and, to increase his acquaintance with the ancient classical authors, he placed himself under the tuition of Gregory of Spoleti.

In 1503 Lodovico entered into the service of Cardinal Hippolito of Este, whose court was frequented by the most learned men of the age. He was, in the first instance, appointed one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, but the cardinal, discovering that his

abilities were not confined to poetry, employed him in several important political missions. His patron's brother, in 1509, joined in the league of Cambray against the Venetians; and, Cardinal Hippolito having been appointed general of the troops of Ferrara, Ariosto received a military appointment. He behaved with great bravery, and has left a lasting memento in the Orlando Furioso of the atrocities that he witnessed on the banks of the river Po, when fighting against the Venetians. At this period Ariosto devoted himself to the study of music, and the accompanying illustration furnishes a masterly delineation of the poet when engaged at his favourite recreation.



In 1510 the duke of Ferrara was excommunicated by Pope Julius, and Ariosto was sent to deprecate the wrath of the pontiff. On this occasion he narrowly escaped with his life, as the pope issued instructions for his being thrown into the Tiber, a result which was prevented only by his instant flight from Rome. On the elevation of Leo X. to the papal chair, Ariosto was sent to Rome to congratulate the new pontiff. He was very graciously received, but, after many flattering promises and offers of patronage, he in reality could obtain no greater concession than the issuing of a bull from the papal chancery, which ensured to him the profits of his own literary labours. Having grown tired of waiting for some more substantial favour from his holiness, he, after the lapse of a few months, quitted Rome in disgust and returned to Ferrara, devoting his leisure to the study of dramatic poetry.

Like most other distinguished poets, Ariosto wrote with great labour; and it is affirmed by one of his contemporaries that a single stanza of the Orlando Furioso was altered more than sixty times, and that he even then expressed himself dissatisfied with it. But this apparent fastidiousness is one of the attributes of true genius; and those who have seen the corrected MSS. of the greatest poets in our own day will readily admit that they must have felt in its fullest sense the force of the axiom, that the easiest writing is not the most profitable reading. The hand-writing of Ariosto is of rare occurrence in the present day, and the lapse of four centuries appears to have swept away almost every trace of his personal identity. We are, however, enabled to give his

autograph, originally copied from a letter in the public library of Ferrara.

*Lod Ariosto*

Ariosto now applied himself unceasingly to his great work, the Orlando Furioso, and it was ultimately completed and published in 1516. Any thing like an analysis of this extraordinary poem must of necessity be out of the question, and it may be enough to state that it is descriptive of the war carried on between Charlemagne and the Saracens. It ends with the expulsion of the Moors from France, and the subsequent death of their king Agramante. Orlando, the frantic hero of the poem, owes his madness to the infidelity of Angelica, and in this state commits a thousand absurdities, each more ridiculous than the worst of those committed by the well-meaning knight of Cervantes. He is ultimately cured by Astolfo, who brings back his reason in a phial from another world.

With such materials as those we have described, it is at first view difficult to comprehend how the poet could have built up a superstructure which ultimately placed this work amongst the most extraordinary productions of his own or any other land. But our own great dramatic poet did not owe the well-earned eminence he attained to the exhibition of the Weird Sisters in Macbeth—"Old women with broomsticks," as a foreign critic terms them—but to his masterly delineations of the human character, and his powerful conception of the effects of ambition when that passion is allowed to hold the mastery over creatures of "mere mortal mould." Just so it is with the Orlando. The poem abounds with incongruities, and Ariosto deals largely in enchanters, harpies, and other strange monsters; but then he identifies them with our feelings, and yet he renders them consistent in their character with the world he has formed for them. Our space admits, however, but of a single extract. It is selected from the opening of the forty-fourth book, and it will be seen, from the accompanying translation, that our poet had no mean powers both as a moralist and satirist:—

"Oft in the lowly roof, the humble cell  
Of poverty, where pain and sorrow dwell,  
Sincerer virtues in the breast we meet  
Than in the stately dome and regal seat.  
Where lords and kings are nursed in courtly wiles,  
'Midst deep suspicions and insidious smiles,  
Where love and charity no place can claim,  
And sacred friendship lives not but in name.  
Kings, popes, and emperor, leagues of peace compose,  
To-day are friends, to-morrow deadly foes:  
What e'er they seem, their thoughts in secret bear  
No semblance oft to what their lips declare:  
Nor right nor wrong they heed, but only prize  
Those measures most where most advantage lies.  
All these in courts have ne'er the blessings tried  
Of god-like truth, for truth can ne'er reside  
Where, or in deep debate or sportive vein,  
The tongue, in speaking, only speaks to feign.  
Yet these, when once by adverse fortune led,  
Beneath the covert of some rustic shed,  
May bend their souls to friendship's purer lore,  
And taste a happiness unknown before."

Ariosto was necessitated to publish the Orlando Furioso on his own account, and, after paying the expense of paper and printing, received rather more than a shilling a copy from a bookseller for the work.

Ariosto appears to have been as unfortunate in his choice of a patron as in his efforts at procuring a



publisher; for when he presented his work to Cardinal Hippolito, to whom it was dedicated, he is said to have asked where he contrived "to pick up such a mass of absurdities."

In 1518 the cardinal retired to Gran, in Hungary, and was desirous of taking Ariosto with him as a permanent resident; but the poet, wearied with the fatiguing attendance his patron required, and disgusted by the reception he had given to his poem, at once retired from his service. He was then invited by the duke of Ferrara to take up his residence permanently in that place, with a promise of pecuniary assistance. One of the first advantages which Ariosto derived from the friendship of his ducal patron was the present of a sum sufficient to build himself a mansion; and a proper site having been selected in the street Mirasole, in Ferrara, it was shortly completed. The simplicity of the man is well depicted in the edifice he erected, a sketch of which we give beneath.



The poet was much blamed by his friends for having erected his house on so circumscribed a plan, when he had given such splendid descriptions of sumptuous palaces, with their highly decorated porticos and pleasant fountains, to which Ariosto is said to have replied that words were easier laid together than blocks of marble, and that human happiness did not depend on the height of the mansion. It may be right to add that in this unassuming edifice Ariosto wrote all his later dramatic works, and ultimately died a few years after.

In 1522 we find Ariosto again assuming the military character; and he was for some time employed in directing a sort of mountain-warfare against the inhabitants of a district on the western side of the Alps. He remained more than two years at Castel Nuovo, the chief town of the district; and it was in this neighbourhood that he was attacked by mountain-brigands, who allowed him to pass unmolested on condition that he recited some of his heroic verses—a circumstance that has formed the groundwork of several poetical tales. He was afterwards requested to go on an embassy to Clement VII., but preferred the quiet retirement of his home in Ferrara to the advantages attached to that office.

Ariosto did not receive the laurel crown, the most distinguished mark of public approbation in his native land, till late in life. Some say that this occurred at Mantua, and others that it took place at Ferrara. At all events, it appears to have been a high source of happiness to the poet; and there is a tradition still current in Italy that, when the crown was placed on his brow, he leaped from the temporary platform that had been erected, and, becoming the

herald of his own honours, loudly proclaimed to the multitude that it was Ariosto, the author of the Orlando Furioso, for whom they must make way. His costume on this occasion is faithfully portrayed in the accompanying sketch.



Early in 1533 Ariosto was attacked by a disease which ended in pulmonary consumption; and it was remarked at the time, as an omen of its fatal character, that the day that the physicians imparted to him the probable result the theatre erected in the ducal palace for the performance of his dramas was burnt to the ground. He bore his last illness with exemplary fortitude, and, after lingering for some months, died on the 6th of June, 1533, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

In person Ariosto was rather above the middle height, and if we may judge from the picture by Titian, from which our portrait is copied, his countenance was grave, commanding, and full of dignity. At the period when the portrait was taken the poet was more than fifty years of age, but he still possessed all the vigour of his mind unimpaired. His forehead was high and commanding, with a slight degree of baldness, even from early age.

Ariosto was never married; but his property was equally shared between his two natural children, Virginio and Giovanni, who were both publicly legitimated: the first was educated by his father, and by his influence was appointed a canon of a religious house in the gift of the dukes of Ferrara, and Ariosto resigned nearly all his benefices to him. The latter went very young into the army, and, having acquired a distinguished character as a soldier, returned to Ferrara, where he was living at the time of his father's death.

The most valued editions of the "Orlando" are that printed in Venice in 1584, with Ruscelli's notes and engravings by Perro, and the edition of "Molino," published in 1772, which is illustrated by very beautiful engravings, and was printed with Baskerville's types. There was also a very correct edition of the "Orlando" published in 1787, at Paris, by Pankouke, in several volumes, and another in four

volumes, by Isola, in 1789. Ariosto's other works have been frequently reprinted; but they are none of them in much request. The English reader has been made acquainted with the merits of the "Orlando," by Mr. Hoole, who in 1783 completed his translation, in five volumes. His predecessors in that labour were Sir John Harrington and Mr. Huggins; but they are little known and less read, as the highly poetical translation, by Stewart Rose, has entirely superseded them.

ARISTARCHUS, a celebrated Greek philosopher, who was a native of Samos. He is believed to have been born about 420 years B. C.; but nothing is known with any degree of certainty respecting this event. Aristarchus was particularly distinguished as an astronomer; and Archimedes, when speaking of him, says, "Aristarchus, the Samian, confuting the notions of astrologers, laid down certain positions, from whence it follows that the world is much larger than is generally supposed; for he lays it down that the fixed stars and the sun are immovable, and the earth is carried round the sun in the circumference of a circle." There is extant of his works only a "Treatise on the Magnitude and Distance of the Sun and Moon," which was first published with Pappus's Explanations in 1572. Since that period, however, several other editions have appeared, with commentaries, by different authors.



ARISTIDES, surnamed the *Just*, one of the most virtuous characters in ancient history. He was educated in the principles of Lycurgus, the Lacedæmonian legislator, and had Themistocles for his rival, who was exceedingly jealous of his popularity. By the influence of his enemy he was banished by the ostracism. It is said that during the trial which preceded his banishment a rustic citizen, not knowing whom he was addressing, requested Aristides to write his name upon the scroll with which he was going to vote. "Has Aristides injured thee?" enquired he. "No," answered the voter; "but I am tired of hearing him called the 'Just.'" Aristides is said to have subscribed his name, and returned the scroll in silence to the voter.

Three years after Xerxes invaded Greece with a

large army. The Athenians hastened to recall a citizen to whom they looked for aid in this emergency. Forgetting every thing but the good of his country, upon receiving intelligence that the Greek fleet was surrounded, at Salamis, by the Persians, he hastened thither with all speed, to warn Themistocles of the danger which threatened him. Touched by his generosity, Themistocles admitted him at once to his confidence, telling him that the report had been purposely spread by himself, to prevent the separation of the Grecian fleet. He also invited him to assist in the council of war; and, having determined on battle, posted him on the little island of Psyttalia, where those whose ships were sunk during the engagement found refuge. In the battle of Platea, Aristides commanded the Athenians, and had a great share in the merit of the victory. He died at a very advanced age, and, what most strikingly evinces his integrity and disinterestedness, so poor that he was buried at the public expense. He left two daughters, who received dowries from the state, and a son, who was presented with 100 silver minæ and a tract of wood-land. Our engraving is copied from a fragment of ancient sculpture.

ARISTIPPUS, the founder of a celebrated philosophical school among the Greeks, which was called "Cyreniac," from his native city Cyrene, in Africa. He flourished 380 B. C. Being sent by his wealthy father to Olympia, probably to take part there in the chariot races, he heard Socrates spoken of, and was so desirous to receive instruction from him that he immediately hastened to Athens, and mingled with his disciples. He did not, however, adopt all the principles of this philosopher. Like him, he thought that we should refrain from speaking of things which are beyond human comprehension, and likewise paid but little attention to the physical and mathematical sciences; but his moral philosophy differed widely from that of Socrates, and he was a science of refined voluptuousness. His fundamental principles were that all human sensations may be reduced to two—pleasure and pain. Pleasure is a gentle, and pain a violent emotion. All living beings seek the former, and avoid the latter. Happiness is nothing but a continued pleasure, composed of separate gratifications; and, as it is the object of all human exertions, we should abstain from no kind of pleasure. Still we should always be governed by taste and reason in our enjoyments.

As Socrates disapproved of these doctrines, they were the cause of many disputes between him and his disciple, and it was probably to avoid his censures that Aristippus spent a part of his time at Ægina, where he was when his master died. He made many journeys to Sicily, where he met with a very friendly reception from Dionysius the tyrant. Diogenes Laertius is not to be credited when he says that Aristippus opened a school after he returned to Athens, as we know of no disciple instructed by him. His doctrines were taught only by his daughter Arete, and by his grandson Aristippus the younger. Other Cyrenians compounded them into a particular doctrine of pleasure. The time of his death is unknown, and his writings are lost. Wieland's historico-philosophical Romance (Aristippus and some of his contemporaries) gives us a lively and highly interesting delineation of the life and doctrines of this sensual philosopher.

ARISTOPHANES, a celebrated comic poet of



Athens. He was the son of Philippus, or Philip-pides, and early raised himself to high distinction by his dramatic powers. He appeared as a poet in the fourth year of the Peloponnesian war, B. C. 427; and having indulged himself in some sarcasms on Cleon, at that time a powerful demagogue, was accused by the latter of having unlawfully assumed the title of an Athenian citizen. He defended himself before the judges merely with the known verses of Homer—

To prove a genuine birth (the prince replies),  
On female truth assenting faith relies;  
Thus manifest of right, I build my claim,  
Sure founded, on a fair maternal fame,  
Ulysses' son. *Pope's Od. i. 275-9.*

And, when the same accusation was renewed against him, he succeeded in repelling it a second time. He afterwards revenged himself on Cleon, in his comedy of the Knights, in which he himself acted the part of Cleon, because no actor had the courage to do it. Little remains to us of the life of Aristophanes, who was distinguished among the ancients by the appellation of the comedian, as Homer was by that of the poet. Of fifty-four comedies which he composed, eleven only remain; and in these, without doubt, we possess the flower of the ancient comedy, but in order fully to enjoy them, and not to be offended by the extravagances and immoralities with which they abound, we must be intimately acquainted with ancient customs and opinions. His pure and elegant Attic dialect, the skill and care displayed in the plan and execution of his works, and their various other excellences, have gained for Aristophanes the fame of the greatest ancient comic poet. His wit and humour are inexhaustible, and his boldness unrestrained. The Greeks were enchanted with the beauty and refinement of his writings; and Plato said, The graces would have chosen his soul for their habitation. "According to our ideas of decorum," says a late scholar, "we should esteem the soul of Aristophanes a fitter residence for the licentious and malicious satyr, or, at least, we should call him, with Goëthe, the spoiled child of the graces." He made use of allegory in his attacks on the politicians of the day, as well as in scourging the vices and follies of his age. In a political and moral point of view, he is a strong advocate for ancient discipline, manners, doctrines, and art; hence his sallies against Socrates, in "The Clouds," and against Euripides, in "The Frogs" and other comedies. The freedom of ancient comedy allowed an unbounded degree of personal satire, and Aristophanes made so free use of it that nothing, divine or human, which offered a weak side, escaped his sarcasms. He feared the Athenian people so little that he personated them, under a most miserable figure, in his old Demos.

He incessantly reproached them for their fickleness, their levity, their love of flattery, their foolish credulity, and their readiness to entertain extravagant hopes. Instead of being irritated, the Athenians rewarded him with a crown from the sacred olive-tree, which was, at that time, considered an extraordinary mark of distinction. This excessive freedom characterized the ancient comedy, which was long considered as a support of democracy. After the Peloponnesian war, its licentiousness was much restrained; and, in the year 388 B. C., it was forbidden by law to name any person on the stage. At that time, Aristophanes produced, under the name of his eldest son, the "Cocalus," a play in

which a young man seduces a maiden, and, after having discovered her descent, marries her. But the "Clouds" is his most celebrated play, and it gained the Athenian prize of literary merit. It contains a powerful but just attack on the schools of the sophists. The following spirited translation from a portion of this extraordinary play beautifully illustrates the style of Aristophanes. The invocation of Socrates is followed by the chorus, which is peculiarly fine:—

Oh, sovereign lord, immeasurable air,  
Circling the pendent globe! Oh, holy light!  
And ye dread maids, that heaven's loud thunder bear,  
Arise, ye clouds, and burst upon my sight!  
Come, sister goddesses, come, awful powers,  
That on Olympus' snow-clad brow recline,  
Or in old father ocean's secret bowers  
With sea-born nymphs the mystic dance combine,  
Or fill your golden urns from distant Nile,  
Or on Mæotis placid breast repose,  
Oh! hear my prayer! upon your suppliant smile,  
And to my gaze your heavenly forms disclose.

## CHORUS.

Appear, immortal clouds, appear!  
Light shadows haste away!  
From father ocean's echoing tide,  
And groves that shade the mountain side,  
O'er watch-towers high, that far and wide  
The outstretch'd globe survey:  
The fruits and fields that drink the dew,  
And fountains gushing to the view,  
And the wild waste of waters blue  
That break upon the ear,  
Throw your dark showery mantles by,  
Your sacred forms unfold,  
And now, while heaven's unwearied eye  
In mid-day lustre flames on high,  
The subject world behold!

Aristophanes found an able and eloquent advocate in the celebrated John of Antioch, St. Chrysostom. Æmilius Portus in an epistle to Bisetius one of the scholiasts of Aristophanes, thus expresses at once his own admiration of the poet and the attachment of St. Chrysostom to his writings. "He possesses an incredible degree of eloquence and suavity of style. These excellences induced John of Antioch, the pride and ornament of theologians, who obtained the surname of Chrysostom for his golden strains of rhetoric, daily to peruse his writings, from whence he is reported to have drawn his eloquence and vehemence in lashing the vices of his age. This excellent divine, in imitation of Alexander's conduct with respect to Homer, was in the habit of placing the plays of Aristophanes under his pillow." We cannot help considering them rather questionable companions; but to this father of the church has often been attributed the preservation of the writings of our poet. Plutarch, in his comparison between Aristophanes and Menander, expresses a very different opinion from that of St. Chrysostom. Aristophanes, according to this celebrated biographer, outrages nature in his comedies; he addresses the populace rather than the people; his style is at once licentious and obscure, sometimes high and glowing, at other times low and equitable, always unequal and ill-sustained. He reproaches him too with great want of discrimination in character, and says that it is impossible to distinguish the son from the father, the citizen from the peasant, the hero from the tradesman, or the god from the valet: the cruel and bitter invectives of Aristophanes excite a similar spirit in his commentator; he reproaches him for his puns and his play upon words, and concludes with affirming that the audience who could have tolerated these exhibitions must have been lost in gross debauchery and sensuality. This picture is probably too highly

coloured; and the true character of Aristophanes, as is generally the case, will be found by the reader in a medium between the panegyric of St. Chrysostom and the censure of Plutarch.

The "Plutus" first appeared B. C. 408, and it is better known for its English versions than the "Clouds." The first translation that appeared in England of the "Plutus" was published by Thomas Randolph, in 1651, under the quaint title of "A Key for Honesty! Down with Knavery!" This was followed by another in 1659, with the signature of H. H. B. Stanley also translated the "Clouds," in a folio form, at London, in 1708. Similar versions were made by White and Theobald of the "Clouds" and "Plutus." These translations were all below mediocrity; until, in 1797, Mr. Cumberland completed a version of the "Clouds," which is unrivalled for its ease, spirit, and fidelity, by any other modern attempts at a translation of this poet. Mr. Young and the author of *Tom Jones* conjointly executed a version of the "Plutus," of which the notes are good, but the wit, humour, and force, have entirely evaporated from the text. Mr. Dunster, the editor of "Paradise Regained," published a version of the "Frogs," which is superior to the preceding ones that we have mentioned, and is only inferior to Mr. Cumberland's admirable performance. In 1812 an anonymous translation of the "Birds" appeared, which possesses considerable merit.

There are numerous early editions of the plays of Aristophanes. The first was printed at the Aldine Press in 1498, but one of the most complete, containing a Latin version, an index, and a large collection of notes, is that of Bekker, which appeared in 1829.

**ARISTOTLE.**—This distinguished philosopher was born at Stagyræ, in the year 384 B.C. His father, Nicomachus, being physician to the king of Macedonia, he was brought up with his sons, and was the companion of Philip the future king, and who shortly after ascending the throne made choice of him as tutor to his son Alexander. The philosopher was then only twenty-eight years of age, and was still one of Plato's disciples, so that it might be thought he owed the distinction as much to the connection which existed between him and Philip as to his merit, which could not then be sufficiently appreciated. It appears that at this period he had not yet opened a school, and it is even doubted whether he professed teaching publicly before the death of his master, which took place in 347.

Aristotle remained at Athens to the time when the war broke out between the king of Macedonia and the Athenians. It is indeed asserted that he had accompanied Alexander so far as Egypt; but this does not seem probable, as the descriptions of animals belonging to that country which occur in his works are borrowed from Herodotus, and reappear with the same errors. Aristotle opened his school at the Lyceum. He went there twice every day, and examined in his morning lectures the elements of philosophy, and the subjects which required no preliminary study; while in the evening ones he developed the higher parts of his doctrines. In this manner he taught for twelve or thirteen years, and during the whole of this time did not cease to correspond with Alexander. It appears, however, that towards the end of his life that prince displayed great coolness towards him. Some writers have even alleged that, after killing Callis-

thenes, he reserved the same fate for Aristotle, but that Antipater, to whom he sent the order, refused to execute it.

Notwithstanding this coolness, Aristotle continued to enjoy an appearance of protection which ensured his tranquillity; but scarcely was Alexander dead when the Athenians threw off a constraint which fear had imposed upon them. The demagogues, who confounded in one common feeling their hatred for the king of Macedonia and his preceptor, the sophists whose miserable subtleties he had refuted, the Platonists whom he had abandoned, and whose doctrines he had afterwards combated, all seemed leagued against him. He was accused of impiety, and Aristotle, warned by the example of Socrates, withdrew, wishing, he said, to spare the Athenians a new outrage against philosophy. He retired to Chalcis in Eubœa, and there died shortly after.

Before we describe Aristotle's labours, it will be necessary for us to retrace the principal events of his life, as it is certain that the station which that great man held in society was highly favourable to his genius. He had inspired in his pupil a taste for the natural sciences, and thus each successive victory of the conqueror enlarged the field of observation to the philosopher. It appears that in the course of his expedition Alexander sent to Aristotle all the most remarkable productions of the countries which he visited. He did not even confine himself to this kind of assistance, and, to facilitate his means of collecting materials for his history of animals, he gave 900 talents, a sum amounting to more than 3,000,000*l.* of our money.

His resources were no doubt immense, but the advantages which he derived from them are above what might have been expected. Not only did he reduce the natural sciences to a method which could alone ensure their success, but he also, during a life which was not very long, collected more particular observations, and deduced more general laws, than the whole of his successors together were able to do, in the space of several centuries. Let it be added that we can only judge in an imperfect manner of the whole extent of his acquirements, as a part of his works has been entirely lost to us, and the other has only survived in an altered state. Strabo, in the Third Book of his *Geography*, informs us what was the destiny of these books. Aristotle, when dying, had bequeathed them to Theophrastus, his favourite pupil and his successor in the school. Theophrastus again left them to Neleus, who carried them to Sepsis, a city of Asia Minor, then dependent upon the kingdom of Pergamos. The heirs of Neleus, fearing that they might be carried off by Attalus, who was then forming a library on the model of that of Alexandria, hid them in a cellar, where they were in part destroyed by the damp. Appelicon, who afterwards became possessed of them, filled up the vacuities; but unfortunately the persons whom he employed in this task were not very well qualified for it, and their restitutions have been more injurious than useful. Appelicon carried these books to Athens, where Sylla found them when he obtained possession of that city. They were then transported to Rome, and a grammarian, named Pyrranion, made numerous copies of them. Andronicus, the Rhodian, superintended their publication, and divided them into chapters. This division, however, was injudiciously made, and the titles in many cases have no connection with the



subjects, or are taken from the most frivolous circumstances.

Of the 260 works of Aristotle, of which Diogenes Laertius has preserved the titles, many are known to us only by name. Of those which are lost we have especially to regret a series of anatomical descriptions, in eight books, accompanied with painted figures, which corresponded to the text, and a collection *verum naturalium*, disposed in alphabetical order, forming a dictionary of natural science, which, without doubt, contained nearly all the subjects of which Aristotle had given a general account in his other works. It consisted of thirty-eight rolls, and must have formed a large volume. Another loss to be deplored by those who take an interest in the history of the Greek republics was that of a collection of the constitutions of 158 independent states, which formed a kind of preparatory work to the author in writing his book on politics.

Aristotle embraces in his works nearly the whole range of human knowledge; but he does not confound the various departments as his predecessors had done. He assigns to the different branches of the sciences their precise limits, and the manner in which he has arranged them is so judicious, and so accordant with nature, that the labours of 2000 years have effected no change in it. We ought here to speak only of such of his works as belong to natural history; but we cannot refrain from mentioning the others, in order to give an idea of the prodigious acquirements of that wonderful man, whose genius was truly universal.

His first works relate to logic and philology, and it was in fact natural that these studies should precede every other. In his books we find for the first time explained the rules of the syllogism, an art by means of which it may easily be discovered in what points a course of reasoning is deficient, by throwing it into certain determinate forms. Plato, it is true, in his dialogues, has made use of the syllogism, but only as it were instinctively, whereas Aristotle treats of it in a didactic manner.

We then come to his works on rhetoric and poetry. Aristotle in them gives rules which he derives from observation, and which, for this reason, have not become obsolete; while all those which have since been attempted to be laid down in an arbitrary manner have been found false or insufficient, and have been successively abandoned. It is also by this method of observation that the author proceeds in his works on morals and politics. In the latter, we find some ideas which are not now admissible, especially those which refer to slavery. But these ideas were so much those of the period in which he lived that it cost Christianity many ages of continued efforts to establish more humane sentiments.

In his metaphysics, Aristotle treats of the being considered as existing by itself. Here we do not find the same clearness of expression as in his other works, which depends partly upon the circumstance that the subject is more abstract, and partly upon the circumstance that the author's ideas are less precise. Yet even here we do not find that Aristotle has been surpassed by his successors; and it is even to be remarked that of all the parts of his works it was this which most contributed to extend his influence, and to give him the ascendancy in the schools during the middle ages.

We now come to the parts which require our spe-

cial attention, the books which treat of the physical sciences. They are numerous and varied, and we find, 1st, Eight books on physics properly so called, four books on the heavens, one on meteorology (in which mention is also made of minerals), and one on colours. 2dly, Two books on the generation and composition of bodies, that is, on the motion of decomposition and recomposition of organized bodies, ten on the history of animals, four on their parts, one on the means of progression, two on their generation, and various treatises on waking and sleeping.

In all these works Aristotle follows the same course as in his poetics, morals, and politics, that is, he lays down no rule, *a priori*, but deduces them all from the observation of particular facts and their comparison. This method is but the application of his theory of the origin of general ideas, which is opposed to that of Plato. The latter admits that the general ideas exist by themselves, but maintains that they are innate in man; in other words, that his mind possessed them when it was united to the divinity, and that when it finds them again it is by a true reminiscence. The evident consequence of this system is to condemn the senses to inaction, in order to favour the return of the mind by recollection towards its former state. Aristotle opposes this doctrine. With him there are no *innate ideas*. It is of the nature of the divinity to possess of itself all the general ideas; but man can only acquire them by abstraction: and, as nothing occurs in his mind which has not first passed through his senses, all his knowledge necessarily takes its source in observation and experiment. From the simple fact of having laid down this principle in his logic, his whole philosophy assumes a peculiar character, and he has always the same mode of proceeding in the moral as in the physical sciences. For example, when he has to write on politics, instead of first creating an ideal republic, which serves him as a type, a term of comparison by which to judge of the goodness of the different existing governments, he begins with bringing together a great number of constitutions, compares them together, examines their influence on nations as made known by history, and at length arrives at general views respecting the effects of social institutions and the resources of states.

Several valuable editions of the works of Aristotle have been published; and, with regard to the commentators on his works, they are so numerous as to include many of the most celebrated and learned scholars of all ages and countries.

ARIUS, a divine of the fourth century, the head and founder of the Arians. He was born in Libya, near Egypt. Eusebius, bishop of Nicomedia, a great favourite of Constantia, sister of the Emperor Constantine, and wife of Licinius, became a zealous promoter of Arianism. He took Arius under his protection, and introduced him to Constantia, so that the sect increased, and several bishops embraced it openly. There arose, however, such disputes in the churches that the emperor, in order to remedy these disorders, was obliged to assemble the council of Nice, where, in the year 325, the doctrines of Arius were condemned. Arius was banished by the emperor, all his books were ordered to be burnt, and capital punishment was denounced against whoever dared to keep them. After five years' banishment, he was recalled to Constantinople, where he presented to the emperor such a profession of faith as



induced him to believe that Arius was quite orthodox. In 331 Arius went to Alexandria, where St. Athanasius refused to receive him, notwithstanding all his menaces and recommendatory letters. He returned to that city again in 335; but, though Athanasius had been sent into exile, yet the people of Alexandria rejected Arius, who began to raise disturbances in Egypt. Constantine being informed of the circumstance sent orders to him to come to Constantinople, where his friends intended that he should be received into the communion of that city. Constantine demanded of Arius if he followed the Nicene faith? Arius assured him he did, and, the emperor having demanded a profession of his faith, he presented it to him in writing. Constantine, being persuaded of the sincerity of Arius, ordered Alexander to admit him again into the church. Arius was now conducted in triumph by Eusebius and his other adherents; but, as they approached the great square of Constantinople, Arius suddenly expired. This event took place in the year 336.



**ARKWRIGHT, SIR RICHARD.**—This extraordinary mechanical genius was the son of humble parents, and, by the invention of the spinning jenny, became the real founder of a branch of manufactures to which Great Britain owes an immense increase in her exports, and which affords employment to millions of hands. Arkwright thus raised himself by his talents from humble circumstances, and, while he was most materially benefiting his native country, he obtained both honours and wealth. He left his shop in 1767, and came to the village of Warrington, where he began his career of mechanical invention with a kind of perpetual motion. A watchmaker, named Kay, advised him to persevere, and induced him to employ his talents on machinery for spinning wool. Kay had himself attempted to contrive a machine for that purpose, but without success. As their united means were not sufficient to carry their design into execution, they applied for assistance to a Mr. Atherton of Liverpool. Although the poverty of Arkwright's appearance promised but little, Mr. Atherton took the two projectors under his patronage, and a machine was at length completed. Arkwright took out a patent for it in 1769, which was renewed in 1775; but it was set aside in 1785 by the king's bench. After procuring the

patent, he formed, in connection with a Mr. Smalley, an establishment which soon failed. He then went to Nottingham, where his attempts were more successful. There he connected himself with a Scotchman named Dale. Arkwright separated afterwards from Dale and carried on his works alone, and soon became one of the richest manufacturers in the kingdom.

Mr. Arkwright was for many years involved in expensive lawsuits respecting the patents which he had obtained at various periods of time, and, after a long and patient investigation, in which the ablest lawyers of the day were arrayed on each side, Mr. Arkwright lost his cause, partly on the plea of not having worded his patent specifications clearly, and partly on the less technical but more important ground of his not having been the original inventor of the machines for which he had obtained his patents. Mr. Arkwright has been accused, and we believe with some degree of justice, of having borrowed the invention of the spinning-jenny from Kay; but, if the first conception of it is conceded to that individual, still we must not forget that he who matures a crude idea, and judiciously applies it, deserves more credit than the original inventor, if the latter turns it to no useful purpose. Mr. Arkwright was knighted in 1787; and on his death, which took place in 1792, his property amounted to 500,000*l*.

**ARMFELT, GUSTAVUS MAURICE, COUNT OF**, a distinguished Swede, whose public life was marked by singular changes of fortune. Gustavus Maurice Armfelt was born April 1st, 1757, and was educated in the military school at Carlsrona. He was afterwards appointed ensign in the guard at Stockholm, where he gained the favour of Gustavus III., was rapidly promoted, and loaded with marks of distinction. In the war against Russia in 1788 he showed a degree of courage in the field as splendid as his talents in social life, on which account he continued to rise in the favour of his king. As lieutenant-general, he concluded the peace of Werelä, was honoured by the Russian empress with several honorary distinctions, and received, even at the death-bed of his sovereign, the most flattering marks of royal favour. He was appointed governor of Stockholm, and connected, by means of Gustavus III., in marriage with the ancient family of the Count de la Garde. He was said, also, to have been intended for president of the council of regency, during the minority of Gustavus IV., though the guardianship of the young king had been assigned to the duke of Sundermanland by a previous will.

A complete change in the fortunes of Armfelt now, however, took place. In September 1792 he was deprived of all his offices and dignities, and sent as ambassador to Naples. It was supposed, not without foundation, that an unrequited passion of the duke of Sundermanland for a court lady, by whom Armfelt was favoured, had exasperated his rivalry to hatred. It is certain that Armfelt and the lady were made the subject of scandalous rumours; she was reprimanded, and he, then in Italy, escaped the daggers of hired assassins, and a formal requisition of the Swedish government, only by flight. He was also declared a traitor and an outlaw, and all his fortune and honours, nay, even his nobility, were pronounced forfeit. He afterwards resided in Germany till 1799, when Gustavus IV. annulled this



decree, and restored Armfelt to his former situation. He was appointed ambassador to the court of Vienna, and in 1807 the rank of general of infantry was conferred on him. As such, he commanded the Swedish troops in Pomerania, and, in 1808, the western army against Norway. In the autumn of this year he was appointed president of the military institution at Stockholm, and made peer of the kingdom. In 1810 he obtained his desired discharge and lived as a private man at Stockholm. A connection, however, with the infamous Countess Piper involved him in new difficulties, and induced him to seek shelter with the Russian ambassador and to go over to the Russian service. Here he was favourably received, was made count, chancellor of the university of Abo, president of the department for the affairs of Finland, and member of the Russian senate. He now enjoyed general esteem till his death, which occurred in 1814, at Czarskoesoel.

ARMINIUS.—This prince is distinguished for having been the deliverer of Germany from the yoke of the Romans. The victories of Drusus had added to the Roman empire the German districts lying on the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Saal, and no measures were neglected, by the Roman government, to keep the natives of these territories in subjection. The Sicambri, whose fearless spirit was so fatal to Lollius, were transplanted, with a few of the most powerful tribes, to the banks of the Rhine and the interior of Gaul; and attempts were made to secure the allegiance of the remaining tribes by hostages, and by a Roman education, gratuitously bestowed on the children of the chiefs. Arminius was the son of a prince of the Cherusci, and was born 18 B. C. He was educated at Rome, admitted into the rank of *equites*, and appointed to an honourable station in the army of Augustus. But princely favour and the charms of learning were insufficient to make the young barbarian forget his early associations and his country's gods; and the effect of his Roman education was to teach him how to conquer his instructors. Convinced that the rude strength of his savage countrymen would be unequal to cope with the disciplined forces of the Romans in the open field, he had recourse to stratagem.

Every circumstance seemed to favour his designs. Quintilius Varus, who commanded the flower of the Roman army, was appointed to maintain tranquillity and submission in the new territories on the right bank of the Rhine. Relying upon his power, he expected to be able to introduce Roman institutions, and by that means change the character of the German tribes, who viewed liberty as the highest good. He was accompanied to his destination by a large number of merchants and lawyers, who were to bring about the intended changes. The object of this expedition was sufficiently odious in itself, and the arrogance and oppression of the Romans increased the dissatisfaction of the Germans to the highest degree. Arminius chose this favourable moment for the execution of his designs, and succeeded in gaining over to his views the chiefs of nearly all the tribes between the Elbe and the Rhine.

About the same time, a general rebellion broke out in Pannonia and on the borders of Dalmatia. Whether this rebellion was connected with the plans of Arminius, and intended to aid in supporting the monarchy which had been founded by Marbodius, between the Elbe, the Saal, and the Oder, and sup-

pressed by the Roman governor, cannot now be decided. Even if it had no connection with the designs of Arminius, we have reason to admire the harmony which marked the undertakings of the allies; for the treachery of Segestes, one of their number, was insufficient to break the strong bond of their union. Segestes, prince of the Catti, informed the Roman general of their secret intentions; but Varus disregarded his admonitions. Arminius succeeded in removing his distrust, and turned the attention of the Romans to the disturbances on the Weser which he had himself excited, in order to draw the Roman soldiers into the heart of the country. The auxiliary German troops every where yielded the strictest obedience, and their commander, the faithful confederate of Arminius, was every day lulling Varus into a deeper security. Slight disturbances, which had been previously concerted, now took place in distant parts of the empire, to induce the Roman governor to divide his strength. The spirit of rebellion soon became universal. Arminius and his most intimate friends, who had enjoyed the confidence of Varus, and been admitted to his secret councils, multiplied the proofs of their apparent zeal in the Roman service. They urged the Roman commander not to wait for the undisciplined rebels, but to march against them, and extinguish the flames of sedition where they raged with the greatest fury. It was in vain that Segestes repeated his warnings. The arts of Arminius prevailed. The army advanced every day further from the Rhine, and plunged deeper in the regions where they were most exposed to destruction. In the territory of the Bructeri, near the source of the Lippe, after a long and tiresome march through marshes and forests, they suddenly found themselves in a deep valley, surrounded by hills, which were all occupied by their German foes; and, to add to their consternation, Arminius, with his rear-guard, was now their enemy, and the soul of all the assaults which were made upon them. Varus now saw destruction impending over him. The courage and discipline of the Roman soldiers had long excited admiration, but could only defer for a time their fate. For three days their sufferings continued. Arminius made himself master of three Roman eagles, and put a stop for ever to their advance into the north of Germany. Varus could not survive his disgrace; he killed himself, as so many other Romans had done, when the fortune of war was adverse.

The victory of Arminius was stained by useless acts of violence and cruelty. The Germans cut off the hands of the lawyers, whose subtleties were most odious to the national feeling, and put out the eyes of others. We must not forget, however, the strong provocation which they had received from their cruel and oppressive conquerors. It is difficult to determine the place of this celebrated engagement. The ancients called it *Teutoburgiensis Saltus*.

After Arminius had secured the liberty of his country, he destroyed the fortifications of the Romans on the Elbe, the Weser, and the Rhine. He laboured to elevate the martial spirit of his countrymen, which he regarded as the best defence against the arms of Rome. But he was soon involved in a difficulty with his own countrymen, particularly with Segestes, the head of a powerful tribe, whose daughter, betrothed to another prince, had been carried off by Arminius. Segestes was first attacked by the national party, of which Arminius was the head, and

immediately applied for aid to Germanicus. The Romans hastened to assist him, and delivered him from a siege. Among the prisoners was the wife of Arminius. When she was presented before Germanicus, her grief, Tacitus says, was silent. She shed not a tear; she offered not a prayer; her hands were folded; her eyes fixed on her breast. The treachery of Segestes and the fate of Thusnelda gave new ardour to the patriotic feelings of Arminius. Inguiomar, his uncle, a warrior of great celebrity, offered him his aid. Germanicus felt the necessity of anticipating the blow, and undertook a campaign, which, in spite of the successes of the Romans, served only to draw closer the bonds of union among the German confederates, and to increase their confidence in their own strength. Tacitus relates that Arminius afterwards drew upon himself the hatred of his countrymen by aiming at the regal authority; and in the thirty-seventh year of his age he was assassinated by one of his own relations. A short time before his death, Adgantes, or Adgantestrius, prince of the Celts, proposed to the Roman senate to despatch him by poison; but the senate took no notice of the offer. In the language of Tacitus, "Arminius was doubtless the deliverer of Germany. He fought against the Romans, not like other kings and generals, when they were weak, but when their empire was mighty and their renown glorious. Fortune, indeed, sometimes deserted him; but, even when conquered, his noble character and his extensive influence commanded the veneration of his conquerors. For twelve years he presided over the destiny of Germany, to the complete satisfaction of his countrymen; and, after his death, they paid him divine honours." If we dwell a moment on the results of his victory, we find that it had a decided influence on the whole character of Germany, political and literary; because it is evident that, had the Romans remained in quiet possession of the country, they would have given a tone to all its institutions and its language, as was the case with all the other countries of Europe conquered by them. The reason, therefore, why the language of the Germans remained unmixed and uninfluenced by Latin, and why their political institutions retained so much of their ancient character, is to be found in the victories of Arminius. To the same cause must be ascribed, however, their tardy development in several respects. It is not to be doubted that other nations have derived great benefit from the introduction among them of the Roman civilization, as far as respects the order, tranquillity, and refinement of social life. But all advantages could not be had at once; and, had not Arminius crushed the Roman power in Germany, an idiom similar to the French and Spanish would be spoken there, where now a language and literature exist of a peculiar and original character. Some influence, however, the Romans did undoubtedly exercise on the dialect of Germany, and many Latin words were introduced into it, yet with such alteration that they can with difficulty be recognised.

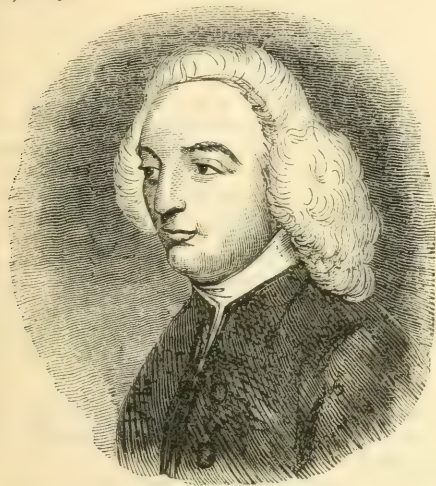
ARMINIUS, JAMES, the founder of the Arminian sect, was born at Oudewater, in Holland, in the year 1560. Having lost his father in infancy, he was befriended by a priest, who, though belonging to the church of Rome, had a strong attachment to the principles of the Reformation. From this person he received the first rudiments of learning, and experienced all the attention which his tender years and

destitute situation required. While proceeding with his education at Utrecht, death deprived him of his generous patron. Such an event, at such a time, could not fail to be detrimental to his interests. But he was prevented from feeling all its severity by the kindness of his countryman Rodolphus Snellius, who took him under his protection, and, conducting him to Marpurch, assisted him in the prosecution of his studies. He had not been long at Marpurch when he was informed that the Spaniards had pillaged Oudewater. Impatient to ascertain the truth, and to learn the particulars of this afflicting intelligence, he immediately formed the resolution of repairing to the spot in person. At this time he was only fifteen years of age, and in poor circumstances; but it did not deter him from undertaking, nor prevent him from performing, the journey. On his arrival he found the place of his nativity one scene of carnage and desolation. His mother, his sister, his brothers, all his relations, and the greater part of the inhabitants, had been cruelly put to the sword; and every object that had been endeared to his infant mind stained with the blood of his fellow-citizens and his kindred. Unable to endure the sight, and overwhelmed with grief and melancholy, he instantly returned to Marpurch. From Marpurch he went to Leyden, where a university had been just established. During his residence there he made great proficiency in the different branches of learning to which he applied, and by his good conduct acquired the respect and esteem of all who knew him. With the view of completing his education, the magistrates of Amsterdam, at their own expense, sent him, in 1582, to Geneva, where he was chiefly employed in attending the lectures of Theodore Beza. But having given great offence to the leading members of the academy, by maintaining and even teaching the philosophy of Ramus, he soon found it expedient to leave that city. He retired to Basil, where he was received with every mark of attention. He read public lectures with great applause; and gave such universal satisfaction that the Faculty of Divinity gratuitously offered him a doctor's degree, which however he declined. Returning to Geneva, he found that during his absence the violence of his adversaries had abated; and, unwilling to provoke them by a renewal of the controversy, he no longer contended with zeal for the superiority of Ramus over Aristotle. Soon after this, he gratified a desire which he had long cherished to visit Italy, and especially to hear the lectures of the celebrated James Zabarella at Padua. The journey, which occupied six or seven months, had nearly alienated from him the affections of the people and magistrates of Amsterdam. It was reported by his enemies, and believed by many of his friends, that he had associated with the Jesuits, and even gone so far as to abjure the Protestant faith. Such imputations were absurd; but the jealousy which was then entertained of the papal power made them believed, and it required a considerable time, and great prudence on the part of Arminius, to destroy the unfavourable impression. By his private virtues, by his pulpit eloquence, and by his able vindications of that cause which he had been accused of deserting, he gradually delivered his character from obloquy, and regained the popularity which he had undeservedly lost.

It forms no part of our business in the present place to describe the change which occurred in the



religious opinions of Arminius, by which, from a zealous supporter of Calvin, he became one of his most decided opponents; and it may be enough to state that, after having been engaged in the most active controversy for several years, he died of a complete breaking up of the system, October the 19th, 1609.



ARMSTRONG, JOHN, a Scottish poet and physician, who was born about the commencement of the eighteenth century at Castleton in Roxburghshire. He was distinguished at Edinburgh, before his twentieth year, by gaining a prize medal for a prose composition. His inaugural dissertation, "De Tabæ Purulenta," also gained him a considerable share of celebrity, as it was superior to the common bulk of productions of that nature. After obtaining a medical degree at Edinburgh, he came to London, and shortly after published an essay for abridging medical study, with a dialogue between Hygeia, Mercury, and Pluto, and an epistle from Usbeck the Persian to Joshua Ward, Esq.

In 1744 he published his chief and truly meritorious work, "The Art of Preserving Health." In 1751 appeared his poem "On Benevolence," in folio. In 1753 his poem "Taste," in an epistle to a young critic, and in 1758 "Sketches on Various Subjects," by Launcelot Temple. In 1761 an epistle to John Wilkes of Aylesbury, entitled "Day." In 1770 he published a collection of miscellanies, in two volumes 8vo., containing the minor works he had published separately, with imitations of Shakspeare and Spenser, "The Forced Marriage," a tragedy, and some sketches, a publication on which he seems to have placed his hopes of acquiring celebrity. He advanced his claims with a considerable degree of arrogance, affecting to lean on the importance of his friends, but indirectly complimenting his own. He despised, he said, "the opinions of the mobility, from the highest to the lowest; and if it was true, as he had been sometimes told, that he had the best judges on his side, he desired no more than just praise." In 1771 he published "A Short Ramble through France," and in 1773 a quarto pamphlet of medical essays, in one of which he explains the causes of his own want of practice as a physician.

During the course of a long life, devoted mainly to the improvement of his mind, Armstrong had an

opportunity of being twice abroad, once in his professional capacity, in 1760, as physician to the forces in Germany, and also in 1771, when he appears to have travelled for amusement. From reading, from inherent genius, and from travel, his mind became richly stored with information; and for the value of his conversation, as well as the strength of his friendships, he was deservedly beloved by those who enjoyed them. That he bestowed the power of so valuable a mind less copiously on the public than might have been wished seems to have arisen from two causes: his propensity to deal in sarcastic humour, which was by no means his forte, and his disposition, if at least we may judge from the portraiture given of him in "The Castle of Indolence," was morbidly misanthropic, and of course but ill adapted to labour for fame.

"With him was sometimes joined in silent walk  
(Profoundly silent, for they never spoke)  
One shyer stid, who quite detested talk.  
Oft stung by spleen, at once away he broke  
To groves of pine, and broad o'ershadowing oak;  
There inly thrill'd, he wander'd all alone,  
And on himself his pensive fury wroke.  
He never utter'd word, save when first shone  
The glittering star of eve, Thank heav'n one day is done."

It should not be forgotten that Armstrong contributed the description of the diseases at the conclusion of the first part of this excellent poem, diseases so finely personified that they conduct that enchanting allegory to all the moral it requires, and to all the effect it could admit of, from the contrast of grave and severe with gay and voluptuous images. But the fame of Armstrong rests on his didactic poem, "The Art of preserving Health." The well-deserved honour which this poem enjoys of being ranked among the best of modern didactic poems leads us to remark that creation of character, invention of story, and expression of feelings, which deeply affect us by sympathy, constitute some of the highest honours of poetry. His language is pure, perspicuous, and full of sober dignity. He could not be expected to rouse the passions where it was not his object to touch them, but he elevates the tone of the mind higher than its usual reflections; and, by combining in one excellent instance the general traits of plague and death, he makes that sublime in description which is repulsive in detail. It is hardly possible to find a more philosophical series of reflections clothed in more dignified language than are presented in the following lines:—

"What does not fade? The tower, that long had stood  
The crush of thunder and the warring winds,  
Shook by the slow but sure destroyer Time,  
Now hangs in doubtful ruin o'er its base,  
And flinty pyramids and walls of brass  
Descend. Achaia, Rome, and Egypt, moulder down,  
And tottering empires rush by their own weight.  
This huge rotundity we tread grows old,  
And all those worlds that roll around the sun.  
The sun himself shall die, and ancient night  
Again involve the desolate abyss,  
Till the great Father, through the lifeless gloom  
Extend his arm to light another world,  
And bid new planets roll by other laws;  
For through the regions of unbounded space,  
Where unconfined Omnipotence has room,  
Being in various systems fluctuates still  
Between creation and abhor'd decay.  
It ever did, perhaps, and ever will,  
New worlds are still emerging from the deep,  
The old descending, in their turn to rise."

Armstrong died 1779.

ARNAUD, ANTHONY. — This distinguished ecclesiastic was born at Paris in 1612. He was the son of Anthony Arnaud, the advocate, who pleaded

the cause of the university of Paris against the Jesuits, in 1594. He seems to have inherited all his father's sentiments respecting that society; and, in opposing their tenets, the most active part of his life was very successfully employed. He studied the languages, and passed through a course of philosophy in the college of Calvi, and then proceeded to the study of theology in the Sorbonne. While engaged in this pursuit, he adopted the opinions of the Jansenists, on the doctrine of grace, in preference to those of the Jesuits; and, when taking the degree of bachelor, he opposed, in his thesis, the sentiments of his professor, M. L'Escot, on that subject. L'Escot resented very keenly this presumption in his pupil, and exerted himself to the utmost, but without effect, to prevent the young theologian from being admitted a member of the society of the Sorbonne.

In 1643 Arnaud published a treatise on frequent communion, in which he attacked, with great ability, the notions of the Jesuits on that subject. He next entered very keenly into the disputes which prevailed, about this time, in the university of Paris, on the subject of grace, and which had been excited chiefly by the work of Jansenius, bishop of Ypres. His opponents, unable to stand before him in the field of fair argument, called the arm of authority to their aid. Some of his sentiments were judicially condemned by the faculty of theology of Sorbonne; and, by a small majority of voices, he was declared to be no longer a member of that body. Measures even still more violent were attempted against him; and, during a space of more than twelve years, he found it necessary to remain in retirement. He passed the greater part of this period in the learned society of Port-Royal, of which his brothers were members, and took a very active share in their literary pursuits. He was at length freed from this life of restraint by what is usually called the peace of Clement IX., which took place in 1669, and which granted a toleration to the opinions of Jansenius. Arnaud enjoyed the full benefit of this short season of tranquillity, was presented to the king and nuncio, and was engaged, at their request, in defending the catholic faith against the pressing attacks of the Protestant writers. But, with all his learning and ingenuity, he was not able to support the doctrine of transubstantiation, and similar absurdities, against the severe satire of Jurieu and the powerful eloquence of Claude.

In 1676 Louis XIV., at the instigation of the Jesuits, began to violate the peace of Clement, and the Jansenists were pursued with renewed malignity. Arnaud was rendered an object of suspicion to the king; and, in 1679, he voluntarily withdrew into the Low Countries. The place of his retreat was known only to a few confidential friends; but his influence was very extensively felt, and the greater part of the churches in the Netherlands, as well as the Catholic congregations in Holland, were engaged by his means to join the party of the Jansenists. His enemies were not ignorant of his exertions; but he experienced no other effects of their rage than a contemptible decree, by six superiors assembled at Lege, in 1690, condemning him as a heretic, and prohibiting all intercourse with him. He died at Brussels, on the 8th of August 1694, in the eighty-third year of his age.

ARNAUD, FRANCIS D', a prolific French writer, born at Paris, in 1718, where he studied with

the Jesuits. In his youth, among other pieces he wrote three tragedies, one of which, "*Coligny ou la St. Barthélémy*," was published in 1740. Frederic II. opened a correspondence with him, invited him afterwards to Berlin, received him kindly, called him his *Ovid*, and addressed a poem to him, which closed with these verses:—

Déjà l'Apollon de la France  
S'achemine à sa décadence;  
Venez briller à votre tour.  
Elevez-vous, s'il baisse encore;  
Ainsi le couchant d'un beau jour  
Promet une plus belle aurore.

France's Apollo, Voltaire, who had previously entertained a considerable degree of friendship for Arnaud, thought this comparison not very flattering to himself, and took his revenge by satirizing d'Arnaud's person and verses. At the end of a year Arnaud left Berlin for Dresden, where he had received an appointment, and returned thence to his native country. During the reign of terror he was imprisoned in a dungeon, and afterwards led a life of miserable poverty. Owing to his carelessness and extravagance, neither the aid of the government nor his own pen could preserve him from want. He died at Paris, in 1805, in the eighty-sixth year of his age. His best work is, "*Epreuves du Sentiment, Délassements de l'Homme Sensible, Loisirs Utiles*." His dramatic works are not esteemed.

ARNAULT, ANTOINE VINCENT, an esteemed dramatic poet, who was born at Paris in 1766. He laid the foundation of his fame by his tragedy "*Marius à Minturnes*," which was first performed at the Parisian theatre in 1791. After the overthrow of the throne, in 1792, he took refuge in England, but afterwards passed over to Brussels. At his return, he would have been arrested as an emigrant, but the provisional committee declared the law not applicable to the learned author of *Marius*. He now wrote several operas and the tragedies of *Cincinnatus* and *Oscar*. In 1797 he went to Italy, where General Buonaparte committed to him the organization of the government of the Ionian isles, during which period he wrote his tragedy of "*Blanche et Mont-Cassin*." In 1798 he embarked in the fleet for Egypt, but was obliged to remain at Malta, on account of the sickness of his brother-in-law, Regnaud de Saint Jean d'Angély. The frigate in which he was returning to France was taken by the English; yet he gained his freedom, and went to Paris, where his tragedy "*Les Vénitiens*" was performed in 1799. In September, 1808, he was named counsellor and secretary-general of the university, which offices he retained till 1814. As such, he took part in the preparation of the "*Dictionnaire de l'Académie*." He also drew up for the emperor the general report concerning the decennial prizes. After the abdication of the emperor, he went to meet the king at Compiègne, but, in the year 1815, lost all his offices, which Napoleon restored to him during the "hundred days." He was then member of the deputation from the chamber of deputies to the army. In consequence of the decree of January, 1816, he found himself compelled to fly, and resided sometimes in Belgium, sometimes in Holland. His four years' banishment, and his exclusion from the national institute, arose, perhaps, from the erroneous supposition that he had been one of the editors and contributors to the journal "*Le Nain Jaune*." His tragedy, "*Germanicus*," was performed, in 1817, at



Paris, to a very full house, and occasioned a great disturbance in the theatre, as the opposite political parties made it the occasion for the clamorous expression of their opinions. The design of effecting the recall of the author from banishment, by the representation of this piece, was disappointed, and it was not repeated.

A collection of his works appeared, in 1818, at Brussels, in six volumes, and a new collection at Paris in 1824. In November 1819 he obtained permission to return to France; his pension was also renewed. Among his works are several speeches and treatises, of the year 1804, on the system of public instruction. His latest tragedies were "Les Guelfes et les Gibelins," "Lycurgue," and "Guillaume I.," in which the character of Philip II. is very well drawn. He also took part in several periodicals, especially in the "Veillées des Muses," 1797; in the "Mercure," 1815; and in the "Liberal," at Brussels, from 1816 to 1820, in which most of the articles on morality, literature, and philosophy were written by him. He was one of the editors of the "Miroir des Spectacles, des Lettres, des Mœurs et des Arts." As such, he was obliged to defend himself, in 1821, before the *police correctionnelle*, at Paris, because some of the articles were considered to have a political bearing, but was entirely acquitted, as were also the other editors. Napoleon remembered him in his will, and bequeathed him a legacy of 100,000 francs. Arnault died in August 1835.

Of his sons, the eldest, Lucien Emile, formerly a prefect of the department of Ardèche, has also gained celebrity as a tragic poet, particularly by his "Régulus," 1819. An earlier production, "Pertinax," published under his name, was written by his father.

ARND, JOHN, a distinguished Lutheran minister, who was the author of a work which attained so high a degree of celebrity that it was translated into almost every language of Europe. Its title is, "True Christianity." Arnd was born, in 1555, at Ballenstedt, in Anhalt, and died in 1621 at Celle, after he had been a minister in different places, and suffered from the Calvinists, and even the Lutherans. A few hours before his death, he preached from the text, "They who sow in tears shall reap in joy," Psalm cxxvi., and, on arriving at his house, spoke of his discourse as a funeral sermon. His work above mentioned has been reprinted since his death, in 1777, and again in 1816, by Sintenis.

ARNE, THOMAS.—This country has produced so few composers of eminence that we owe it to the delightful art of which he was so distinguished a professor to trace the steps by which he ultimately attained to the highest eminence in the musical world. Thomas Arne was the son of a cabinet-maker and upholsterer, who lived in King Street, Covent Garden, at whose house the Indian kings lodged in the reign of Queen Anne. Arne received a good education, having been sent to Eton by his father, who intended him for the law. But his love for music operated on him too powerfully, even while at Eton, either for his own peace or that of his companions; for, with a common flute, he used to torment them night and day, when not obliged to attend the school. When he left Eton, such was his passion for music that he used to avail himself of the privilege of a servant, by borrowing a livery and going into the upper gallery of the opera, which was then appropriated to domestics. At home he had

contrived to secrete a spinet in his room, upon which, after muffling the strings with a handkerchief, he used to practise in the night, while the rest of the family were asleep. Young Arne was at length obliged to serve a three years' clerkship to the law, without ever intending to make it his profession; but even during this servitude he dedicated every moment he could obtain, fairly or otherwise, to the studying of music by himself. He contrived, during his clerkship, to acquire some instructions on the violin, upon which instrument he made so rapid a progress that, soon after he quitted his legal master, his father, having accidentally called at a gentleman's house in the neighbourhood upon business, found him engaged with company, but, sending in his name, he was invited up stairs, where there was a large company and a concert, in which, to his great astonishment, he caught his son, to use his own words, "in the very act of playing the first fiddle!" Finding him more admired for his musical talents than knowledge in the law, he was soon prevailed upon to forgive him, and to let him try to turn his musical talents to some useful account. No sooner was the young musician able to practise aloud in his father's house than he, discovering that his sister was not only fond of music, but had a very sweet-toned voice, gave her such instructions as enabled her to sing for Lampe, in the opera of "Amelia;" and, finding her well received in that performance, he shortly after prepared a new character for her, by setting to music Addison's opera of "Rosamond," in which he employed his younger brother in the character of the page. The opera was performed, and with great applause, the last time for the benefit of Mr. Arne, jun., the composer.

Having succeeded so well in a serious opera, our young musician tried his powers at a burletta, and fixed upon Fielding's "Tom Thumb" for that purpose, which, under the title of the "Tragedy of Tragedies," having met with great success in 1731, he transformed into the "Opera of Operas," and it was performed at the theatre in the Haymarket.

In 1738 Arne established his reputation as a lyric composer by the admirable manner in which he set Milton's "Comus." In this masque he introduced the light, airy, original, and pleasing melody, wholly different from that of Purcell or Handel, whom all English composers had hitherto pillaged or imitated. Indeed the melody of Arne at this time, and of his Vauxhall songs afterwards, forms an era in English music; it was so easy, natural, and agreeable to the whole kingdom, that it had a very striking effect upon our national taste. In composing the music for "Artaxerxes," though the melody is less original than that of "Comus," Arne had the merit of first adapting many of the best passages from Italian music, which all Europe admired, to our own language, and of incorporating them with his own property, and with what was still in favour of former English composers. The general melody of our countryman, if analyzed, would perhaps appear to be neither Italian nor English, but an agreeable mixture of Italian, English, and Scots. Many of his ballads, indeed, were professed imitations of the Scottish style, but in his other songs he frequently dropped into it, perhaps without design. Arne was never a close imitator of Handel, nor thought, by the votaries of that great musician, to be a sound contrapuntist. His oratorios were so unfortunate that he was generally a

loser whenever they were performed; and yet it would be unjust to say that they did not merit a better fate; for, though the chorusses were much inferior in force to those of Handel, yet the airs were frequently admirable. Scarcely any of this pleasing composer's productions had full and unequivocal success but "Comus" and "Artaxerxes," which were at the distance of twenty-four years from each other.

"Rosamond," his first musical drama, produced in 1773, had a few songs in it that were long in favour, and the "Judgment of Paris" many; but, except when his sister, Miss Arne, afterwards Mrs. Cibber, sung in them, he never gained any thing by either. "Thomas and Sally," indeed, as a farce, with very little musical merit, was often acted; and, previous to that, "Eliza" was a short time in favour; but the number of his unfortunate pieces for the stage was prodigious. Upon the whole, though this composer had formed a new style of his own, there did not appear that fertility of ideas, original grandeur of thought, or those resources upon all occasions which are discoverable in the works of his predecessor, Purcell, both for the church and stage; yet, in secular music, he must be allowed to have surpassed him in ease, grace, and variety, which is no inconsiderable praise, when it is remembered that, from the death of Purcell to that of Arne, a period of nearly 100 years, no candidate for musical fame among our countrymen had appeared who was equally admired by the nation at large. Dr. Arne may be considered as a singular instance of that predestinate taste which is to be accounted for only by peculiar organization, the existence of which, among other less splendid instances, has been since confirmed by Crotch, Himmel, and Mozart. His first stealthy acquisitions in musical science, made chiefly during the night, contrary to the direction of the principal pursuit of his life and in opposition to the will of his father, are proofs of that irresistible propensity by which genius, perhaps universally, governs its possessors. This was the pure and unbought love of the art, created by the pleasurable perception of sweet sounds; for, although Handel's operas had begun to attract the attention of the public, Arne was too young either to comprehend or to covet the chances of profitable exertion, when he resorted to the means by which he obtained the first rudiments of his future professional skill. Perhaps the highest testimony that Arne's music has obtained from time has been the continued reception of "Artaxerxes," against the universal sense and feeling of dramatic effect. Excellent and attractive indeed must the airs be that can atone to English sentiments and habits for the recitative and consequent destruction of all interest in the language, the incidents, and the plot. It is sufficient that scarcely a second attempt of the kind has been since made. There was in Arne's compositions a natural ease and elegance, a flow of melody which stole upon the senses, and a fulness and variety in the harmony which satisfied, without surprising the auditor by any new, affected, or extraneous modulation. Dr. Arne died on the 5th of March, 1778, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

**ARNOLD OF BRESCIA.**—This distinguished reformer was one of the disciples of Abelard, and returned to his native city, full of new ideas on religion, in 1136. His bold and lofty spirit, his know-

ledge of church history, and his vehement eloquence in his public harangues, gave authority to his reproaches against the abuses of the church. Thus he instigated the people against the clergy; and in France, where he was obliged to flee in 1139, he also found numerous adherents; for the immorality and arrogance of the clergy had every where excited discontent. The fierce flame which he had kindled could not be extinguished by the excommunication pronounced against him and his adherents (Arnoldists) by Innocent II. Arnold preached his doctrines in safety at Zurich, in Switzerland, until 1144, when he appeared at Rome, and, by the powers of his eloquence, occasioned a violent excitement among the people against the clergy. The furious multitude, whom he himself could no longer restrain, revered him as their father, and even the senate protected him, till Adrian IV., in 1155, laid an interdict upon the city. This disgrace, never before experienced, subdued the Romans. They sued for mercy, and Arnold was obliged to fly. He was taken in the Campania, and burnt at Rome as a heretic and a rebel; his ashes were thrown into the Tiber, and his party was suppressed; but the spirit of his doctrine descended upon the sects which arose during the same and the following centuries.

**ARNOLD, BENEDICT.**—This individual attained so disgraceful an eminence during the American struggle for freedom that we readily furnish an outline of his life as a lesson to those traitors who would sell the incipient liberties of their country. Arnold was born in Connecticut, and his early occupations were not fitted to prepare him for the functions which he was called upon to exercise in afterlife. He was at first a dealer in horses, but the troubles of his country inspired him with the hope of acquiring fame and fortune by the profession of arms: accordingly, on the breaking out of the revolutionary war, he embraced the cause of his countrymen with activity, and took the command of a company of volunteers at New Haven. He soon won a high military reputation. Washington, encouraged by secret information that the Canadians were inclined to make part of the Union, projected the surprise of Quebec. This hazardous undertaking required leaders at once active, vigilant, bold, and inflexibly patient. He committed it to Montgomery and Colonel Arnold, as the most capable. He exhorted them with extreme earnestness to treat the Canadians as friends, as fellow-citizens, and to punish severely the least irregularities of the soldiery. Arnold began his march in the month of September. He conducted his small force through deserts which man had never before penetrated. The river of Kennebeck had overflowed its banks; he crossed it by swimming or on rafts. Unknown streams presented a new obstacle: he diverted their course. The snow fell in abundance; a few hours of sun during the day were insufficient to thaw the ice formed in the long and severe nights of the northern autumn; but nothing could arrest his progress. He was always in the van with the pioneers, who cut a passage through this wild country, and, at the end of each march, had arrived before the enemy knew of his approach. He thus put in practice a maxim which he was fond of repeating: "In war, expedition is equivalent to strength."—The last division, conducted by a man less resolute and persevering, returned; while he, at the head of the two first, sustained the courage of the



soldiers, who were exhausted by fatigue, hunger, and every species of suffering. After two months of toil, all impediments were overcome, and he encamped before the fortress, but with a band so much enfeebled that he was obliged to await the arrival of Montgomery, who approached by another route. Montgomery died gloriously in an assault, and Arnold was severely wounded in the leg, and forced to convert the siege into a blockade. He was not, however, to be daunted by any reverse. From the bed to which his wound confined him, he infused into the little army, the command of which had now devolved upon him, his own spirit of determination and confidence. The enterprise failed: the courage and intelligence which he exhibited throughout placed him, nevertheless, in the first class of American officers. He served with better fortune, and still greater distinction, in the subsequent campaigns, and bore a considerable part in that in which Burgoyne and his army were made prisoners. He fought with his usual intrepidity in the engagement which preceded the capitulation. The first to throw himself into the intrenchments of the enemy, he was animating his men by his example, when a ball shattered the leg already wounded at the siege of Quebec. As he was borne from the ranks to his tent, he still issued orders for the continuance of the assault. The boldness of Arnold was so great that he was accused of a disposition to entangle himself rashly in perilous situations; but it could not be denied that his rapid discernment supplied him, in the midst of danger, with the surest expedients, and that success always justified his daring. His love of glory was accompanied with an equally strong love of pleasure and dissipation, and he was very unscrupulous about the mode of obtaining the means of gratifying it. His ill-gotten wealth he squandered in frivolous expenses, or mere ostentation. Montreal, the second city of Canada, was, under his command, a scene of injustice and rapacity, and the Canadians soon abandoned the design of joining the confederation.

The attempt on Canada was abandoned, and, the wounds of Arnold being not yet healed, he could be invested only with some stationary command, and Washington, though he detested his vices, did not wish to leave his talents idle. The English having evacuated Philadelphia, he directed Arnold to take possession of that city with some troops of the Pennsylvania line—a delicate charge for a man so prone to extend his powers, and define them according to his interests. It was not long before he displayed in this city a magnificence as foreign to the habits of the country as it was unseasonable in the midst of the calamities of war. He even lodged in his house the French envoy and all his suite on their arrival. To relieve himself from the difficulties into which his extravagance had plunged him, he resorted to the same oppression and extortion which had rendered his authority odious to the Canadians. Under pretence of the wants of the army, he forbade the shopkeepers to sell or buy; he then placed their goods at the disposal of his agents, and caused them afterwards to be resold with a profit. The citizens applied for redress to the courts of justice. But, with his military authority as his shield, he set at defiance both justice and the laws. At length, however, a representation of the grievances which the state was suffering was made to congress

by the president of the executive council of Pennsylvania, a man of firm and upright character, who had endeavoured in vain to repress the overweening and predatory spirit of Arnold, and a committee was appointed to enquire into the subject. Several members of congress were of opinion that he should be suspended from his military functions until the investigation of his public conduct was brought to an issue; but the accusation had become an affair of party, and he had influence enough to cause this proposition to be set aside. Congress at length resolved to lay the complaints against him before the commander-in-chief.

As soon as Arnold saw that the resolutions of congress would be of this tenour, he resigned the command which he held in Philadelphia. He was tried before a court martial, and condemned January 20, 1779, to be reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. Congress ratified the sentence, and Washington, having caused the culprit to appear before him, performed the task with the considerate delicacy which he thought due to so distinguished an officer.

The embarrassment of his affairs was at this time such that private aid would not suffice to extricate him. He had, some time before, formed a partnership with some owners of privateers, who paid his share of the expenses of equipment, and expected to be compensated for their advances by his countenance and protection; but the chances were adverse, and, instead of profits to be divided, there were losses to be borne. Arnold was no longer regarded by the owners as any thing more than an ordinary partner. They exacted his proportion of the loss, and their knowledge of his difficulties only served to render them more urgent in their suit. In this extremity, he tried a last resource.—Congress, at the commencement of the revolution, committed an error which proved of great detriment to the finances. It entrusted some officers with agencies which had no immediate connection with the business of command or military service. Arnold, the least proper for such trusts, was charged with considerable ones, and had large claims for monies and stores furnished in the expedition to Canada. The commissioners to whom they were referred for settlement reduced them very considerably. He appealed from their decision to congress, who pronounced that the commissioners had shown more lenity than rigour in the liquidation of his accounts.

Disappointed in all his expectations, Arnold at last determined to betray his country, and to make his treason in a high degree useful to England, that it might procure him a full pardon for his share in the revolt of the colonies. He wished to be regarded as a subject returned to his allegiance, and worthy of the honourable rewards due to faithful and virtuous citizens. As a first step, the British commanders were to be made acquainted with his discontent, but in so guarded a manner as to leave a retreat open, in case the offers which might be made to him should not prove satisfactory, and particular circumstances facilitated the communications between them.

As soon as the English commander was apprized of the disposition of Arnold, he despatched emissaries charged with such offers as were most likely to determine a man whose hesitation was only about the means and conditions. Some of Arnold's proceedings, about this period, warrant the supposi-

tion that he had at first meant to tamper with his brother officers, but relinquished this design on more mature reflection. He took good care that nothing of his real intentions should be divined by the subaltern English agents; but there was, at New York, a man whom he thought he could trust without risk. This was Charles Beverley Robinson, an American by birth, and a colonel in the British army, whose property all lay within the United States. His mansion, situated on the Hudson, was included in the American lines, and three miles lower than the forts upon the opposite bank. The commanding officers of West Point, having found it deserted, had made it their quarters. Arnold wrote to this officer that the ingratitude of his country, and other considerations to be afterwards disclosed, had produced a change in his political sentiments,—that he aspired to merit, thenceforward, the favour of the king,—that he could render signal services, and wished to enter into a correspondence on the subject with Sir Henry Clinton.

This overture was well received, and, a direct communication with the English general being established, it was agreed that Arnold should dissemble with the utmost care his discontent, that he should make every effort to obtain a command from general Washington, that, as soon as he succeeded, he should consult with Sir Henry Clinton as to his future movements, and be guided by the instructions which would be given to him. From this time Arnold altered his manner and language. He affected to have forgotten the affront of the reprimand, and pretended to feel a more lively attachment than ever to the cause of independence.

The country through which the Hudson flows was the principal theatre of the war, and a station in this quarter would, he thought, best answer his purpose. He examined with minute attention in what spot, by what operations he could most beneficially second the enterprises of the British, and which was the most important position to betray into their hands. New York was, at this time, in the hands of the British, who had assembled there the greatest part of their troops. The fortress of West Point, a military station of very great importance, is distant twenty leagues from this city. Arnold desired the command of this post, with a view of betraying it into the hands of the British, with the garrison, and the arms and immense stores which were deposited there; for Fort Clinton contained, besides the ammunition necessary for its own defence, the stock of powder of the whole army.

The command of the fort had been entrusted to General Howe, an officer of tried courage, but of limited capacity, who could be employed elsewhere without inconvenience to the service. The wounds of Arnold did not as yet allow him to mount on horseback; they did not disqualify him, however, for conducting the defence of a citadel. He had early secured the patronage of some of the leading men of the state of New York, and Washington was prevailed upon to consign West Point to him. Being a traitor to his own country, he was apprehensive lest those to whom he was about to sell himself might prove treacherous to him. He therefore felt anxious to receive the price of his ignominious bargain at the moment of its ratification; but he could extort nothing more than a promise of 30,000*l.* sterling, and the assurance that he should be maintained in the Bri-

tish army in the rank of brigadier-general, which he already held. The circumstances which we have thus briefly adverted to were followed by the meeting which ultimately ended in the lamented death of Major André. These have, however, already been fully detailed in the memoir of that enterprising young officer, and it may be enough to state that Captain Jameson, who had discovered the treasonable papers on the person of Major André, began to view his first suspicions as an outrage on the character of an officer so distinguished as Arnold was, by so many noble exploits, and, wishing to reconcile the deference due to him with the performance of his own duty, he wrote him word that Anderson (André), the bearer of his passport, had been arrested on the 23rd.

Arnold did not receive this intimation until the morning of the 25th. It was on a Monday; and the same day, or the one following, had been selected for the consummation of the plot. Until that moment, he had believed success infallible. The exhilaration which this belief produced was even remarked, and he ascribed it to his expectation of the speedy arrival of his general, "for whom he had pleasant news." He was busy with the appropriate arrangements for the reception of a body of more welcome visitors, when he received the letter of Jameson. Those who were present on the occasion recollected, afterwards, that he could not at first conceal his dismay and extreme agitation; but that, recovering himself quickly, he said, in a loud voice, that he would write an answer; and, dismissing all about him, withdrew, to reflect on the course which it was best to adopt. The entrance of two American officers, however, interrupted his musings. They were sent by the commander-in-chief, and informed Arnold that he had arrived that morning at Fishkill, a few leagues from West Point,—that he was to have set out a few hours after them, and could not be far distant.

Suppressing his emotion, he told the two officers that he wished to go and meet the general alone, and begged them not to follow him. He then entered the apartment of his wife, exclaiming—"All is discovered—André is a prisoner—The commander-in-chief will know every thing—The discharge of cannon which you hear is a salute, and announces that he is not far off—Burn all my papers—I fly to New York." He embraced her, as well as their infant child, whom she carried in her arms, and, solely intent on his escape, left her, without waiting for her reply, mounted the horse of one of the two officers, and rushed towards the Hudson, which was not far from his house. He had taken the precaution to have always ready a barge well-manned: he threw himself headlong into it, and caused the boatmen to make for the English sloop with all possible despatch. The barge, bearing a flag of truce, was still visible from the heights when Washington arrived. The two officers related to him what they had witnessed, and that Arnold had absconded. His wife, in the agonies of despair, seemed to fear for her infant, and maintained an obstinate silence.

No one knew how to explain these extraordinary incidents. The commander-in-chief repaired without delay to the fort of West Point, where, however, he could learn nothing of a decisive import. But some orders issued by Arnold the day before redoubled his suspicions: he returned to the quarters of the general, and at this instant Jameson's messenger presented



himself, and delivered the packet with which he was charged. Washington seemed, for a few minutes, as if he were overwhelmed by the discovery of a crime which ruined the fame of an American general and wounded the honour of the American army. Those who were near him anxiously interrogated his looks in silence, which he broke by saying, "I thought that an officer of courage and ability, who had often shed his blood for his country, was entitled to confidence, and I gave him mine. I am convinced now and for the rest of my life that we should never trust those who are wanting in probity, whatever abilities they may possess. Arnold has betrayed us."

Meanwhile, the precautions required by the occasion were every where taken. General Heath, a faithful and vigilant officer, was substituted for Arnold at West Point; the commanders of the other posts were admonished to be on their guard. Greene, who had been invested with the command of the army during the absence of Washington, recalled within the forts the garrisons which the traitor had dispersed, and marched a strong division near to the lines. Hamilton lost not an instant in repairing to King's Ferry, the last American post on the side of New York. He had the mortification to learn that a very short time before his arrival Arnold's barge had glided by with the swiftness of an arrow, and was then getting alongside the Vulture, some miles lower down, opposite Teller's Point, an anchorage situated at the head of the great basin of the Hudson, which is called Tappan Bay. Livingston had remarked the barge that carried the fugitive, and, his suspicions being roused by the strange movements of the two or three days previous, would have stopped it, had not the sailors of his guard-boats been ashore when it passed. Messengers were sent to all the states of the Union, and to the French general, to inform them of this event. The messenger who bore the news to congress travelled with such rapidity that he reached Philadelphia on the same day that the discovery was made in the camp. The magistrates were immediately directed to enter the house of Arnold, and to seize and examine his papers. They found nothing there relating to the conspiracy; but he had left memoranda which furnished ample proof that he was guilty of the extortions and peculations of which he had been accused two years before. In the mean time Arnold actively employed himself in the formation of a new corps; and, to induce the American officers and soldiers to desert the cause which they had embraced, he represented that the corps of cavalry and infantry which he was authorized to raise would be upon the same footing with the other troops in the British service, that he should with pleasure advance those whose valour he had witnessed, and that the private men who joined him should receive a bounty of three guineas each, besides payment at the full value for horses, arms, and accoutrements. His object was the peace, liberty, and safety of America. These proclamations did not produce the effect designed, and in all the hardships, sufferings, and irritations of the war, Arnold remains the solitary instance of an American officer who abandoned the side first embraced in the contest, and turned his sword upon his former companions in arms. He was soon despatched by Sir Henry Clinton to make a diversion in Virginia. With about 1700 men, he arrived in the Chesapeake in January 1751, and, be-

ing supported by such a naval force as was suited to the nature of the service, he committed extensive ravages on the rivers, and along the unprotected coasts. It is said, that, while on this expedition, Arnold enquired of an American captain whom he had taken prisoner what the Americans would do with him if he should fall into their hands. The officer replied that they would "cut off the lame leg, and bury it with the honours of war, and hang the remainder of his body in gibbets."

After his recall from Virginia, he conducted an expedition against New London in his native state of Connecticut. He took Fort Trumbull with considerable loss. On the other side of the harbour, lieutenant-colonel Eyre, who commanded another detachment, made an assault on Fort Griswold, and, with the greatest difficulty, entered the works. An officer of the conquering troops asked who commanded. "I did," answered colonel Ledyard, "but you do now," and presented him his sword, which was immediately plunged into his bosom. A merciless slaughter now commenced of the brave garrison, who had ceased to resist, and the greater part were either killed or wounded. After burning the town, and the stores which were in it, Arnold returned to New York in eight days.

Arnold survived the war but to drag on, in perpetual banishment from his native country, a dishonourable life, and he transmitted to his children a name of hateful celebrity. He obtained only part of the debasing stipend of an abortive treason. But baffled treason appears always to be overpaid, and the felon is the only one who thinks that he experiences injustice. He enjoyed, however, the rank of brigadier-general; but the officers of the British army manifested a strong repugnance to serve with him. He possessed their esteem while he fought against them; they loaded him with contempt when treason brought him over to their side. He resided principally in England after the conclusion of the war, was in Nova Scotia, and afterwards in the West Indies, where he was taken prisoner by the French, from whom he escaped, and, returning to England, died in Gloucester Place, London, June 15, 1801.

ARNOLD, CHRISTOPHER, a peasant of Somerfield, near Leipsic, celebrated as an astronomer. He was born in that village in 1646, and died in 1695, and during that time accomplished so much by his own exertions that he corresponded with the most celebrated literati of his age, whose original letters are preserved at Leipsic, in the library of the council. He erected an observatory on his dwelling-house, which preserved the memory of this remarkable man till 1794, when it was pulled down on account of its decay. Unwearied in his observations, he discovered many phenomena sooner than other astronomers; as, for instance, the two comets of 1683 and 1686, to which he directed the attention of the astronomers of Leipsic. He acquired yet more celebrity by his observation of the transit of Mercury in 1690. The magistracy of Leipsic made him, on this occasion, a present of money, and remitted his taxes for life. In the churchyard at Somerfield is the monument of this astronomical peasant, by whose name the celebrated astronomer Schröter distinguished three valleys in the moon.

ARNOLD, JOHN, a miller, who became known by a law-suit in which he was engaged during the reign of Frederic II. (the Great), king of Prussia.



The king believed that the miller had suffered great injustice by a decision in favour of his territorial lord, and deposed the minister of justice, and several other officers, on their refusal to change the judgment. He then undertook the office of judge himself, and reversed the sentence. By this act, one of the best monarchs was made to resemble one of the worst, Ferdinand VII., who reversed, in a similar way, the judgment in the case of Arguelles. The case became notorious throughout Europe, and added to the fame of Frederic as a general that of a lover of justice. It afterwards, however, became evident that the monarch had been seduced into injustice by his zeal for equity; and those of the judges who had been imprisoned were set at liberty.

The memoirs of Nettelbeck, captain of a Prussian vessel, exhibited a proof of the general admiration excited by this act of supposed justice. Nettelbeck went to Lisbon, and, when the people learned that he was a Prussian, a mob assembled, and accompanied him for a long time with loud shouts. The same man was afterwards captured by the Algerines; but, when the dey learned that he was a subject of the *great king*, he set him immediately at liberty, to show his respect for Frederic.

ARNOLD, SAMUEL, a celebrated composer of music, who was born in the year 1739, and received his musical education at the Chapel Royal, St. James. He first brought himself into notice by the beautiful air of, "If 'tis joy to wound a lover," which was followed by other compositions, which established his professional reputation. In the year 1760 he was introduced to the public as musical composer for Covent Garden Theatre; and in 1776 he was engaged by Mr. Colman to superintend the music in the Haymarket Theatre. About the year 1767 Mr. Arnold set to music the "Cure of Saul," which was followed by the oratorios of "Abimelech," the "Resurrection," and the "Prodigal Son"—compositions which increased his fame, and were considered worthy of the disciple of Handel. When Lord North was installed chancellor of the university of Oxford, the oratorio of the Prodigal Son was performed under the direction of Mr. Arnold; and on this occasion the degree of Doctor of Music was conferred upon him, agreeably to the statutes of the university. In the year 1783 Dr. Arnold succeeded Dr. Nares as organist and composer to his majesty's chapel at St. James's. In 1789 he was appointed director and manager of the Academy of Ancient Music; and in 1796 he was chosen the successor of Dr. Hayes in the management of the annual performances of St. Paul's for the feast of the sons of the clergy. This celebrated musician died on the 22d of October 1802, and left behind him two daughters and a son.

Besides the compositions already mentioned, Dr. Arnold was the author of the music in the "Maid of the Mill," "Ince and Yarico," "The Agreeable Surprise," and the "Surrender of Calais." These works have all of them retained possession of the stage to the present day, and mark a distinct era in British musical composition.

ARPINO, JOSEPHINE, D<sup>e</sup>, a celebrated Italian painter, born at Rome in 1560. He was early distinguished for his love of art, and he was employed to ornament the Vatican, at a golden crown a day, by Pope Gregory XIII., who took him under his protection. His successor, Clement VIII., added new

honours and emoluments to those of Gregory; and Arpino continued to enjoy his protection till his death. In 1600 he went in the train of Cardinal Aldobrandini, who was, on the marriage of Mary de Medicis to Henry IV. of France, sent to that country as legate. Arpino died in 1640, in the eightieth year of his age.

This artist excelled in oil and fresco painting. His style was rich, vigorous, and animated; and his earlier productions were distinguished by a delicacy of finish which astonished by its singular beauty and softness. In his later days, however, this was superseded by one in which rapidity of execution was more apparent than elegance of design or delicacy of finish.

ARRIA, the heroic wife of Cæcina Pætus, who, being suspected of a conspiracy against the emperor Claudius, was ordered to destroy himself. Perceiving him hesitate, she plunged a dagger into her breast, and presented it to her husband with these words: "Pætus, it is not painful."

ARRIAN, a valuable Greek historian, who flourished in the second century. He was born of an honourable family at Nicomedia, a city of Bithynia, and held the office of priest of Ceres and Proserpine, which was never conferred but on persons of distinction. Having removed to Rome, he soon recommended himself to Adrian, and was by him appointed prefect of Cappadocia. In this situation he carried on with success the war against the Alauni and Massagetæ. Arrian was held in high estimation both by his contemporaries and by succeeding authors. Pliny the Younger, who was proconsul of Pontus and Bithynia, whilst Arrian governed the adjoining province of Bithynia, addressed several of his epistles to him. Suidas informs us that he attained even to the consular dignity, and that he was called another Xenophon, on account of the sweetness of his style. He resembled that elegant author also, in other respects; for he was a soldier as well as a scholar, a successful student of philosophy as well as of polite literature: and, as we owe to Xenophon the "Memorabilia" of Socrates, so we are no less indebted to Arrian for that most valuable piece of ancient morality the "Enchiridion" of Epictetus.

The historical writings of Arrian are numerous; but of these, with the exception of some fragments in "Photius," only two remain. The first is composed of seven books on the "Expedition of Alexander," which, being principally compiled from the memoirs of Ptolemy Lagus, and Aristobulus, who both served under that king, are deemed proportionably valuable. To this work is added a book on the affairs of India, which pursues the history of Alexander, but is not deemed of equal authority with the former. An epistle from Arrian to Adrian is also extant, entitled, "Periplus Ponti Euxini," probably written while he was prefect of Cappadocia.

The best editions of Arrian are that of Gronovius, Greek and Latin, in 1704, folio; of Raphelius, Greek and Latin, published at Amsterdam, 1750, 8vo.; and of Schneider, published at Leipsic, in 1798. Of his "Enchiridion," the most valuable edition is that of Upton, 1739. The "Expedition of Alexander" has been translated into English by Rooke, in two vols. octavo, published at London, in 1729.

ARROWSMITH, AARON, a celebrated engraver of maps and charts, of which he published a vast number. Mr. Arrowsmith resided in Soho Square for many years, where he died, April the 23d, 1823.



ARSINOE, the sister and wife of Ptolemy Philadelphus; she was worshipped after her death under the name of *Venus Zephyritis*. There is another princess of the same name well known in ancient history. She was the daughter of Ptolemy Lagus, who married Lysimachus, king of Macedonia. After her husband's death, Ceraunus, her own brother, married her and ascended the throne of Macedonia. He previously murdered Lysimachus and Philip, the sons of Arsinoe, by Lysimachus, in their mother's arms. Arsinoe was some time after banished into Samothrace.

ARTAXERXES, the name of several Persian kings. The first of these was surnamed *Longimanus*, on account of his long arms. He was the second son of Xerxes, and escaped from Artabanus and the other conspirators who had murdered his father, and elder brother Darius. He subdued the rebellious Egyptians, terminated the war with Athens by granting freedom to the Greek cities of Asia, governed his subjects in peace, and died B. C. 425. He was favourable to the Jews, and is thought to be the Ahasuerus of scripture.

Artaxerxes, surnamed *Mnemon*, from his strong memory, followed his father Darius II., in the year 405 B. C. After having vanquished his brother Cyrus, he made war on the Spartans, who had assisted his enemy, and forced them to abandon the Greek cities and islands of Asia to the Persians. He favoured the Athenians, and endeavoured to foment dissensions among the Greeks. He was killed in 361, by his son Ochus, who succeeded him under the name of *Artaxerxes Ochus*. After having subjected the Phœnicians and Egyptians, and displayed great cruelty in both countries, he was poisoned by his general Bagoas, who threw his body to the wild cats, and had sabre-handles made of his bones.

ARTEDI, PETER, a Swedish naturalist, the friend of Linnæus, equally eminent for his knowledge of chemistry. Artedi was born in Angermanland, of poor parents, in the year 1705, and followed a course of study at the college of Hernasand, the principal town of his native province. There he, at an early period of his life, manifested a decided partiality in favour of ichthyology, a science at that time involved in great obscurity. In the year 1724 he went to the university of Upsal, and, as if aware of the limited patronage which the explorers of nature in general obtain, the express object of his residence was the study of theology. In this he seems to have made little progress, and the bent of that genius, so strongly implanted in his mind, soon displayed itself, by his exchanging the dulness of scholastic controversy for more interesting and congenial pursuits. While prosecuting his studies with assiduity, Linnæus, having also arrived at Upsal, for the purpose of attending the university, in 1728 enquired who was the student then attending it most eminent for his knowledge of natural history. Common consent ascribed this character to Artedi, which inspired Linnæus with an ardent desire to enjoy his acquaintance. Accordingly, having sought him out, he saw him under the most inauspicious circumstances, pale and dejected, and bitterly lamenting the decease of his father, of which he had just obtained intelligence. The conversation of the two naturalists was, in a short time, directed to their kindred enquiries, and the extent of knowledge that Artedi displayed

was the subject of astonishment to Linnæus, who materially assisted him in his future pursuits.

A constant emulation prevailing between Artedi and Linnæus excited the strongest desire in both to excel; for it was only that friendly emulation which led each to wish the perfecting of his own knowledge. Neither refused to admit the alternate superiority of the other, according as he made greater discoveries in the peculiar subjects of his study. Linnæus exceeded Artedi in botany, and Artedi surpassed him in chemistry. They began their enquiries into the nature of fishes and insects together; but Linnæus soon yielded the palm to his friend in ichthyology, and Artedi acknowledged the superiority of Linnæus in entomology. At length, by mutual consent, they agreed to divide the kingdoms of nature between them, and that each should retain his own discoveries to himself, a resolution of short duration, which was interrupted by their constant intercourse, and ended in unreserved communication.

Artedi, after having resided several years at Upsal, visited England in 1734, for the purpose of improving his knowledge in ichthyology, to which he now devoted his whole attention. In London his resources were quite exhausted, and he then went to Holland, anxious to attain a literary degree which the embarrassed state of his finances almost seemed to preclude. While in a state next to indigence, he unexpectedly met Linnæus at Leyden in 1735, to whom he disclosed his necessities, explaining that he was not only unable to procure clothes and books, but that he also stood in need of money to obtain his intended degree, and to return to Sweden; and ended with soliciting Linnæus to point out some mode of relief. His friend had uniformly professed a sincere attachment towards him, and now, being in a better situation than when they parted, he could lend him effectual assistance. Seba, a learned apothecary of Amsterdam, had recently requested the aid of Linnæus himself in the publication of his "Thesaurus," a well-known work, which he, being engaged with other avocations, had declined. The part on which Seba was then occupied, fortunately for Artedi, respected fishes, and Linnæus introduced him as the most skilful ichthyologist of his time. Seba accordingly promised him a liberal recompence, and he immediately entered on preparing the third volume of the "Thesaurus." This he was closely engaged on for many months, and had nearly completed the work when he unfortunately met his death by falling into a canal, 25th September 1735.

When Artedi and Linnæus were at Upsal they reciprocally constituted themselves heirs to each other's books and other collections. But the landlord of Artedi, at whose house his situation had compelled him to contract some small debts, would not deliver up his effects, which he threatened to sell by public auction. Through the generous liberality, however, of Dr. Clifford, the wish of Linnæus was accomplished, as the former purchased the manuscripts, and made Linnæus a present of them. The principal one was the general work on fishes, which Linnæus published under the title "*Petri Artedi, Sueci Medici, Ichthyologia, sive Opera Omnia de Piscibus*," with the life of the author. But a more valuable edition was published by Dr. Walbaum of Lubeck. In three volumes are included not only all the modern discoveries and improvements, but a history of the science of ichthyology, from the earliest accounts to

the present times. It may be proper to add that Schneider published a new edition of a part of this work at Leipsic in 1789.

ARTEMISIA, a celebrated queen of Caria, the sister and wife of Mausolus, whose death she lamented in the most tender manner, and to whom she erected, in the capital of Halicarnassus, a monument, which was considered one of the seven wonders of the world. The principal architects of Greece laboured on it. Bryaxis, Scopas, Leochares, and Timotheus made the decorations on the four sides of the edifice; Pythes, the chariot drawn by four horses, which adorned the conical top. After the death of Artemisia, the artists finished it without any compensation, that they might not be deprived of the honour of their labour. Artemisia died soon after her husband, and was buried in the monument which she had erected to him, 351 B. C. There was another queen named Artemisia, who was sovereign of Halicarnassus. She accompanied Xerxes on his expedition against Greece, and distinguished herself, in the battle of Salamis (480 B. C.), by her determined boldness and courage.

ARTEMIDORUS, called the *Daldian*, from the birth-place of his mother, a small city of Lydia, was a Greek writer, who lived in the second century after Christ. He occupied himself, principally, with the interpretation of dreams. We still have two of his writings on this subject, which are particularly deserving of the notice of antiquaries, on account of the information they contain relative to ancient rites and customs. The latest critical edition is that published at Leipsic, in 1805.

ARTHUR, or ARTUS, a prince of the Silures, who is said to have flourished in the sixth century. This ancient British hero, whose story has been the theme of much romantic fiction, was according to Geoffrey of Monmouth the fruit of an adulterous connection between the princess Igera, of Cornwall, and Uther, the pendragon or chief commander of the Britons. He was born about 501. In 516 he succeeded his father in the office of general, and performed those heroic deeds against the Saxons, Scots, and Picts, which have made him so celebrated. He married the celebrated Guenever, or Ginevra, belonging to the family of the dukes of Cornwall, established the celebrated order of the round table, and reigned, surrounded by a splendid court, for twelve years, in peace. After this, as the poets relate, he conquered Denmark, Norway and France, slew the giants of Spain, and went to Rome. From thence he is said to have hastened home, on account of the faithlessness of his wife, and Modred, his nephew, who stirred up his subjects to rebellion. He is said to have subdued the rebels, but to have died in consequence of his wounds, in 542. Hume thinks that the story of Arthur has some foundation in fact.

ARUNDEL, THOMAS, archbishop of Canterbury in the reigns of Richard II., Henry IV., and Henry V. He was born in the year 1353, and was made bishop of Ely at the age of twenty-two. He was banished for his opposition to Richard II., but returned to England when Henry came to the throne. He was made primate of Canterbury, and became a fierce persecutor of the Lollards, or Wickliffites. As archbishop of Canterbury, he passed sentence of death on Lord Cobham, and died shortly after that event. The intolerance of this mis-called minister of God may be best illustrated by the fact that he

passed a synodical decree which forbade the translation of the holy scriptures into the vulgar tongue.

ASAPH, ST., a native of North Wales, who lived under Carentius, king of the Britons, about 590. He wrote the ordinances of his church, and the life of St. Kentigern, whom he succeeded in the charge of the convent of Llan Elwy. Bayle says he was the first who received divine unction from the pope.

ASCHAM, ROGER, an eminent English writer, born at Kirkby-Wishe, near Northallerton, in Yorkshire, about the year 1515. He was early in life taken into the family of the Wingfields, being educated at the expense of Sir Anthony Wingfield, with his two sons, under the care of Mr. Bond. He displayed considerable abilities, which were encouraged by his generous patron, who, after he had attained the elements of the learned languages, sent him, in 1530, to St. John's College in Cambridge, where, having made great progress in general literature, he took the degree of bachelor of arts, February, 1534; and on the 23rd of March following was appointed fellow of his college by Medcalf the master. He then applied himself to the Greek language, in which he attained to an excellence peculiar to himself, and read it publicly in his college with universal applause. At the commencement, in 1536, he was made master of arts, and soon after appointed by the university to teach the Greek language publicly in the schools. He did not at first go into the new pronunciation of the Greek, which his intimate friend Sir John Cheek endeavoured to introduce in the university; but, upon a thorough examination, he adopted this pronunciation, and defended it with great zeal and strength of argument. In July, 1542, he solicited the university of Oxford to be incorporated Master of Arts there; but whether his request was granted or not does not appear by the register. In order to relax his mind, after severer studies, he thought some diversion necessary; and shooting with the bow was his favourite amusement, as appears by his "Treatise on Archery," which he dedicated to King Henry VIII., who settled a pension upon him. Mr. Ascham was remarkable for writing a fine hand, and was employed to teach this art to Prince Edward, the lady Elizabeth, and the two brothers, Henry and Charles, dukes of Suffolk. The same year in which he published his book, he was chosen university orator, an office well suited to his genius and inclination. In February, 1548, he was sent for to court, to instruct the lady Elizabeth in the learned languages; and she attended him with so much pleasure that it is difficult to say whether the master or the scholar had the greater satisfaction. He read with her most of Cicero's works, great part of Livy, select orations of Isocrates, the tragedies of Sophocles, the Greek Testament, and many others of the most distinguished authors. In the summer of 1550, while on a visit to his relations in Yorkshire, he received a letter of invitation to attend Sir Richard Moryfine in his embassy to the emperor Charles V. In his journey to London, he visited the lady Jane Grey, at her father's house at Bradgate Hill, in Leicestershire; and it was during this visit that he surprised her reading Plato's *Phædo* in Greek, in the absence of her tutor, while the rest of the family were engaged in a hunting party; he observed to her that in this respect she was more happy than in being descended from kings and queens on both father's and mother's side. In the September follow-



ing, he embarked with the ambassador for Germany, where he remained three years. While he was at the German court, his friends procured him the post of Latin secretary to King Edward. But he did not long enjoy this honour, on account of the king's death. Some time after, however, his friend Lord Paget having recommended him to Stephen Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and lord high chancellor, he was appointed Latin secretary to Queen Mary. On the first of June, 1554, Mr. Ascham was married to Mrs. Margaret Howe, with whom he had a considerable fortune. Upon the death of Queen Mary, he was made by Queen Elizabeth her secretary for the Latin tongue, and her tutor in the learned languages, and shortly after he was created prebend of Westwarg in the church of York. He died at London on the 4th of January 1568, and was interred in St. Sepulchre's church, in a private manner, according to his own directions. He was universally lamented, and particularly by the queen herself.

Ascham is best known by his "Treatise on Education," and, as the title gives a very good notion of the book, we may advantageously transcribe it in detail. "The School-master; or, a plain and perfit way of teaching Children to understand, write, and speak the Latin Tongue; but especially purposed for the private bringing up of Youth in Gentleman and Nobleman's Houses; and commodious also for all such as have forgot the Latin Tongue, and would by themselves, without a School-master, in short Time, and with small Paines, recover a sufficient Habilitie to understand, write, and speak Latin," by Roger Ascham, ann. 1571. At London, printed by John Daye, dwelling over Aldersgate. Cum gratia et privilegio regie majestatis per decennium."

This ingenious scholar was also a good epistolary writer. His letters were published soon after his death by Mr. Grant, master of Westminster school. "These letters," says bishop Nicolson, "have, chiefly on account of their elegance, had several editions. They have all the fine variety of language that is proper either for rendering a petition or complaint the most agreeable; and withal a very great choice of historical matter, that is hardly preserved any where else. Together with the author's own letters, we have a good many that are directed to him, both from the most eminent writers of his time, such as Sturmius, Sleidan, &c., and the best scholars, as well as the wisest statesmen of his own country. And the publisher of these assures us that he had the perusal of a vast number of others in the English tongue, which were highly valuable. His attendance on Sir Richard Morryson, in his German embassy, gave him an intimate acquaintance with the affairs of that country; and the extraordinary freedom and familiarity with which the two sister queens treated him here at home afforded him a perfect knowledge of the most secret mysteries of state in this kingdom: so that, were the rest of his papers retrieved, we could not perhaps have a more pleasing view of the arcana of those reigns than his writings would give us."

Mr. Grant's first edition came out in 1576; there was another in 1577, a third in 1578, a fourth in 1590, all published at London, in octavo; the last and best edition is that of Oxford, in 1703, published by Mr. Elstob, who has added many letters not in the former editions.

ASGILL, JOHN, a celebrated lawyer, who was born in 1672. He received a good education, and,

early in life, was entered a member of Lincoln's Inn. In 1698 he published a treatise on the "Possibility of avoiding Death." This work was deemed blasphemous; and he was expelled the House of Commons for persisting in the support of its doctrines. After living for a considerable time in the King's Bench he was removed to the rules of the Fleet, where he ultimately died at about eighty years of age.

ASH, JOHN, LL.D., a dissenting minister, was born at Lonsdale in 1724. He was at one period coadjutor with Dr. Caleb Williams in the management of a dissenting academy at Bristol, and afterwards became pastor of a congregation at Pershore, where he died in 1779. His first work was entitled "The easiest introduction to Dr. Lowth's English Grammar." His next, "A new and complete Dictionary of the English Language," the plan of which was extensive beyond any thing of the kind ever attempted, and perhaps embraced much more than was necessary or useful. It is valuable, however, as containing a very large proportion of obsolete words, and such provincial or other words as have crept into general use. In 1777 he published "Sentiments on Education, collected from the best writers, properly methodized, and interspersed with occasional observations."



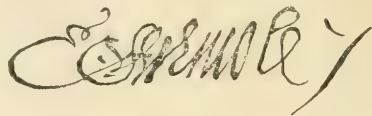
ASHMOLE, ELIAS, a celebrated English philosopher and antiquary, who founded the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford. He was born at Litchfield in 1617, and educated at the grammar school in that place. At the age of sixteen, being sent to London, he was taken into the family of James Paget, Esq., a baron of the exchequer, whose kindness towards him was afterwards acknowledged by Mr. Ashmole with strong feelings of gratitude. He continued for some years in the Paget family, during which time he applied to the law with great industry. In 1638 he became a solicitor in chancery; and on the 11th of February, 1641, was sworn an attorney in the court of common pleas. In August, 1642, he retired to Cheshire; and towards the end of 1644 he went to Oxford, where he entered himself of Brazen Nose College, and applied with great attention to the study of natural philosophy, mathematics, and astronomy. On the 9th of May, 1645, he became one of the gentlemen of the ordnance in the garrison

at Oxford, from whence he removed to Worcester, where he was commissioner, receiver, and register of the excise; and soon after captain in Lord Ashley's regiment, as well as comptroller of the ordnance. After the surrender of the garrison of Worcester, Mr. Ashmole retired again to Cheshire, where he continued till October, and then returned to London. Upon his arrival in town, he became acquainted with the celebrated astrologers, Sir Jonas Moore, Mr. Lilly, and Mr. Booker, who received him into their fraternity, and elected him steward of their annual feast. In 1647 he went down into Berkshire, where he lived an agreeable and retired life, in the village of Englefield; and it was here that he became acquainted with the lady Mainwaring, to whom he was married on the 16th of November, 1649. Soon after his marriage he went and settled in London, where his house was frequented by all the learned and ingenious men of that time. In 1650 he published a treatise written by Dr. Arthur Dee, relating to the philosopher's stone, together with another tract on the same subject by an unknown author. These works are so curious that we readily subjoin their title. It runs thus: "Fasciculus chemicus; or Chemical Collections expressing the ingress and egress of the secret hermetic science, out of the choicest and most famous authors; whereunto is added the Arcanum, or grand secret of hermetic philosophy, both made English by James Hasolle, Esq., qui est Mercuriophilus Anglicus. London, 1650," duodecimo. In his prolegomena he speaks thus: "I here present you with a summary collection of the choicest flowers growing in the hermetic gardens, sorted and bound up in one complete and lovely posy; a way whereby painful inquisitors avoid the usual discouragements met with in a tedious wandering through each long walk, or winding maze, which are the ordinary and guileful circumstances wherewith envious philosophers have enlarged their labours, purposely to puzzle or weary the most resolved undertakings. It is true, the manner of delivery used by the ancients upon this subject is very far removed from the common path of discourse; yet I believe they were constrained (for the weight and majesty of the secret) to invent those occult kind of expressions in ænigmas, metaphors, paraboles, and figures."

Before the arcanum there is an hieroglyphical frontispiece, in several compartments. At the top is Phœbus, sitting on a lion, holding the sun in his hand; and opposite to him Diana, with the moon in one hand and an arrow in the other, sitting on a crab; between them is Hermes, on a tripod, with a scheme of the heavens in one hand and his caduceus in the other; in the middle of the page is an altar, with the bust of a man, his head being covered by an astrological scheme, dropped by a hand from the clouds.

On the restoration of King Charles II., Mr. Ashmole was early introduced into the presence and favour of his majesty; and on June 18, 1660, which was the second time he had the honour of discoursing with the king, he graciously bestowed upon him the place of Windsor Herald. A few days after, he was appointed by the king to make a description of his medals, and had them delivered into his hands, and King Henry VIII.'s closet assigned for his use, being also allowed his diet at court. He also superintended a very active enquiry respect-

ing the fate of the royal library which had been consigned to the care of Hugh Peters during the time of the Commonwealth. From a document signed in his official capacity we copy the subjoined autograph, which is both rare and curious.



On the 15th of February Mr. Ashmole was admitted a fellow of the Royal Society; and on the 9th of February following the king appointed him secretary of the colony of Surinam. On the 19th of July, 1669, the university of Oxford, in consideration of the many favours they had received from Mr. Ashmole, created him doctor of physic by diploma, which was presented to him by Dr. Yates, principal of Brazen Nose College. On the 8th of May, 1672, he presented his "Institution, Laws, and Ceremonies of the most noble Order of the Garter," to the king, who received it very graciously, and, as a mark of his approbation, granted him a warrant under the privy seal for 400*l.*, out of the custom of paper. On the 26th of January, 1679, a fire broke out in the Middle Temple, in the next chamber to Mr. Ashmole's, by which he lost a fine library, with a collection of 9000 coins, ancient and modern, and a vast repository of seals, charters, and other antiquities and curiosities; but his manuscripts and his most valuable gold medals were luckily at his residence at Lambeth.

It was towards the latter end of October, 1677, that he made an offer to that university of bestowing on it all the valuable collection of the Tradescants which was so well known to the learned world, and which had been exceedingly improved since it came into his possession, together with all the coins, medals, and manuscripts of his own collecting, provided they would erect a building fit to receive them. To which proposition the university willingly assented. Accordingly, on Thursday the 15th of May, 1679, the first stone of that stately fabric, afterwards called Ashmole's Museum, was laid on the west side of the theatre; and, being finished by the beginning of March, 1682, the collection was deposited and the articles arranged by Robert Plott, LL.D., who had previously been entrusted with their custody. This museum was first publicly viewed on the 21st of May following, by his royal highness James duke of York, his royal consort Josepha Maria, princess Anne, and their attendants; and on the 24th of the same month by the doctors and masters of the university. In a convocation held on 4th of June following (1683), a Latin letter of thanks, being publicly read, was sent to Mr. Ashmole, at South Lambeth. In July, 1690, he visited the university with his wife, and was received with all imaginable honour, and entertained at a sumptuous dinner in his museum. In the beginning of the year 1685 he was invited by the magistrates and by the dean of Litchfield to represent that corporation in parliament; but upon King James's intimating to him, by Lord Dartmouth, that he wished him to resign his interest to Mr. Lewson, he instantly complied.

On the death of his father-in-law, Sir William



Dugdale, Mr. Ashmole declined a second time the office of garter king at arms, but recommended his brother-in-law to the office, in which, though he did not fully succeed, yet he procured him the place of Norroy. This was one of the last public acts of his life, the remainder of which was spent in an honourable retirement to the day of his demise, which took place on the 18th of May, 1692, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. Mr. Ashmole was undoubtedly a great benefactor of science and patron of learning. His love of chemistry led him to preserve many valuable MSS. relating to that science, besides those that he had printed and published, in addition to which he was deeply skilled in history and antiquities. His corpse was interred in the church of Lambeth in Surrey, May 26, 1692, and a black marble stone laid over his grave.

Ashmole was the author of a vast number of works. His history of the county of Surrey is very interesting, and contains, amongst other curious pieces of historical and antiquarian information, some account of Cumnor, and the end of the unfortunate Amy Robsart, who it will be recollected is the heroine of Sir Walter Scott's romance of Kenilworth. Ashmole's "History of the Order of the Garter" is also a well-written work.

The house in which Ashmole passed the greater part of his time was the wonder of the age. Strange monsters and extraordinary alchemical contrivances met the visitor at every step; and, at a time when the reputation for astrology implied deep learning, the edifice must have excited a considerable share of interest. Charles II. was a very frequent visitor, and presented many varieties to the museum. The external appearance of the edifice may be gathered from the following sketch.



ASKEW, ANNE, one of the most distinguished martyrs to the cause of protestantism who suffered during the reign of Queen Mary. She was born in 1529, and compelled by her father to marry a bigotted catholic, who ultimately laid an information against her, on which charge she was committed to prison. She was, however, in the first instance dismissed. But, a short time after, she was again apprehended, and summoned before the king's council at Greenwich, when Wriothesely the chancellor, Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and other prelates, once more questioned her on the doctrines of the

church of Rome. She replied with firmness and without prevarication, and, on finding her impracticable, her judges determined on other measures, and remanded her to Newgate, though she was at the time suffering under a severe indisposition. Having entreated, in vain, to be allowed a visit from Dr. Latimer, she addressed a letter to the king himself, declaring, "That, respecting the Lord's supper, she believed as much as had been taught by Christ himself, or as the catholic church required." But, still refusing her assent to the catholic meaning, her letter served only to aggravate her crime. She then wrote to the chancellor, inclosing her address to the king, but with no better success. From Newgate she was conveyed to the Tower, where she was interrogated respecting several ladies with whom she carried on a correspondence; but, heroically maintaining her fidelity, she refused to make any discoveries of that kind. This determination, so worthy of admiration, greatly incensed her persecutors, and they endeavoured by the rack to extort from her what she had refused to their demands; but she sustained the torture with unshaken fortitude and meek resignation. Wriothesely, with unmanly rage, commanded, with menaces, the lieutenant of the Tower to strain the instrument of his vengeance, and, when he refused, he himself became executioner, and every limb of the innocent victim was dislocated. When recovered from a swoon into which she fell, she remained sitting two hours on the bare ground, calmly reasoning with her tormentors, who were confounded by her courage and resolution. Pardon was afterwards offered her if she would recant, but, having rejected every offer of the kind, she was condemned to be burnt at the stake, which sentence was accordingly executed July 16, 1546.

ASPINWALL, WILLIAM, M. D., a distinguished anatomist, born in Massachusetts, United States of America, May 23rd, 1743. He was descended from English parents, who emigrated from England about the year 1630. He graduated at Harvard University, in 1764, and immediately afterwards began the study of medicine, and completed his course at the hospital of Philadelphia, in the university of which city he received his medical degree about the year 1768. He then returned to his native village, and commenced the exercise of his profession, being the first physician who settled in the place. When the revolutionary war broke out, he applied for a commission in the army; but his friend and relation, doctor (afterwards major-general) Warren, persuaded him to enter the service in a medical capacity. In consequence of this advice being adopted, Dr. Aspinwall was appointed surgeon in General Heath's brigade, and soon after, through the influence of General Warren, deputy-director of the hospital on Jamaica Plain, a few miles from Boston. He fought in person, as a volunteer, in the battle of Lexington, and bore from the field the corpse of Isaac Gardner, whose eldest daughter he afterwards married. After the death of Dr. Zabdiel Boylston, the first inoculator of small-pox in America, Dr. Aspinwall undertook the prosecution of that system, and erected hospitals for the purpose at Brookline. He perhaps inoculated more persons, and acquired greater skill and celebrity in treating this disease, than any other physician ever did in the United States. Besides his practice in this disorder, when it was generally prevailing, he was permitted, after the year 1788, to keep an hos-

pital open at all times, to which great numbers resorted. When vaccine inoculation was first introduced, he was aware that, if it had the virtues ascribed to it, his pecuniary prospects would be essentially affected. But he deemed it his duty to give it a fair trial; and, finding it succeed, he promptly acknowledged its virtue, saying to Dr. Waterhouse, who raised the first vaccine pustules ever seen in the new world, "This new inoculation of yours is no sham. As a man of humanity, I rejoice in it; although it will take from me a handsome annual income." As a physician, Dr. Aspinwall obtained great distinction. To his practice, which was very extensive, he devoted himself with unceasing ardour and fidelity for the space of forty-five years, during the greater part of which time he rode on horseback, often upwards of forty miles a day, and seldom retired to rest until after midnight. For some years before his death he was afflicted with blindness, occasioned by a cataract in the eye, which had been brought on by reading and writing late at night. He bore this misfortune with resignation and tranquillity, and preserved to the last his interest in daily occurrences and public events. He died April 16th, 1823, of natural decay, having nearly completed his eightieth year, with the calmness and composure of a Christian whose duties he had always fulfilled.

**ASSEMANNI.**—There were two very distinguished Italian ecclesiastics who bore this name in the seventeenth century. The first was archbishop of Tyre, and librarian of the Vatican. His principal work is entitled "*Bibliotheca Orientalis Clementino Vaticana*." It is a splendid book, and was published at Rome in 1728.

Stephen Assemani, nephew to the above, was also keeper to the Vatican library, and author of several minor works.

**ASSER, JOHN**, a learned monk of St. David's, who was sent for to the court of Alfred in 880. The king desired that he would divide his time between the court and the monastery, spending six months at court and six at St. David's. Asser would not lightly comply with this request, but desired leave to return to St. David's to ask the advice of his brethren, which he obtained; but in his journey he was taken ill at Winchester, where he remained more than a year. As soon as he recovered he went to St. David's, where, consulting with his brethren on the king's proposal, they unanimously agreed that he should accept it, but they requested of Asser that he would prevail on the king to allow him to reside quarterly at court and at St. David's, rather than that he should remain absent six months together. When he came back he found the king at Leoneforde, who received him with every mark of distinction. He remained with him eight months, reading and explaining to him whatever books were in his library, who in return bestowed on him the monasteries of Ambrosbury in Wiltshire and Banwell in Somersetshire, with a silk pall of great value.

From this time Asser appears to have been a very frequent visitor at the court of Alfred, and is named as a person in whom that monarch placed great confidence. He is also mentioned by the king in his prefatory epistle placed before the translation of Gregory's Pastoral, addressed to Wulfsig, bishop of London; and there the king does not

call him bishop of Sherburn, but "my bishop," acknowledging the assistance received from him and others in that translation. It appears to have been the near resemblance which the genius of Asser bore to that of the king that gained him so great a share in his confidence; and, very probably, it was on this account that Asser drew up those memoirs of the life of Alfred which we still have, and which he dedicated and presented to the king in the year 893. In this work we have a curious account of the manner in which that prince and Asser spent their time together. He states that having one day, being the feast of St. Martin, cited in conversation a passage of some celebrated author, the king was greatly pleased with it, and desired him to write it down in the margin of a book he carried in his breast; but Asser having no room to write it there, and yet being desirous to gratify his master, he asked King Alfred whether he should not provide a few leaves, in which to set down such remarkable things as occurred either in reading or conversation: the king was delighted with this hint, and directed Asser to put it immediately in execution. Pursuing this method constantly, their collection began to swell, till at length it became of the size of an ordinary Psalter; and this was what the king called his "Hand-book, or Manual."

Asser left many valuable works, but the one for which he is best known is the life of his royal master.

**ASTELL, MARY.**—This distinguished ornament of her sex and country was the daughter of James Astell, a merchant at Newcastle upon Tyne, where she was born about 1668. She was well educated, and amongst other accomplishments was mistress of the French, and Greek, and Latin tongues. Her uncle, a clergyman, observing marks of a promising genius, took her under his tuition, and taught her mathematics, logic, and philosophy. She left the place of her nativity when she was about twenty years of age, and spent the remaining part of her life at London and Chelsea. Here she pursued her studies with assiduity, made great proficiency in the above sciences, and acquired a more complete knowledge of the classic authors. Among these, Seneca, Epictetus, Hierocles, Antonius, Tully, Plato, and Xenophon were her favourites.

Her life was spent in writing for the advancement of learning, religion, and virtue; and in the practice of those religious duties which she so zealously and pathetically recommended to others, and in which perhaps no one was ever more sincere and devout. Her mind was generally calm and serene; and her conversation was cheerful and highly entertaining. She would say, "The good Christian only has reason, and he always ought to be cheerful;" and, "That dejected looks and melancholy airs were very unseemly in a Christian." Some very distinguished men bear testimony to the merits of her works, such as Atterbury, Hickes, Walker, Norris, Dodwell, and Evelyn.

She was remarkably abstemious, and seemed to enjoy an uninterrupted state of health till a few years before her death. When she was confined to her bed by a gradual decay, and when the time of her dissolution drew near, she ordered her shroud and coffin to be made, and brought to her bedside, and there to remain in her view, as a constant memento of her approaching fate. Miss Astell died in 1751, in the sixty-third year of her age, and was buried at Chelsea.



ASTLE, THOMAS, a distinguished writer on English antiquities, born at Yoxall in Staffordshire. He was educated for the legal profession, which he followed for some time, and in the course of his practice acquired a strong taste for the study of antiquities, and a peculiar facility in deciphering ancient records. His father was about to settle him in a



good country practice as a solicitor, when fortunately his talents recommended him to Mr. Grenville, then first lord of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer, who employed him in conjunction with Sir Joseph Ayloffe, and Dr. Ducarel, to superintend the regulations of the public records at Westminster. These gentlemen were, however, removed by Mr. Pitt, when he came into power. In 1765 he was appointed receiver-general of the sixpence in the pound on the civil list, and in 1766 he was consulted by the committee of the House of Lords respecting the printing of the ancient records of parliament. To the superintendence of this work he introduced his father-in-law Mr. Morant; and on his death, in 1770, was himself appointed by the House of Lords to carry on the work, which he completed in the five following years. He was then appointed on the death of Henry Rooke, Esq., his majesty's chief clerk in the record-office in the Tower of London; and, on the decease of Sir John Shelly, he succeeded to the office of keeper of the records. He also became a member of the Royal and Antiquary societies, and of several learned bodies on the continent, and was one of the trustees of the British Museum. Of the Antiquarian Society, he was long a useful and distinguished member, and contributed several valuable articles to the *Archæologia*. He published also "A Catalogue of the MSS. in the Cottonian Library; to which are added many Emendations and Additions: with an Appendix, containing an Account of the Damage Sustained by the Fire in 1731;" and also a Catalogue of the Charters preserved in the same Library," which was communicated by him to S. Hooper, who published them in 1777. "The Origin and Progress of Writing; illustrated by Engravings taken from Marbles, MSS. and Charters, Ancient and Modern: also some Account of the Origin and Progress of Printing, 1784." A new edition was published in 1803, with one additional plate from a MS. in the British Museum, marked Nero, D. IV.; and a portrait of Mr. Astle, painted by Howard, and engraved by Shelton.

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In addition to the above-named works, Mr. Astle published several others, among which we may enumerate "The Will of King Alfred," and an "Account of the Seals of the King's Royal Burgh's and Magistrates of Scotland," as those best deserving of notice.

Mr. Astle resided for many years at Battersea Rise, where he died on the 1st of December 1803, in the sixty-ninth year of his age.

ASTLEY, PHILIP, the founder of the Royal Amphitheatre near Westminster Bridge, and the author of several literary productions. He was born at Newcastle-under-line, in 1742, and received his education in that town. In 1759 he enlisted in Elliot's Light Horse, and, after remaining seven years in that regiment, returned to England, and erected the theatre that still bears his name. He died at Paris, in 1814.

ATAHUALPA, or ATABALIPA, the name of the last unfortunate Inca of Peru. He had usurped his authority by the deposition of his elder brother Huescar; and he sought to secure it by the murder of all the Children of the Sun whom he could get into his power. During the course of this civil war, the Spanish adventurer Pizarro arrived in Peru, and was suffered without opposition to penetrate to the neighbourhood of the camp of Atahualpa. Confiding in the friendly professions of the Spanish leader, the unhappy Peruvian, with a splendid and numerous train of followers, was induced to visit the Spanish quarters. Here it was with much modesty at once proposed to him to embrace the Christian religion, and acknowledge himself a vassal of the king of Castile. The astonished prince demanded where was the authority on which all this was required of him. "In this book," replied the friar Velverde, reaching him his breviary. The Inca took the book, turned over the leaves, put it to his ear, and, saying, "This is silent, it tells me nothing," threw it to the ground. "To arms!" exclaimed the execrable Valverde, "and revenge the profanation of our holy religion." All this having been concerted, a prepared band of Spaniards attacked and massacred the innocent Peruvians, and secured the person of the Inca. For some time they kept him in respectful custody, to issue such orders as they dictated, all which his subjects implicitly obeyed; but at length, to prevent contention about the division of his ransom, between those who had seized him and the newly arrived forces under Almagro, his death was resolved upon. The expedient adopted was in accordance with the rest of their conduct: the unfortunate prince, being accused of treachery, was brought to trial on a number of mock charges, and sentenced to be burned. He was instantly led to the place of execution, where, in order to mitigate the punishment, he consented to be baptized; and, as soon as the ceremony was ended, was strangled at the stake, A. D. 1533.

ATHANASIUS, Sr, a celebrated Christian bishop of the fourth century. He was a native of Egypt, and a deacon of the church of Alexandria, under Alexander the bishop, whom he succeeded in the dignity, A. D. 326. During the life of his predecessor, he had entered with great vehemence into the dispute by which the Christians were then agitated, concerning the nature of Christ; and at the council of Nice had distinguished himself by a violent speech against Arius. On his advancement to the prelacy, he dedicated all his time and talents to the defence



of the doctrine of the Trinity, and resolutely refused the request of Constantine for the restoration of Arius to the Catholic communion. In revenge for this refusal, the Arian party brought several accusations against him before the emperor. Of these he was acquitted in the first instance; but on a new charge of having detained ships at Alexandria, laden with corn for Constantinople, either from conviction or policy, he was found guilty, and banished into Gaul. Here he remained an exile eighteen months, or, as some accounts say, upwards of two years, his see in the mean time being unoccupied.

On the death of Constantine, he was recalled, and restored to his functions by Constantius; but, the Arian party again acquiring ascendancy, he was once more deposed, and a new prelate chosen in his place, whom the emperor directed his authorities to support. On this occasion, Athanasius fled to Julius bishop of Rome, who, disapproving of the conduct and doctrine of the eastern churches, gave him a welcome protection. But Athanasius was soon assailed by the violence of his adversaries, and, being again deprived of his episcopal authority, was forced to seek an asylum in the desert of Thebais, where he remained unheard of for the space of six years. He was again restored to his see under Julian, and afterwards banished by the same emperor, to whom he was particularly obnoxious. He was afterwards restored by Jovian, and again banished by Valens; he was finally restored under the latter emperor, and ended his days in tranquillity.

Gibbon the historian thus describes the labours and character of Athanasius:—

“Amidst the storms of persecution he was patient of labour, jealous of fame, careless of safety; and, though his mind was tainted by the contagion of fanaticism, Athanasius displayed a superiority of character and abilities which would have qualified him, much better than the degenerate sons of Constantine, for the government of a great empire. His learning was much less profound and extensive than that of Eusebius of Cæsarea, and his rude eloquence could not be compared with the polished oratory of Gregory, or Basil; but whenever the primate of Egypt was called upon to justify his sentiments, or his conduct, his unpremeditated style, either of speaking or writing, was clear, forcible, and persuasive.” Athanasius was actively engaged as a theological disputant for more than forty years, and there are several of his works preserved, but his most celebrated book is against the Arians. It may hardly be necessary to add that the gloomy and bigoted spirit which is breathed throughout the whole of the creed ascribed to this saint is but little in accordance with the spirit of the age or the doctrines of the divine founder of the Christian religion.

ATHELSTAN, a Saxon king of England, who succeeded his father Edward the Elder in 925. Although of illegitimate birth, his mature age and acknowledged capacity caused him to be preferred to the lawful children of Edward, at a season which required considerable political talents and warlike experience. He answered the expectations of his supporters by repressing the Danes of Northumberland, and defeating a considerable combination of that people, with the Scots and Welsh, who united in a league against England. After this event, he enjoyed his crown in peace, and governed with great

ability. A remarkable law was passed in his reign for the encouragement of commerce, by which every merchant who made three voyages to sea on his own account was deemed a thane or noble. Athelstan died after a reign of sixteen years, and was succeeded by his brother Edmund.

ATHENAGORAS, an Athenian philosopher who in early life became a convert to Christianity. The church being about this time greatly oppressed in the east, Athenagoras wrote a remonstrance on the subject, addressed to the emperors Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and Lucius Aurelius Commodus. This remonstrance, containing the principles of Christianity, and a justification of secession from paganism, was presented, according to the opinion of some writers, by Athenagoras in person, who, it is asserted, had for that purpose been sent at the head of an embassy to the imperial court, about A.D. 168. The frequent inversions and parentheses in this work betray, a little too sensibly, the art of the rhetorician: the epithets, too, bestowed on the emperors, are unwarrantably strained, and bordering even on blasphemy; but with all these defects, which indeed belong to the period rather than to the man, the style has undoubted pretensions to the character of Attic; and the train of reasoning, particularly in exposing the pagan superstition, is remarkably forcible and happy.

ATHENÆUS, a distinguished native of Egypt who flourished in the third century. He was one of the most learned men of his time, and had read so much, and had such an uncommonly retentive memory, that he might be styled the Varro of the Greeks. Of all his writings none remain but the work entitled the “Sophists discoursing at Table.” Here an infinite variety of facts and quotations are preserved, which are to be met with nowhere else; and hence, as Bayle truly observes, it is probable that this author is more valued by us than he was by his contemporaries, who could consult the originals from which these facts and quotations were taken. Athenæus is supposed to have been injured by translators, the omissions, transpositions, and false readings in him being extremely numerous. The work consists of fifteen books, the two first and beginning of the third of which are wanting, have been supplied from an abridgment which is extant. It was first printed in 1514, by Aldus Manutius at Venice, and reprinted under the inspection of Casaubon at Leyden in 1600. Another edition in fourteen volumes, by Schweighæuser, was published at Strasburgh, 1801—1807.

ATKYNs, SIR ROBERT, a distinguished lawyer, who actively opposed the measures of the court in the reign of Charles II., and his successor James. He was born at Sapperton in Gloucestershire, and, after an academical education at Oxford, he entered at one of the inns of court. He soon attained eminence in his profession; and on the restoration of Charles II. he was created K. B. In 1672 he was raised to the bench, becoming one of the judges of the Common Pleas, which post he kept till 1679, when, disgusted at the arbitrary measures pursued by the king’s ministers, he gave in his resignation and retired into the country. In the busy scenes of the eventful period which followed, Sir Robert acted with firmness and consistency as a constitutional lawyer, without however committing himself as a decided opponent of government.

In 1683 he was applied to for advice by the



friends of Lord William Russel, and readily defended that unfortunate nobleman. He subsequently published remarks on his trial, in which he inculcates the position that "there is not, nor ought to be, any such thing as constructive treason, as it defeats the very scope and design of the statute of the 25th of Edward III., which is to make a plain declaration on what shall be adjudged treason by the ordinary courts of justice." He also defended Sir W. Williams, speaker of the House of Commons, who was prosecuted by the crown for signing the order for printing "Dangerfield's Narrative of the Popish Plot." In the reign of James II. he published two tracts against the dispensing power assumed by that monarch, one of which involved him in a controversy with the chief justice, Sir Edward Herbert. When the revolution took place, the principles and conduct of Sir R. Atkyns recommended him to the new king, who made him lord chief baron of the exchequer. The same year, 1689, he was chosen speaker of the House of Lords, and held that office till 1693. He resigned his judicial situation in 1695, and retreated entirely from public life, residing chiefly at his seat at Sapperton in Gloucestershire, where he died in 1709-10, aged eighty-eight. The son of this gentleman was distinguished as a good topographical writer. His history of Gloucestershire is a work of authority.

There is another author of the same name, and of the same family, who published a work on typography, entitled the "Original and Growth of Printing in England." He died a prisoner for debt in the Marshalsea, September 14, 1677.

ATTERBURY, LEWIS, father of the celebrated Dr. Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, was born about the year 1631. He was the son of Francis Atterbury rector of Middleton-Malser, or Milton, in Northamptonshire, who among other ministers subscribed the Solemn League and Covenant in 1648. Lewis was entered a student of Christ Church Oxford in 1647, took the degree of bachelor of arts February 23 1649, and was created master of arts by virtue of a dispensation from Cromwell the chancellor, March 1, 1651. In 1654 he became rector of Great or Broad-Rissington in Gloucestershire; and, after the restoration, took a presentation for that benefice under the great seal, and was instituted again to confirm his title to it. On the 11th of September, 1657, he was admitted rector of Milton, or Middleton-Keynes, in Bucks; and at the return of Charles II. took the same prudent method to corroborate his title to that living. In July 1660 he was made chaplain extraordinary to Henry duke of Gloucester; and on the 1st of December, in the same year, was created doctor in divinity. Returning from London, where the law-suits he had frequently been involved in had brought him, he was drowned near his own house, in the beginning of December, 1693.

ATTERBURY, LEWIS, the eldest son of the preceding ecclesiastic, was born at Caldecot, in the parish of Newport-Pagnel, in Bucks, on the 2nd of May 1656. He was educated at Westminster School under Dr. Busby, and sent to Christ Church, Oxford, at the age of eighteen. He was ordained deacon in September 1679, being then bachelor of arts; and in the year following he was made master of arts. In February, 1684, Mr. Atterbury was instituted rector of Symel in Northamptonshire, which living he afterwards resigned upon his accepting of other preferments; and in July 1687 he acquired the degrees

of bachelor and doctor of civil law. Soon after his marriage he settled at Highgate, where he preached in the place of the reverend Mr. Daniel Lathom, who was very infirm, and, upon the death of this gentleman was, in June 1695, elected by the trustees of Highgate chapel to be their preacher. He had a little before been appointed one of the six chaplains to the princess Anne of Denmark at Whitehall and St. James's, which place he continued to supply after she came to the crown, and also during part of the reign of George I. In 1707 the queen presented him to the rectory of Shepperton in Middlesex; and in March 1719 the bishop of London added the rectory of Hornsey.

Dr. Lewis Atterbury died at Bath, of a paralytic disorder, October 20th 1731. He published in his life-time two volumes of sermons, and four occasional ones, besides some other works.

ATTERBURY, FRANCIS, bishop of Rochester in the reigns of Queen Anne and King George I., was born March 6, 1662, at Middleton, near Newport-Pagnel, in Buckinghamshire. He received the rudiments of his education at Westminster School; and thence, in 1680, was elected a student of Christ Church College, Oxford, where he soon distinguished himself for his wit and learning, and gave early proofs of his poetical talents, in a Latin version of Dryden's "Absalom and Achitophel." In 1687 he made his first essay in controversial writing, and became an able and strenuous advocate for the Protestant religion, which feeling is displayed in his work, entitled "An Answer to some Considerations on the Spirit of Martin Luther, and the Original of the Reformation." Atterbury took the degree of bachelor of arts, June 13, 1684, when he was little more than twenty-two years old. After passing two or three years more in the college, he became restless and impatient of a college life, as appears by an extract of a letter from his father which has been preserved with his correspondence. "You used to say, when you had your degrees you should be able to swim without bladders. You used to rejoice at your being moderator, and of your *quantum* as sub-lecturer; but neither of these pleased you; nor were you willing to take those pupils the house afforded you when master; nor doth your lecturer please, or nobleman satisfy you." In the same letter the father advises his marrying into some family of interest, either bishop or archbishop's, or some courtier, "which may be done, with accomplishments, and a portion too." And to part of this counsel young Atterbury attended; for he soon after married Miss Osborn, a distant relation of the duke of Leeds. In 1690 he took orders and in 1691 he was elected lecturer of St. Bride's Church in London, and preacher at Bridewell Chapel. An academic life indeed must have been irksome to a person of his active temper. It was hardly possible that a clergyman of his fine genius, improved by study, with a disposition to exert his talents, should remain long unnoticed; and we find that he was soon appointed chaplain to King William and Queen Mary. The earliest of his sermons in print was preached before the queen at Whitehall, May 29, 1702. In August 1694 he preached his celebrated sermon before the governors of Bridewell and Bedlam, "on the Power of Charity to cover Sins," to which Mr. Hoadly (afterwards bishop) published some "Exceptions;" and in October that year he again preached before the queen.

The share he took in the celebrated controversy with Bentley is now very clearly ascertained. In one of the letters to his noble pupil, dated "Chelsea, 1698," he says, "the matter had cost him some time and trouble. In laying the design of the book, in writing about half of it, in reviewing a good part of the rest, in transcribing the whole, and attending the press," he adds, "half a year of my life went away."

In 1700 a still larger field of activity opened, in which Atterbury was engaged four years with Dr. Wake (afterwards archbishop of Canterbury) and others, concerning "the Rights, Powers, and Privileges of Convocations," in which, however the real truth of the question may be supposed to lie, he displayed so much learning and zeal, that the Lower House of Convocation returned him their thanks, and the university of Oxford complimented him with the degree of D. D. January, 29, 1700, he was installed archdeacon of Totness, being raised to that dignity by Sir Jonathan Trelawny, then bishop of Exeter. The same year he was engaged, with some other learned divines, in revising an intended edition of the "Greek Testament," with Greek "Scholia," collected chiefly from the fathers, by Archdeacon Gregory. At this period he was very popular as preacher at the Rolls Chapel, an office which had been conferred on him by Sir John Trevor. Upon the accession of Queen Anne, in 1702, Dr. Atterbury was appointed one of her majesty's chaplains in ordinary; and in October 1704 was advanced to the deanery of Carlisle. About two years after this he was engaged in a dispute with Mr. Hoadly respecting the advantages of virtue with regard to the present life, occasioned by his sermon, preached at the funeral of Mr. Thomas Bennet, a bookseller. In 1707 Sir Jonathan Trelawny, then bishop of Exeter, appointed him one of the canons residentiaries of that church; and three years after came on the celebrated trial of Dr. Sacheverell, whose remarkable speech on that occasion was generally supposed to have been drawn up by Atterbury, in conjunction with Dr. Smalridge and Dr. Friend. The same year Dr. Atterbury was unanimously chosen prolocutor of the Lower House of Convocation, and had the chief management of affairs in that house. May 11, 1711, he was appointed, by the convocation, one of the committee for comparing Mr. Whiston's doctrines with those of the church of England; and, in June following, he drew up "A Representation of the Present State of Religion," and was made dean of Christ Church; and shortly after, at the recommendation of Lord Chancellor Harcourt, the queen advanced him to the bishopric of Rochester, with the deanery of Westminster in commendam; he was confirmed and consecrated at Lambeth immediately.

At the beginning of the succeeding reign, his tide of prosperity began to decrease; and he received a severe mortification after the coronation of King George I., when, upon his offering to present his majesty with the chair of state and royal canopy, his own perquisites as dean of Westminster, the offer was rejected, and not without evident marks of dislike. During the rebellion in Scotland, which broke out in the first year of this reign, Atterbury gave an instance of his growing disaffection to the established government, in refusing to sign the "Declaration" of the bishops, besides which he constantly opposed the measures of the court in the House of Lords, and drew up some of the most violent protests with his own hand.

In 1722 he was apprehended, and committed prisoner to the Tower, on a charge of favouring the pretender. This commitment of a bishop upon a suspicion of high treason, as it was a thing rarely practised after the Reformation, occasioned a considerable degree of excitement among the people. In March, 1722, a bill was brought into the House of Commons, for "inflicting certain pains and penalties on Francis Lord Bishop of Rochester," a copy of which was sent to him, with notice that he had liberty of counsel and solicitors for making his defence. Under these circumstances, the bishop applied, by petition, to the House of Lords, for their direction and advice: and on April 4 he acquainted the speaker of the House of Commons, by a letter, that he was determined to give that house no trouble, in relation to the bill depending therein; but should be ready to make his defence against it, when it should be argued in another house, of which he had the honour to be a member. On the 9th the bill passed the House of Commons, and was the same day sent up to the House of Lords for their concurrence. May 6, being the day appointed by the lords for the first reading of the bill, Bishop Atterbury was brought to Westminster, to make his defence. The counsel for the bishop were, Sir Constantine Phipps, and William Wynne, esq. For the king, Mr. Reeve and Mr. Wearge. The proceedings continued above a week; and on Saturday May 11 the bishop was permitted to plead for himself, which he did in a very eloquent speech. This memorable speech was for the first time faithfully given to the public in 1783, as the slightest comparison with that erroneously printed in the "State Trials" will evidently show. The bishop commences his speech by complaining of the uncommon severity he had experienced in the Tower, which was carried to so great a length that not even his son-in-law, Mr. Morice, was permitted to speak to him in any nearer mode than standing in an open area, whilst the bishop looked out of a two-pair-of-stairs window. After a solemn protestation of his innocence, and an appeal to the Searcher of Hearts for the truth of what he had said, he concludes thus:—"If, on any account, there shall still be thought by your lordships to be any seeming strength in the proofs against me,—if, by your lordships judgments, springing from unknown motives, I shall be thought to be guilty,—if, for any reasons or necessity of state, of the wisdom and justice of which I am no competent judge, your lordships shall proceed to pass this bill against me,—I shall dispose myself quietly and tacitly to submit to what you do; God's will be done: naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked shall I return; and, whether he gives or takes away, blessed be the name of the Lord!"

On Monday the 13th he was carried for the last time from the Tower, to hear the reply of the king's counsel to his defence. On the 15th the bill was read the third time; and, after a long and warm debate, passed on the 16th by a majority of eighty-three to forty-three. On the 27th the king came to the house, and confirmed it by his royal assent. June 18, 1723, this eminent prelate, having the day before taken leave of his friends, who from the time of passing the bill against him to the day of his departure had free access to him in the Tower, embarked on board the Aldborough man of war, and landed the Friday following at Calais. When he



went on shore, having been informed that Lord Bolingbroke, who had after the rising of the parliament received the King's pardon, was arrived at the same place on his return to England, he said with an air of pleasantry, "Then I am exchanged!" and it was, in the opinion of Pope, "a sign of the nation's being afraid of being over-run with too much politeness, when it could not regain one great man, but at the expense of another." But the severity of his treatment did not cease even with his banishment. The same vindictive spirit pursued him in foreign climes.

When Bishop Atterbury first entered upon his banishment, Brussels was the place destined for his residence; but he was compelled to leave that place, and retire to Paris. He again changed his abode, and removed to Montpellier in 1728; and, after residing there about two years, returned to Paris, where he died February 15th 1731-2.

His body was brought over to England, and interred the 12th of May following in Westminster Abbey, in a vault which in the year 1722 had been prepared by his directions.

Some time before his death, he published a Vindication of himself, Bishop Smalridge, and Dr. Aldrich, from a charge brought against them by Mr. Oldmixon, of having altered and interpolated the copy of Lord Clarendon's "History of the Rebellion." Bishop Atterbury's "Sermons" have been published in a variety of forms; those contained in the two first were published by himself, and dedicated to his great patron Sir Jonathan Trelawny, bishop of Winchester; those in the two last were published after his death by Dr. Thomas Moore, his lordship's chaplain. Four admirable "Visitation Charges" accompany his "Epistolary Correspondence."

With regard to Bishop Atterbury's character, however the moral and political part of it may have been differently represented by the opposite parties, it is universally agreed that he was a man of great learning and uncommon abilities. In his controversial writings, he was sometimes too severe upon his adversary, and dealt rather too much in satire and invective; but this his panegyrist imputes more to the natural fervour of his wit than to any bitterness of temper, or prepossession. In his sermons, however, he is not only every way unexceptionable, but highly to be commended. The truth is his talent as a preacher was so excellent and remarkable that it may not improperly be said that he owed his preferment to the pulpit, nor any hard matter to trace him, through his writings, to his several promotions in the church. We may conclude this notice of Bishop Atterbury's character, as a preacher, with the encomium bestowed on him by the author of "The Tatler," who, having observed "that the English clergy too much neglect the art of speaking," makes a particular exception with regard to this prelate, who, he remarks, "has so particular a regard to his congregation that he commits to his memory what he has to say to them; and has so soft and graceful a behaviour that it must attract your attention. His person," continues this author, "it is to be confessed, is no small recommendation; but he is to be highly commended for not losing that advantage, and adding to propriety of speech (which might pass the criticism of Longinus) an action which would have been approved by Demosthenes. He has a peculiar force in his way, and has many of his audience who could

not be intelligent hearers of his discourse, were there no explanation as well as grace in his action. This art of his is used with the most exact and honest skill. He never attempts your passions, till he has convinced your reason. All the objections which you can form are laid open and dispersed, before he uses the least vehemence in his sermon; but when he thinks he has your head, he very soon wins your heart, and never pretends to show the beauty of holiness till he has convinced you of the truth of it."—In his letters to Pope, &c., Bishop Atterbury appears in a pleasing light, as an epistolary writer. In ease and elegance his works are superior to those of Pope, which are more studied. There are in them several beautiful references to the classics. The bishop excelled in his allusions to sacred as well as profane authors.

ATTICUS, TITUS POMPONIUS, a distinguished senator, who acquired great celebrity from the peculiar benevolence and amenity of his private character. He was descended from an ancient family, and inherited vast wealth from his father and uncle, and, being liberally educated, devoted himself with enthusiasm to the cultivation of literature and philosophy. He had scarcely reached manhood when the bloody factions of Marius and Cinna began to rage, to avoid which he retired to Athens, whither he conveyed the greatest part of his property, and where he drank deeply of Grecian literature, and lived in the most liberal exercise of public and private benevolence. His retirement from the scene of political contention did not however make him indifferent to the welfare of the actors in it, or timid in serving his friends of the distressed party. He supplied young Marius with money to escape from his foes; and when Cicero, to whom he was strongly attached, was banished, accommodated him also with a large sum of money. He returned to reside at Rome when affairs were settled, but steadily pursued his original plan of avoiding public business; and, being sixty years of age when the war broke out between Cæsar and Pompey, he gladly availed himself of the pretext of age to avoid engaging on either side. On the death of Cæsar, although upon the most intimate terms with Brutus, he opposed the establishment of a private treasury for the use of that party; yet he largely assisted that highly esteemed Roman, when obliged to leave Italy.

Atticus also extended his services to Antony, when that leader was compelled to quit Rome with no prospect of a restoration of his affairs. Even in the bad times of the triumvirate, he caused all the proscribed who fled to Epirus to be liberally relieved from his estates in that country, and by his interest recovered the forfeited property of several of them. Such was his credit with Octavius that his daughter was preferred to all the great matches of Rome as wife for his friend Agrippa. Octavius himself cultivated the closest intimacy with Atticus, who at the same time maintained an equally intimate correspondence with Antony. The mode of living of Atticus was that of a man of great fortune, whose mind was devotedly attached to literary and philosophical pursuits. His domestics were not numerous, but choice; his table was elegant, but not costly; and he delighted in what would now be called literary suppers. He was extremely studious, much attached to enquiries relative to the antiquities of his country, its laws, customs, and treaties, and wrote several works on

these subjects, which appear to have been much valued. Atticus died by voluntary starvation, arising from a desire to die the least painful death he could devise.

**ATTICUS**, or **CLAUDIUS ATTICUS HERODES**, a distinguished Athenian philosopher and statesman, who flourished in the reign of Antoninus. His father Julius Atticus descended from the family of Miltiades, and was raised from indigence to wealth by the discovery of a hidden treasure. Herodes received an education in accordance with the rank to which his father had been advanced by the fortunate accession to his property. Scholastic rhetoric or the art of declamation, then esteemed a most fashionable accomplishment, became his principal study; and he prosecuted it under the first masters of the age, with great success. After travelling abroad, he settled at Athens, and gave public lectures on eloquence, which were attended by sophists and rhetoricians, whose admiration of his talents was perhaps not altogether disinterested, as his hospitality and munificence were lavishly extended to his followers. The fame of Herodes reached from Athens to Rome; and he was invited by the emperor Titus Antoninus to become rhetorical tutor to Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus, the adopted sons and destined successors of Antoninus. This promotion led to his being created consul, A. D. 143. He was also made prefect of the free cities of Asia Minor, and president of the Panhellenic and Panathenian games, at which he was crowned. He testified his sense of this honour by building a marble stadium, or course for running matches, one of the grandest works ever executed by a private individual. He also erected a theatre at Athens, and repaired and embellished the Odeon of Pericles. These and other splendid monuments of his wealth and liberality have perpetuated his name, while his literary productions have perished. The latter part of the life of Herodes was embittered by the ingratitude of his fellow-citizens, who preferred accusations against him in his public capacity; but they were suppressed by the friendship of his pupil Marcus Aurelius, then emperor. He passed his latter days at Marathon, his birth-place, where he died about A. D. 185, aged seventy-five.

**ATTILA**, king of the Huns, surnamed the Scourge of God. He was descended from the ancient Huns, who dwelt on the confines of China. At the death of their uncle Rugilas, who reigned in modern Hungary, the brothers Attila and Bleda succeeded to the throne of the Huns. After they had forced the emperor Theodosius the younger to purchase an inglorious peace, Attila caused Bleda to be assassinated, and reigned alone over the whole nation and its subject territories, including the extensive kingdoms of Germany and Scythia, taken in their largest signification. Able to bring into the field more than half a million of armed warriors, it is not surprising that his great passion was war; and, in addition to his real power, he sought to add the influence of superstition, by boasting the possession of a sword said to have belonged to the Scythian Mars, the possession of which was supposed to convey a title to the whole earth. His portrait, as described by Jornandes, was that of a modern Calmuc, with a large head, swarthy complexion, flat nose, small sunken eyes, and a short square body. His looks were fierce, his gait proud, and his deportment stern and haughty; yet he was merciful to a suppliant

foe, and ruled his own people with justice and equity.

Attila himself used to say that the grass never grew where his horse trod. The fear or the policy of the western Romans had induced them to leave the eastern empire to its fate. Theodosius, being thus without any resources to oppose this formidable invader, was glad to accept such a peace from him as he chose to dictate. The terms, of course, were sufficiently humiliating. The conqueror demanded a large tract of territory, stretching along the southern banks of the Danube, from Singidunum, or Belgrade, as far as Novæ in Thrace: the breadth was defined by the vague computation of fifteen days' journey. In the next place, the tribute, or subsidy, paid by the emperor, was to be raised from 700 lbs. of gold to upwards of 2000; and an immediate contribution was to be paid to defray the expenses of the war. And, lastly, all the Huns who had been taken in war were to be delivered immediately without ransom, whilst the Roman prisoners were obliged to purchase their freedom at the price of twelve pieces of gold for each man. This ignominious treaty was gladly subscribed by the emperor, who had no alternative between it and utter destruction.

Attila was continually harassing Theodosius with unwelcome embassies; and, as the barbarian was extremely jealous of his consequence, the emperor was forced to make a suitable return; and the pride of Attila was not easily satisfied with the dignity of the persons who approached him in quality of ambassadors. At last Maximin, a distinguished individual at the court of Constantinople, accepted with reluctance of the troublesome commission of reconciling the angry spirit of the king of the Huns. Priscus the historian accompanied him, and had an opportunity of making many curious observations on the singular manners of this formidable monarch, and of his barbarian subjects. The ambassadors of Theodosius proceeded, by toilsome journeys, through countries depopulated by the ravages of the Huns, and covered with the bones of the slain. Having passed the hills of modern Servia, and crossed the Danube in canoes provided by the barbarians, they halted at a short distance from the camp of Attila. They were now continually exposed to the insolence and the caprice of the haughty conqueror. The ministers of Attila pressed Maximin to communicate the business and the instructions which he reserved for the ear of their master; and, on his refusal to comply, he was commanded instantly to depart; the order was recalled; it was again repeated; and at last, when it was found impossible to subdue the patient firmness of Maximin, he was admitted into the royal presence; but, instead of obtaining a decisive answer, he was compelled to undertake a distant journey towards the north, that Attila might enjoy the satisfaction of receiving in the same camp the ambassadors both of the eastern and western empire.

Upon the death of Theodosius, Marcian, his successor, peremptorily refused to pay to Attila the accustomed tribute; and instructed his ambassador Apollonius to signify his refusal, in the very camp of the Huns. Attila, enraged, sent an equal defiance to the courts of Ravenna and Constantinople: and his ambassadors addressed both the emperors in the same haughty language. "Attila, my lord and thy



lord, commands thee to provide a palace for his immediate reception." Despising the eastern Romans, whom he had so often vanquished, he directed all his strength against the western empire. The nations from the Wolga to the Danube obeyed his summons, and poured their countless myriads on the devoted country of Gaul. The Roman empire was saved, on this occasion, by the policy and intrepidity of Ætius, whom Gibbon calls the last of the Romans. He formed a strict alliance with Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, who at that time reigned at Thoulouse, and, in conjunction with his warlike forces, boldly proceeded to meet the terror of Europe and of Asia on the plains of Chalons. Here a tremendous engagement took place. The centre of the Visigoths soon gave way, owing to the defection of some of their allies; Theodoric, their king, was slain whilst animating his men to battle; and Attila already began to exult in the confidence of victory. In this situation, Torismond, the son of Theodoric, who had occupied a rising ground, rushed down upon the Huns with irresistible fury: the Visigoths soon restored their order of battle, and Attila for the first time sustained a defeat.

The ensuing year Attila again invaded Italy, and Rome was only saved by a disgraceful treaty with the barbarian hordes. His death occurred in 453 from the sudden rupture of a blood-vessel.

ATWOOD, GEORGE, a celebrated mathematician and mechanical philosopher, who was born in 1745. He received the rudiments of his education at Westminster School and then proceeded to Cambridge, where he was for some time a tutor, and afterwards a fellow of Trinity College. The lectures on experimental philosophy which he read to the university were much admired; and it was on one of these occasions that Mr. Atwood attracted the attention of Mr. Pitt, who happened to be one of his auditors. When the statesman came into power, he conferred a sinecure office upon Mr. Atwood in 1781, and employed him in all his financial calculations.

Mr. Atwood invented a very ingenious machine for exhibiting the phenomena of accelerated and retarded motion, and for ascertaining in a simple manner the quantity of matter moved, the moving force, the space described, the time of description, and the velocity acquired. It may be employed also in estimating the velocities communicated by the percussion of elastic and non-elastic bodies, for determining the resistance of fluids, and for confirming the properties of rotatory motion. Mr. Atwood was honoured with the Copley medal for his valuable papers in the Transactions of the Royal Society. He died in London on the 11th July, 1807, in the sixty-second year of his age, and was interred in St. Margaret's Church, Westminster.

AUBREY, JOHN, an eminent English antiquary, born at Easton Piers in Wiltshire, Nov. 3, 1625. He received the first rudiments of his education in the grammar-school at Malmesbury, under Robert Latimer, who had also been preceptor to the celebrated Thomas Hobbes, with whom Mr. Aubrey commenced an early friendship, which lasted as long as Mr. Hobbes lived. In 1642 Mr. Aubrey entered a gentleman-commoner of Trinity College at Oxford, where the history and antiquities of England were the peculiar object of his research. In 1646 he was admitted a member of the Middle Temple, but the death of his father prevented

him from pursuing the study of the law. He succeeded to several estates in the counties of Wilts, Surrey, Hereford, Brecknock, and Monmouth, but they were involved in many law-suits, which by degrees consumed all his property, and forced him to enter into the active duties of life. He did not, however, break off his acquaintance with his learned friends at Oxford or at London: he kept up a close correspondence with the lovers of antiquity and natural philosophy in the university, and furnished Anthony Wood with a considerable part of the materials for his two large works. Soon after the restoration Mr. Aubrey went into Ireland, and on his return, in the autumn of 1660, he narrowly escaped shipwreck near Holyhead. In June, 1664, he travelled through France into Orleans, and returned in the month of October. In 1666 he sold his estate in Wiltshire, and was at length obliged to dispose of the last remnant of his property and was reduced almost to want; yet his spirit remained unbroken. His chief benefactress was the lady Long of Draycot in Wilts, who gave him an apartment in her house, and supported him as long as he lived. He was a man of an excellent capacity and indefatigable application, a diligent searcher into antiquities, a good Latin poet, and an excellent naturalist, but he was somewhat credulous and tainted with superstition.

AUCHMUTY, SIR SAMUEL, a distinguished British officer, who entered the army as a volunteer, in 1776. He proceeded with Sir W. Howe to North America, where he served the three following campaigns. In 1783 he held a company in the 75th foot in the East Indies, and was present at the first siege of Seringapatam, under Lord Cornwallis. In 1801 he joined the expedition to Egypt, when he was appointed adjutant-general. Returning to England in 1803, he was ordered out to South America in 1806, where he assumed the command of the troops, with the rank of brigadier-general, and in February 1807 took by assault, after a most determined resistance, the fortress and city of Monte Video, for which he received the thanks of Parliament. In 1809 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Carnatic, and in 1811 reduced the valuable settlements of Java and Batavia under the dominion of Great Britain, for which he again obtained the thanks of both houses. On his return to Europe Sir Samuel succeeded Sir D. Baird, as chief of the staff in Ireland. His death was sudden, being occasioned by apoplexy, August 11, 1822, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. His remains, after lying in state at Kilmainham Hospital, were interred on the 21st of the same month in the royal vault in Christ Church Cathedral, Dublin.

AUCKLAND, WILLIAM EDEN, LORD, was the third son of Sir Robert Eden, Bart. He was educated at Eton and Oxford, and called to the bar by the Society of the Middle Temple in 1769. He accompanied the earl of Carlisle in 1778 to negotiate terms with the revolted colonies of America, and was chief secretary during the same nobleman's viceroyalty in Ireland. In 1785 he was sent ambassador extraordinary to negotiate a commercial treaty with France, and in 1788 performed a similar service with Spain. In 1789 he was sent to the Hague, where he concluded a treaty between Great Britain, the emperor, and the king of Prussia, in settlement of the affairs of the Netherlands. In the same year he was created Baron Auckland, in the kingdom of Ireland,



and in 1793 was advanced to the English peerage by the same title. He died in 1814. Lord Auckland is known as the author of several valuable legal and political works, but his "History of New Holland" is the only one of much general interest.

**AUDLEY, THOMAS, LORD.**—This nobleman was born of a distinguished family, in 1488, and possessed considerable learning and abilities, and a large fortune. With all these advantages however he was, during the whole of his public life, one of the most base and servile tools of his imperious master, Henry VIII. After long acting as a mere instrument, in the capacity of speaker of the parliament, to which he was appointed in 1529, he was selected to succeed Sir Thomas More as chancellor; and he subsequently sat in judgment both on his predecessor and Bishop Fisher, as also on Queen Anne Boleyn, although she had been in some respects his patroness. He was likewise made serviceable in the affairs of Anne of Cleves and Catharine Howard, and in short refused no task, however contradictory, which the wayward Henry imposed on him. For these base compliances he was created Lord Audley of Walden, and received the order of the garter. He was a great benefactor to Magdalen College, Oxford, and died in 1544.

**AUDRAN.**—There were several eminent French artists who bore this name in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Claude Audran was born in 1592, and died in 1677. He acquired no great distinction by his works, and is chiefly known as the father of Germain Claude and Gerard Audran. Charles, generally supposed to be the brother of the foregoing, was born at Paris in 1594. He applied himself to the art of engraving, and went to Italy to perfect himself. He was a laborious and excellent artist; and in order to distinguish his works from those of his brother Claude, whose style was inferior, he marked them with the letter K, whence he is often called Carles. He died in 1674.

Germain, the eldest son of Claude, was born in 1631 at Lyons, where his parents resided. He studied under his uncle, and became an engraver of considerable eminence. He died in 1710. He left three sons, all of them distinguished for their knowledge of the fine arts.

Claude, the second son of the elder Claude, was born in 1639, and devoted himself to historical painting, of which he became professor at the Royal Academy of Paris. He entered under Le Brun at the Gobelins, and was employed by him in several pieces for the staircase at Versailles, especially in the four great pictures of the battles of Alexander. He died in 1684. Gerard, brother to the preceding, and the most celebrated of the family, was born at Lyons in 1640, and also studied under Le Brun. He entirely devoted himself to the art of engraving, and, visiting Italy, acquired so high a character that Louis XIV. recalled him to Paris, where he engraved Le Brun's pictures of Alexander's battles in so masterly a style that he was immediately placed at the head of his profession. He has also engraved many pictures from the principal masters of France and Italy. He is distinguished for the correctness of his outlines, and the strength and grandeur of his manner of working. He died in 1703, aged sixty-three.

**AVERROES**, one of the most learned of the Arabian philosophers. He was a native of Cordova, and

flourished in the twelfth century. He was instructed in the laws and the religion of the country by his father, who was high priest and chief judge (under the emperor of Morocco) of the kingdom of Cordova, his authority extending over all Andalusia and Valencia. Averroes was professor in the university of Morocco, and after the death of his father succeeded to his posts under the emperor, the duties of which he discharged with great success. He studied natural philosophy, medicine, astrology, and mathematics: but understood the theory of medicine much better than the practice. The king of Morocco offered him the place of judge of Morocco and Mauritania, with leave to keep those he held at Cordova, and he accepted it, went over to Morocco, and, having settled judges as his subdelegates, returned to Cordova.

Averroes was very liberal to men of letters in necessity, whether they were his friends or enemies. The former blaming him one day for his liberality to the latter, "How unhappy are you," said he, "not to know that to serve one's relations and friends is not an act of liberality; we are led to that by natural affection. To be liberal is to communicate one's estate to one's enemies; and since my riches did not arise from myself, or from my ancestors having followed trade, or any art, or a military life, but only the profession of virtue, is it not fit that I should dispose of them in acts of virtue? I find that I have not misplaced them; they have served to make those my friends who were my enemies." He would not consent to his youngest son's accepting of the honours offered him at the court of Morocco; and was so far from showing any peculiar satisfaction at the deference paid to this young man, which was intended to do a pleasure to his father, that he was absolutely uneasy at it. "What a pity it was," says Bayle, "that so many virtues and excellent qualities should not have been attended with orthodoxy, but, on the contrary, be joined to the most enormous errors!" His good qualities did not prevent him having a great many enemies among the nobility and doctors of Cordova, who representing to Mansor, king of Morocco, that the philosophical tenets he had maintained in a lecture to his pupils were gross heresy, that prince ordered his estate to be confiscated, and confined him to the Jews' quarter of the city. Mansor assembled a number of doctors in divinity and law, to consider what punishment he deserved. The greater part of them replied that, as a heretic, he merited capital punishment; but others were of opinion that a man of his eminence in law and divinity ought not to be put to death, "for that the general report would be that not a heretic but a lawyer and a divine, had suffered. The consequences of this will be (added they) first that no more infidels will embrace our faith, and so our religion will be discouraged; secondly, it will be said that our African doctors seek pretences to take away one another's lives. The best expedient will be to oblige him to retract; and we are of opinion that your majesty should pardon him in case he repent; for there is no man upon the earth exempt from every crime." Mansor approved of this advice, and Averroes was conducted, at the hour of prayer, to the gate of a mosque, and placed bare-headed upon the highest step, and all who entered into the mosque spat in his face. Prayers being ended, the doctors and the judge asked him whether he repented of



his heresy? He answered, "Yes!" upon which he was discharged. Some time after, Mansor gave him leave to return to Cordova, where he lived very unhappily, being deprived of his estate and books. In the mean time the judge who had succeeded administered justice so unequally, that Mansor reinstated Averroes in his former office. Being asked in what situation his mind was whilst under persecution, "I was pleased," said he, "and displeased. I was glad to be discharged from the troublesome office of a judge; but I was uneasy to be oppressed by false witnesses. I did not wish to be restored to my post as a magistrate, and have not accepted it again till my innocence has been made to appear." He died at Morocco in 1206.

According to Vossius and Keckerman, though Averroes did not understand Greek, none of Aristotle's commentators have come so near his sense. The last-mentioned writer prays that God would raise up a translator to rescue the works of Averroes from the gross ignorance and barbarity of the preceding undertakers; for then we should be sensible of the great services which that Arabian did to philosophy.

AVESBURY, ROBERT, an early historian, of whom little is known but that he wrote a work on English history, ending with the battle of Poitiers, and that he was for many years keeper of the registry of the court of Canterbury in the reign of Edward III.

His work continued in MS. for many years, but in 1720 it was printed by Thomas Hearne at Oxford. It has now, however, become very scarce.

AUGEREAU, PIERRE FRANCOIS CHARLES, duke of Castiglione, and marshal of France. He was the son of a fruit-merchant; born at Paris in 1767; served as a carabinier in the French army; went from there into the Neapolitan service, established himself at Naples, in 1787, as a fencing-master, and was banished thence, in 1792, with the rest of his countrymen. He afterwards served as a volunteer in the army of Italy, in which his talents and courage soon gained him promotion. He distinguished himself, in 1794, as general of brigade in the army of the Pyrenees, and, in 1796, as general of division in the army of Italy. He took the pass of Millesimo, made himself master of the intrenched camp of the Piedmontese at Ceva, afterwards of that at Casale, threw himself on the bridge of Lodi, and carried it with the enemy's intrenchments. June 16, in 1796, he passed the Po, and made prisoners the papal troops, together with the cardinal legate and the general's staff.

At the beginning of August, Augereau came to the assistance of Massena, maintained, during a whole day, a most obstinate struggle against a superior number of troops, and took the village of Castiglione, from which he derived his ducal title. He afterwards passed over the Adige, and drove back the enemy as far as Roveredo. In the battle of Arcole, when the French columns wavered, Augereau seized a standard, rushed upon the enemy, and gained the victory. The directory bestowed this standard on him Jan. 27, 1797. Aug. 9, he was named commander of the 17th military division (division of Paris), in place of General Hatry.

In 1799 he was chosen a member of the council of five hundred, and, therefore, resigned his command. He then obtained from the consul, Buonaparte, the command of the army in Holland. He

led the French and Batavian army on the Lower Rhine to the support of Moreau, passed the river at Frankfort, and fought with the imperial general, with various success, until the battle of Hohenlinden ended the campaign. In October 1801, being superseded by General Victor, he remained without employment till 1803, when he was appointed to lead the army collected at Bayonne against Portugal. When this enterprise failed, he went back to Paris, and, in 1804, was created marshal of the empire and grand officer of the legion of honour. In the same year, the king of Spain sent him the order of Charles III.

At the end of 1805, Augereau was at the head of a corps of the great army in Germany, formed of troops collected under his command at Brest. He contributed to the successes which gave birth to the peace of Presburg, and, in March 1806, had possession of Wetzlar and the country around, until, in the autumn of that year, a new war called him to Prussia. The wounds which he received in the battle of Eylau compelled him to return to France. Early in 1811, Napoleon gave him the command of a corps in the army of Spain, but he returned, and remained without any employment until July, 1813, when he led the army in Bavaria against Saxony, where he took part in the battle of Leipsic. After the fall of Napoleon, Augereau used reproachful language respecting him in a proclamation to his army. Napoleon, therefore, on his landing in 1815, declared him a traitor. Augereau, however, expressed himself in his favour, but took no active part in the new order of things. After the return of the king, he took his place again in the chamber of peers, and sat among Ney's judges. He died, June 11, 1816, at his estate La Houssaye, near Paris.

AUGUSTIN, a celebrated saint of the catholic church, who flourished towards the close of the sixth century. Pope Gregory I., having formed the design of converting the Anglo Saxons, selected St. Augustin, then a monk of the order of St. Andrew at Rome, to lead a mission consisting of forty other monks of the same order to England. They landed in the Isle of Thanet, and, having sent interpreters to the king, they obtained his leave to convert as many of his subjects as they could, and he assigned them as a place of residence Durovernum or Canterbury. Augustin, by direction of the pope, went afterwards to Arles in France, where he was consecrated archbishop and metropolitan of the English nation by the archbishop of that place. On his return to Britain, Augustin fixed his see at Canterbury, and, being supported by King Ethelbert, made an attempt to open a correspondence with the British bishops generally, and for this purpose a conference was held in Worcestershire, but without success. A second conference was proposed, at which the appearance was more numerous than at the former, seven British bishops attending at it, with a great number of learned monks from the monastery of Bancornaburg, or Bangor, who were under the direction of their abbot Dinoth. These Britons, before they began their journey, applied to a hermit celebrated for piety and virtue to know whether or not they should give up the usages and traditions of their church, and acknowledge the pretensions of Augustin. He told them that, if Augustin should prove to be a man of God, they ought to be governed by him. They asked him how they should know



this. The hermit replied, "Our Saviour says, 'Take my yoke upon you, for I am meek and lowly in heart.' If Augustin be affable and humble, he has probably taken Christ's yoke upon him, and offers you the same privilege; but, if he be haughty and insolent, it is plain he is not commissioned from heaven, nor are his words to be regarded." They further asked by what marks they were to discover his temper. The hermit desired them to arrange it so, that Augustin and his company should be first at the place, and, if he rose to salute them at their coming in, they might conclude he was sent from God; but, if he neglected this civility, they might resent his conduct, and have nothing to do with him. When the Britons came into the synod, Augustin received them sitting, in consequence of which they warmly opposed every thing he offered. The articles insisted on by Augustin were that they should celebrate Easter, and administer baptism, according to the practice of the church of Rome, and that they should acknowledge the pope's authority: if they would comply in these respects, and assist in the conversion of the Saxons, he would bear with the disagreement of their customs in other cases. But the Britons replied they could yield none of the points contested.

St. Augustin died at Canterbury in the year 604. The observation of the festival of St. Augustin was first enjoined in a synod held under Cuthbert archbishop of Canterbury, and afterwards by the pope's bull in the reign of King Edward III.

AUGUSTINE, one of the most distinguished fathers of the church. He was born in the year 354, at Tagaste, a small town in Africa. His father, whose name was Patricius, though possessed of but little wealth, was held in considerable estimation by his fellow-citizens, and filled for some time the office of a magistrate in the town above mentioned. His mother Monica, who is represented as a woman of great piety, carefully instructed her son in the principles of Christianity, and watched his future conduct with the most anxious affection. He was sent, at an early age, to a place of public instruction, where he showed a capacity so quick as to require very little application, but at the same time so strong a tendency to youthful sports as greatly tended to impede his progress in learning. He soon indicated a strong dislike to Grecian literature, but was very much interested by the perusal of the Latin mythologists, and extremely attached to all theatrical exhibitions.

In 371 he was sent to Madaura to pursue his classical studies. After the death of his father, he visited Carthage, and afterwards the city of Rome, where he was converted to the catholic faith by Bishop Ambrose. Immediately after this event Augustine set out for his native country. While waiting at Ostia to embark for Africa, he was deprived of his constant attendant and faithful counsellor, his mother Monica. As soon as he arrived at Tagaste, he withdrew to a country residence, where he lived with a few select friends, in imitation of the first Christians, "having all things common." After spending about three years in this manner, he visited a person of rank in the city of Hippo Regius. During his residence there, the priest's office was vacant, and Valerius the bishop had assembled the canons for the purpose of electing another incumbent. Augustine having entered the church, to witness the

form of proceeding, was instantly presented to the bishop, by the unanimous consent of the assembly, as the fittest person to be chosen; and, in spite of all his remonstrances, was ordained in the year 391. He still continued to follow the same way of life which he had begun in his late retreat, formed his associates into a kind of religious society, and thus at length gave rise to the Augustine Friars, or eremites of St. Augustine. In 394 he had a dispute with Jerome, in which he treated his venerable opponent with so much respect that they afterwards became very intimate friends. As Valerius was a Greek, and found considerable difficulty to speak publicly in the Latin language, he appointed Augustine to preach in his place, and even in his presence, though this was contrary to the custom of the African church. He signalized himself very much at a provincial council in 393, by pronouncing an exposition of the creed; and, in 395, by the influence of his friend and patron Valerius, was installed as joint bishop of the church at Hippo.

He wrote much against the Manichæans, and was very successful in vindicating from their objections the authority and integrity of sacred scripture. He laboured also with great ability to expose the dangerous principles of the Donatists, and narrowly escaped assassination from some of that sect in 398; but he was not deterred from acting a very conspicuous part in the council which was held against them at Carthage in the year 411. By a council of the African clergy, in 418, he was publicly requested to refute the errors of Pelagius and Celestine; and to him is principally due the credit of having checked the progress of their opinions.

In 426, in the seventy-second year of his age, he chose a person named Eradius to assist him in his public duties, and after this employed himself almost entirely in writing upon various subjects. In 430 Hippo was invested by the Vandals, and sustained a siege of fourteen months. The aged bishop resolved to share the troubles of the city with his followers, but, exhausted by the excessive fatigue which he suffered, he died, with every indication of fervent piety, on the 28th of August 430, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. About seven months after this event, the city of Hippo was taken and burned by the Vandals; but the library of Augustine, containing an immense number of his own writings, was carefully preserved.

The most accurate and splendid edition of the works of Augustine is that which was produced by the Benedictines, printed first at Paris in 1679 and afterwards at Antwerp in 1700, with some augmentation by Le Clerc, under the fictitious name of Pheponus.

AUGUSTUS, the appellation conferred upon Cæsar Octavianus, the first Roman emperor. "The obscure name of Octavianus," observes Gibbon, "he derived from a humble family in the town of Aricia. It was stained with the blood of the proscription; and he was desirous, had it been possible, to erase all memory of his former life. The illustrious surname of *Cæsar* he had assumed, as the adopted son of the dictator; but he had too much good sense either to hope to be confounded or to wish to be compared with that extraordinary man. It was proposed in the senate to dignify their minister with a new appellation; and, after a very serious discussion, that of *Augustus* was chosen among several others,



as being the most expressive of the character of peace and sanctity, which he uniformly affected. *Augustus* was therefore a personal, *Cæsar* a family distinction. The former should naturally have expired with the prince on whom it was bestowed; and, however the latter was diffused by adoption and female alliance, Nero was the last prince who could allege any hereditary claim to the honours of the Julian line. But, at the time of his death, the practice of a century had inseparably connected these appellations with the imperial dignity, and they had been preserved by a long succession of emperors, Romans, Greeks, Franks, and Germans, from the fall of the republic to the present time. A distinction was, however, soon introduced. The sacred title of *Augustus* was always reserved for the monarch, the name of *Cæsar* was more freely communicated to his relations and, from the reign of Adrian at least, was appropriated to the second person in the state, who was considered as the presumptive heir of the empire.

Having thus briefly explained the change of name which has been the cause of much misapprehension in the mode of designating this distinguished emperor, we may now proceed to trace his life in detail. He was born during the consulate of Cicero, B. C. 62, and, losing his father in his infancy, was educated by his mother and her second husband, Lucius Philippus. His early maturity and discretion made him a great favourite with his great uncle Julius Cæsar, who declared his design of adopting him, should he have no children of his own. He was studying eloquence at Apollonia in Epirus, when the news reached him of his uncle's death, and of his own adoption. Contrary to the timid advice of his friends, he immediately set sail for Italy; and, on landing at a small port near Brundisium, was immediately waited upon by a deputation from the soldiers of his uncle, who hailed him as his heir and avenger. His conduct was very able and decided for a youth just entering into his nineteenth year, and gave earnest of his future successful career. First solemnly declaring his adoption, and assuming the name of his uncle, with the addition of that of Octavianus, he placed himself at the head of the veterans, intercepted for his own use the tribute which was passing from the transmarine provinces to the capital, and immediately took his route through Campania for Rome. On his arrival, he found Cæsar's avengers triumphant, and Antony, as consul, ruling with almost sovereign sway. His first step was to procure the legal ratification of his adoption, after which he waited on Antony, and, proposing a mutual friendship, demanded of him the money left by Cæsar, in order that he might pay his legacies. Antony, jealous of his spirit and ambition, treated him with great haughtiness; and an open difference ensued, which at length extended to an enmity so confirmed that Octavius was accused, not without some probable ground, of an attempt to assassinate his rival. Besides collecting a body of Cæsar's veterans from Campania, Octavius, who perceived the senatorian party to be very powerful, artfully affected to be governed entirely by the advice of Cicero (whom, notwithstanding his age and experience, he appears to have completely deluded), and, when Antony was declared a public enemy, accepted a command against him. He accordingly accompanied the armies of the two consuls, Hirtius and

Pansa, to the relief of Decimus Brutus, and by their death in battle was most critically left master of the victorious army. Some jealousy and impolitic neglect of him on the part of the senators, while they accumulated honours on Decimus Brutus soon after, determined him to follow the reported dying advice of the consul Pansa, and reconcile himself to Antony, who, driven out of Italy, had artfully seduced the whole army of Lepidus in Gaul, and was preparing to return at the head of it. Alarmed at this intelligence, the senate decreed the management of the war to Octavius and Decimus Brutus; but the former had already made a treaty with Antony, and employed the legal command given him to march an army to Rome and get himself declared consul. One of his first acts in that capacity was to procure the legal condemnation of all who had been concerned in the death of Cæsar, after which he caused the decrees against Antony and Lepidus to be revoked, and invited them into Italy. In the transactions that followed the character of Octavius appears to no great advantage, either as a leader or a man. The army which he commanded at the battle of Philippi was twice defeated by Brutus; and, unlike Antony, he revenged himself on the dead body of Brutus, by causing the head to be cut off and thrown before Cæsar's statue. On the capitulation of the town of Perusia, he punished its fidelity to Lucius by giving it up to plunder, and coldly and mercilessly delivering up its 300 senators to the executioner, which butchery was made an offering on an altar erected to the manes of Julius. The celebrated partition of the Roman world, between Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus, followed, which agreement was cemented by the union of Octavia with Antony. Having stated the rise of Octavius, it is unnecessary to pursue the details of his public career, which is rather the province of history than biography, and it may be enough to say that he died A. D. 14, in August, the month called after him.

AVENZOAR, an eminent Arabian physician, who flourished about the end of the eleventh or the beginning of the twelfth century. He was born at Sevil, the capital of Andalusia, where he exercised his profession with great reputation. The large estate he inherited from his ancestors placed him above the necessity of practising for gain: he therefore took no fees from the poor, or from artificers, though he did not refuse the presents of the rich and powerful. His liberality was extended even to his enemies, for which reason he used to say that "they hated him not for any fault of his, but rather out of envy." Avenzoar died at a very advanced age and left but one son, who stood high in favour with Manso emperor of Morocco, and wrote several treatises of physic.

Avenzoar was contemporary with Averroes, who, according to Leo Africanus, heard the lectures of the former, and learned physic of him; this seems probable, because Averroes more than once gives Avenzoar a very high and deserved encomium, calling him "*admirable, glorious, the treasure of all knowledge, and the most supreme in physic from the time of Galen to his own.*" Avenzoar wrote a book on "the Method of preparing Medicines and Diet," which is much esteemed. This work was translated into Hebrew, in the year 1280, and afterwards into Latin by Paravicinus, whose version has had several editions.



AVICENNA, an Arabian philosopher, who was born at Bochara, about the year 978. He has been celebrated for the precocity of his talents. When he was scarcely ten years of age he is said to have made great proficiency in polite literature, and to have been master of the Alcoran. Abu-Abdallah, a celebrated lecturer in philosophy, undertook to instruct him in the art of logic; but the pupil was soon convinced of the deficiencies of his teacher, and declined receiving any further assistance from him. With an ardour which no disappointment could quench, and with a constancy of application which never yielded to fatigue or difficulty, he successively studied mathematics, philosophy, and medicine; and, before he was seventeen years of age, no person could be found in his native city who was capable of giving him further instruction in any of these branches of knowledge. In the school of Bagdad, where he afterwards studied for some time, he was regarded as a prodigy of learning. He scarcely allowed himself leisure for sleep or nourishment, and, if we are to believe the marvellous tales of his biographers, his mind was perpetually awake. To the difficulties which absolutely baffled his judgment during the day, he persuaded himself that he found a ready solution in his dreams. This he piously ascribed to celestial illumination, granted in answer to his prayers.

There is more of the romantic than of the credible in the life of Avicenna. With these hyperbolic accounts of his almost supernatural capacity, we are at a loss to reconcile the extreme difficulty which he found in comprehending the metaphysics of Aristotle. It is said that, after his astonishing progress in the sciences, he read over that work not less than forty times without understanding it. At last an Arabian manuscript, which accidentally fell into his hands, taught him the way to understand the work which had so long baffled his efforts. In a transport of gratitude he flew to the mosque, and offered up fervent thanksgivings to heaven for dispelling his darkness. From this moment he was consulted as an oracle, to whose sage decisions the learned, the venerable, and the aged, yielded with implicit deference, as if he had been possessed of the gift of infallibility. We may here state that his celebrity, as a man of science, was equalled by his fame as a physician. But we forbear to recite the strange adventures which, we are told, were occasioned by the eagerness with which he was courted by different sovereigns. He wrote with great rapidity and ease; and few authors have written more. He wrote a great number of treatises on morals, theology, mathematics, astronomy, philology, metaphysics, logic, natural philosophy, natural history, and medicine; and, when he was only twenty-one years of age, he planned a comprehensive view of all the sciences, which, without any assistance, he soon accomplished, though it extended to twenty volumes. This work, which he named *The Utility of Utilities*, professed to be a complete Encyclopædia of human knowledge.

AVISON, CHARLES, a distinguished organist born at Newcastle, and a disciple of Geminiani. He was the author of an essay on musical expression, published in the year 1752, in which are many valuable criticisms on music in general, but his division of the modern authors into classes is rather more fanciful than just. In the year 1753 came out "Remarks on Mr. Avison's Essay on Musical Expression,"

the author of which first points out several errors against the rules of composition in the works of Avison. In the same year Avison republished his essay, with a reply to the author of the "Remarks." Avison assisted in the publication of Marcello's music to the psalms adapted to English words. Of his own composition there are extant five collections of concertos for violins, and two sets of sonatas for the harpsichord and two violins, a species of composition little known in this country till his time. The music of Avison is light and pleasing, but wants originality, a necessary consequence of his too close attachment to the style of Geminiani, which in a few particulars only he was able to imitate.

AUNGERVYLE, RICHARD. — This eminent ecclesiastic, who is also known by the name of *Richard de Bury*, was born in 1281 at St. Edmund's Bury in Suffolk, and educated at the university of Oxford, after which he entered into the order of Benedictine monks, and became tutor to Edward prince of Wales, afterwards King Edward III. Upon the accession of his royal pupil to the throne he was first appointed cofferer, then treasurer to the wardrobe, archdeacon of Northampton, prebendary of Lincoln, Sarum, and Litchfield, keeper of the privy seal, dean of Wells, and last of all was promoted to the bishopric of Durham. He likewise enjoyed the offices of lord high chancellor, and treasurer of England; and discharged two important embassies at the court of France. Learned himself, and a patron of the learned, he maintained a correspondence with some of the most learned men of the age, particularly with the celebrated Italian poet Petrarch. He was also distinguished for his benevolence, and performed many signal acts of charity. Every week he made eight quarters of wheat into bread, and gave it to the poor. Whenever he travelled between Durham and Newcastle, he distributed eight pounds sterling in alms, between Durham and Stockton five pounds, between Durham and Aukland five marks, and between Durham and Middleham five pounds. He founded a public library at Oxford, for the use of the students, which he furnished with the best collection of books then extant, and appointed five keepers, to whom he granted yearly salaries. At the dissolution of religious houses in the reign of Henry VIII., Durham College, where he fixed the library, being dissolved among the rest, some of the books were removed to the public library, some to Balliol College, and some came into the hands of Dr. Owen, a physician of Godstow, who bought that college of King Edward VI. Bishop Aungervyle died at his manor of Aukland, April 24, 1345, and was buried in the southern part of the cross aisle of the cathedral church of Durham, to which he had been a benefactor.

AURELIANUS, LUCIUS DOMITIUS, emperor of Rome, was one of the most distinguished generals of his time, and commanded the armies of the emperor Claudius with such success that after the death of that emperor all the legions agreed to place him on the throne: this event took place in the year 270. He defeated the Goths, Sarmatians, Marcomanni, the Persians, Egyptians, and Vandals, conquered Zenobia queen of the Palmyrenians, and Tetricus general of the Gauls, both of whom were made to grace his triumph in the year 274. He had planned a great expedition against Persia, and was waiting at Thrace for an opportunity to cross



the straits, when he lost his life, A.D. 275, by assassination, the result of a conspiracy, excited by a secretary whom he intended to call to account for peculation. Aurelian was a wise, able, and active prince, and very useful in the declining state of the empire. It is said that he meditated a severe persecution of the Christians, when he was so suddenly cut off, after a distinguished and eventful reign of only five years. The talents of Aurelian were better suited to the command of an army than to the government of an empire; and he acted towards his subjects more like a conqueror than a sovereign. He was unequalled in point of personal prowess; and it is affirmed that, in one engagement, he slew forty-eight of the enemy with his own hand. He exercised the strictest discipline in the army; and punished with the utmost severity every neglect of duty, or instance of licentiousness in the conduct of his troops. He was capable of great generosity; but his justice often degenerated into savage cruelty; and he is ranked not so much among the good as among the useful princes.

AURUNG-ZEBE, a distinguished eastern emperor, the third son of Shah Jehan, was born in 1618. His natural disposition was serious and thoughtful, and, with the most profound hypocrisy, he covered his ardent ambition under the affected garb of religious austerity. By this deportment he gained the love of his father; but his elder brother Dara penetrated the mask, and used to say, "Of all my brothers, I fear none but this teller of beads." The dangerous sickness of Shah Jehan, by setting all his sons in motion, quickly exposed the ultimate views of Aurung-zebe, who, gaining to his party his younger brother Morad, defeated Dara, who in his turn had overcome another brother called Suyah. The use which he made of his victory was to depose his father, behead Morad, poison Dara and his son, and then impose upon himself a rigorous penance, eating only barley-bread, herbs, and fruits, and drinking pure water. His treatment of his deposed father was however so apparently respectful and submissive that the old monarch ostensibly forgave him, but of course was never restored to power. Aurung-zebe displayed great abilities when in full possession of the sovereignty. He subdued Visapour, Golconda, and the Carnatic, on the south, overran the kingdom of Asen on the north, reduced Bengal, and cleared the mouth of the Ganges from the Portuguese pirates.

In the reign of Aurung-zebe, the Mogul throne was shaken to its foundation by an insurrection of religious fanatics, headed by an old woman, named *Bistimia*. She possessed a considerable hereditary estate, and had accumulated, by penury, a great sum of money. Being seized with a fit of enthusiasm, she became on a sudden prodigal of her wealth. Fakeers, and sturdy beggars of other descriptions, under pretence of religion, to the number of five thousand, flocked to her castle, and received her bounty. These vagabonds, not satisfied with what the old woman bestowed in charity, armed themselves, and, making predatory excursions into the country, returned with their spoils to the house of their patroness, where they mixed intemperance with devotion. The people, oppressed by these sanctified robbers, rose upon them, but were defeated with great slaughter.

Repeated disasters of the same kind were at length

attributed to the power of enchantment; and, this ridiculous opinion gaining ground, fear became predominant in the opponents of the fakeers. The banditti, acquiring confidence from their success, burnt and destroyed the country for many miles round, and surrounded the castle of the pretended enchantress with a desert. The rajah of the province (Marwar) marched against them with his native troops, but was defeated: the collectors of the imperial revenue also attacked them, but were forced to give way. A report prevailed, and was eagerly believed by the multitude, that on a certain day of the moon the old lady used to cook, in the skull of an enemy, a repast composed of owls, bats, snakes, lizards, human flesh, and other horrid ingredients, which she distributed to her followers. This abominable meal, it was believed by the rabble, had the surprising effect of not only rendering them void of all fear themselves, and of inspiring their enemies with terror, but even of making them invisible in the hour of battle, when they dealt their deadly blows around them.

Their numbers being now increased to twenty thousand, this motley army, with an old woman at their head, directed their march to the capital. Bistimia was a commander full of cruelty. She covered her route with murder and devastation, and hid her rear in the smoke of burning villages and towns. Having advanced to Narnoul, about five days' journey from Agra, the collector of the revenue in that place opposed her with a large force, but was totally defeated. The affair had now become serious, and demanded the attention of the emperor. He found that the minds of the soldiers were tainted with the prejudices of the people, and he thought it necessary to combat Bistimia with weapons of her own. Sujait, one of his chief generals, was ordered against the rebels. The emperor, in the presence of the army, delivered to that general billets written with his own hand, which were said to contain magical incantations. His reputation for sanctity was at least equal to that of Bistimia; and he ordered a billet to be carried on the point of a spear before each squadron, which the soldiers were made to believe would counteract the enchantments of the enemy. The same credulity which induced them to dread the witchcraft of the old woman gave them confidence in the pretended charm of Aurung-zebe.

The insurgents, after their victory at Narnoul, thought of nothing but the empire for their aged leader. Having rioted upon the spoils of the country for some days, they solemnly raised Bistimia to the throne, which gave them a fresh excuse for festivity. In the midst of their intemperate joy, Sujait made his appearance. They fought with the fury of fanatics; but, when the idea of supernatural aid was dispelled from the minds of the imperial forces, the fakeers were by no means a match for their swords. It was not a battle, but a confused carnage. A few owed their lives to the clemency of Sujait: the rest met the death which their crimes merited.

Aurung-zebe, when he received Sujait after his victory, could not help smiling at the ridicule thrown on his arms by an old woman, at the head of an army of naked mendicants. "I find," said he, "that too much religion among the vulgar is as dangerous as too little in a monarch." Aurung-zebe died in 1707 at Ahmednagar, where he had taken up his winter quarters, in the ninetieth year of his age.



His body, according to his own direction, was deposited in the cell of a celebrated dervise near that city, in a plain tomb

AUSONIUS, DECIMUS, MAGNUS, one of the most distinguished poets of the fourth century. He was the son of a physician residing at Bourdeaux, in France, and was early raised to importance by his talents. He was for some time professor of rhetoric in his native city, but was sent for by the emperor Valentinian to become the preceptor of his son. The rewards and honours conferred on him for the faithful discharge of his duties prove the truth of Juvenal's maxim, that, when Fortune pleases, she can raise a man from a rhetorician to the dignity of a consul. He was actually appointed consul by the emperor Gratian his pupil, after having filled other considerable posts; besides the dignity of quæstor, to which he had been nominated by Valentinian, he was made prefect of the Prætorium in Italy and Gaul after that prince's death. The time of his death is not known with certainty, but he lived to a very advanced age. There is a great inequality in the works of this author, and in his manners and his style there is a harshness which was perhaps rather the defect of the times he lived in than of his genius. Had he lived in Augustus's reign, his verses, according to good judges, would have equalled the most finished of that age. He is generally supposed to have been a Christian: some ingenious authors indeed think otherwise, but, according to Bale, without just reason. The best edition of his poems was that published at Amsterdam in 1671.

AUSTEN, JANE, a highly-gifted English novelist, who was born in 1775. In her literary labours she always advocated the cause of morality and right feeling. She died of a decline, in the forty-second year of her age.

AYESHA, the favourite wife of Mahomet, whose virtues and affection are much celebrated in eastern poetry. Ayesha was always much respected by the Moslems, who styled her the "Mother of the Faithful;" and her influence, which she on many occasions exercised very mischievously, was considerable. On the accession of Ali, she raised a revolt; and being carried on a litter, at the head of the army which marched against him, in the first battle that ensued she was exposed to much personal danger. According to an Arabian writer, the hands of seventy men were cut off, who successively held the bridle of her camel. At length being taken prisoner, Ali, after some mutual reproaches had passed between them, caused her to be respectfully conveyed to Medina, only requiring her to live peaceably at home and no longer interfere in public affairs. She regained a portion of influence under his successor Moawiyah, but died soon after, in the fifty-eighth year of the Hegira, A. D. 677, aged sixty-seven years.

AYLMER, JOHN, an eminent English prelate, who was born at Aylmer Hall, in Norfolk, towards the close of the year 1521. Grey, marquis of Dorset, and afterwards duke of Suffolk, gave him an exhibition at the university of Cambridge, where he took his degree in arts, after which the marquis made him tutor to his children, among whom was Lady Jane Grey. He early adopted the opinions of the reformers; and under the patronage of the duke of Suffolk and the earl of Huntingdon, in the reign of Edward VI., was for some time the only preacher in Leicestershire, and was highly instrumental in

converting inhabitants of that county to the protestant religion. In 1553 he was made archdeacon of Stow in the diocese of Lincoln. In the convocation which sat in the first year of Queen Mary, he distinguished himself by his warmth against the Catholic religion. The violent measures of that queen's ministry rendered his stay in England unsafe; he retired to Strasburgh, and afterwards at Zurich in Switzerland, where he undertook the instruction of several young gentlemen in classical learning and religion. During his exile he also visited the universities of Italy and Germany. At that of Jena in Saxony he was offered the Hebrew professorship; but, having a prospect of returning home, he declined it.

After the accession of Queen Elizabeth, he came back to England; and, in the beginning of that princess's reign, was one of the eight divines appointed to dispute at Westminster, before many persons of distinction, against an equal number of catholic bishops. In 1562, by the interest of Secretary Cecil, he was made archdeacon of Lincoln; and assisted at the synod held in that year. He continued long without any other preferment, though often nominated by the archbishop of Canterbury to some vacant bishopric. According to Strype, one reason of his being neglected was his declaiming in his answer to Knox against the splendour and wealth of the church, in these words: "Come off, ye bishops, away with your superfluities, yield up your thousands, be content with hundreds; as they be in other reformed churches, where be as great learned men as you are: let your portion be priest-like, not prince-like: let the queen have the rest of your temporalities and other lands to maintain these wars, which you procured, and your mistress left her embroiled in; and with the rest to build and found schools throughout the realm: that every parish church may have its preacher, every city its superintendent, to live honestly and not pompously; which will never be unless your lands be dispersed, and bestowed upon many, which now feed and fat but one." However he was appointed one of the queen's justices of the peace for the county, and one of her ecclesiastical commissioners. In 1573 he took the degree of bachelor and doctor in divinity in the university of Oxford, and in 1576, on the translation of his friend and fellow exile Dr. Edwin Sandys to the archbishopric of York, he was made bishop of London; and though Sandys had been instrumental in his promotion, recommending him to the queen as a proper person for his successor, he sued him for dilapidations, and after some years' prosecution recovered 900l or 1000l.

When the plague raged in London, in 1578, his principal attention was directed to preserve the lives of his clergy, and yet to make provision that the infected might be visited and have proper assistance with respect to religion. Strype tells us that the forwardness of many ministers to undertake this office was remarkable; "some from covetousness, others from vain-glory, and others to supply their wants." The bishop likewise ordered books, containing directions for preventing the rage of the pestilence, to be printed and dispersed.

In 1581 came out Campian's book, containing his reason's for deserting the reformed and returning to the catholic communion. It was written in very elegant Latin, and dedicated to the scholars of both



universities. One of the principal points insisted on was the strange and contradictory doctrines taught by some of the first reformers. The lord treasurer Burleigh desired the bishop of London to answer it; but his lordship excused himself, on account of his health, and the trouble which his ecclesiastical commission gave him. However, he had an answer written.

In 1581 he proposed that a number of learned and sound divines should be appointed to preach at set times before great assemblies, particularly at St. Paul's Cross, for confirming the people's judgments in the doctrine and discipline of the established church. But Sir John Branch, lord mayor, and the aldermen, did not like this motion on account of the standing charge to which it must put the city; so the design was dropped. After the defeat of the Armada, in 1589, he expressed in strong terms his dislike of certain libels against the king of Spain; "on so glorious a victory," he said, "it was better to thank God than insult men, especially princes."

He died at Fulham, the 3rd of June, 1594, aged seventy-three. He married Judith Bures, of a good family in Suffolk, by whom he had seven sons and three daughters. This ecclesiastic was an excellent logician and historian, and well skilled in the Hebrew tongue: he understood the civil law, divinity, and the ancient writers; and was a rhetorical, bold, and pathetic preacher.

AYLOFFE, SIR JOSEPH, a learned English antiquary, born at Framlingham in Sussex. He went to Westminster School in 1772, where he received the rudiments of his education, and was removed in his seventeenth year to St. John's College, Oxford, his name being at the same time entered as a member of the Society of Lincoln's Inn. The study of antiquities soon became his favourite pursuit; and as to other requisites, natural and acquired, he added the most indefatigable research, he eventually became one of the most learned antiquarians of his time. He acted as secretary to the commission appointed for rebuilding the bridge over the Thames at Westminster, and held a situation in the State Paper office, as one of the record keepers.

Sir Joseph Ayloffe was the author of several curious papers published in the *Archæologia*, as of other interesting works. Among the latter are his catalogue of ancient charters and royal grants contained in the record office at the Tower. He also superintended the publication of new editions of the "*Liber Niger Scacarii*," the "*Collectanea of Leland*," in nine volumes, the "*Curious Discourses of Thomas Hearne*," and Thorpe's "*Registrum Roffense*." He died in 1781, having been for more than fifty years a fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies.

AYSCOUGH, SAMUEL.—This laborious compiler of catalogues and indices was born at Nottingham in 1745, and, coming to London about the year 1770, first obtained employment from a paviour in the capacity of superintendent over his workmen. This situation he soon quitted for one in the shop of a respectable bookseller in St. Paul's churchyard. This he again left, and became one of the servants in the British Museum, where the education which he had received previous to the distresses of his family proved eventually of such use to him that in 1785 he obtained the place of assistant librarian on that establishment. The opportunities he

now enjoyed were not lost, and his studies were continued with unwearied diligence.

Having been ordained to the curacy of St. Giles-in-the-Fields he in 1790 obtained the Fairchild lectureship at Shoreditch, and held it till his death, which took place October 30, 1804. Besides compiling indices to the works of "Shakspeare," the "*Gentleman's Magazine*," the "*British Critic*," the "*Monthly Review*," &c., he published "*Remarks on the Letters of an American Farmer*," and an account of the parish of Cudham, which appeared in the *Gentleman's Magazine*. He was also employed in arranging the archives in the record office of the Tower of London, and the manuscripts in the British Museum.

AYSCUE, SIR GEORGE, a gallant English admiral, descended from a good family in Lincolnshire. He obtained the honour of knighthood from King Charles I., which, however, did not prevent him from adhering to the parliament in the civil war. He was created admiral of the Irish seas, where he is said to have been of great service to the protestant interest, and instrumental in the reduction of the whole island. In 1651 he reduced Barbadoes and Virginia, then held for the king, to the obedience of the parliament. He then returned to England, and soon after his arrival found himself again obliged to enter upon new duties, in the Dutch war which broke out during his absence. On the 21st of June, 1652, he came to Dover with his squadron of eleven sail, and there joined his old friend Admiral Blake; but Blake having received orders to sail northward, and destroy the Dutch herring fishery, Sir George Ayscue was left to command the fleet in the Downs. Within a few days after Blake's departure, he took five sail of Dutch merchantmen, and had scarcely brought them into harbour before he received intelligence that a fleet of forty sail had been seen not far from the coast, upon which he gave chase, took seven, sunk four, and ran twenty-four upon the French shore, all the rest being separated from their convoy. The Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, who was at sea with a large fleet, having received information of Sir George Ayscue's situation, resolved to take advantage of him, and with no less than one hundred ships sailed in between him and the river, and resolved to surprise such ships as should attempt to go out; or, if that design failed, to sink Sir George and his squadron. The English admiral, however, discovered their intention, and had a signal made from Dover Castle, for all the ships to keep to sea, by which means he defeated the first part of their plan. However, Van Tromp attempted to carry into operation the second part of his plan in hopes of better success, and on the 8th of July, when it was ebb tide, he began to sail towards the English fleet; but, the wind dying away, he was obliged to come to an anchor about a league off, in order to take advantage of the next ebb. Sir George, in the mean time, caused a strong platform to be raised between Deal and Sandown castles, well furnished with artillery, and so pointed as to bear directly upon the Dutch as they came in; the militia of the county of Kent were also ordered down to the sea-shore: notwithstanding this preparation the Dutch admiral at the next ebb weighed anchor, and would have stood into the port; but the wind blew directly in his teeth, and compelled him to keep out and leave Sir George safe in the harbour with the small squadron

he commanded. He was soon after ordered to Plymouth, to bring in under his convoy five East-India ships, which he did in the latter end of July; and in the first week of August brought in four French and Dutch prizes. In a few days after this, intelligence was received that Van Tromp's fleet was seen off the Isle of Wight, and it was immediately resolved that Sir George, with his fleet, should stretch over to the coast of France to meet them. Accordingly, on the 16th of August, between one and two o'clock at noon, they came in sight of the enemy, and about four the battle commenced between the rival fleets, the English admiral with nine others charging through their fleet; his ships received most damage in the shrouds, masts, sails, and rigging, which was repaid the Dutch in their hulls. Sir George having thus passed through them, got the weather-gage, and charged them again; but all his fleet not coming up, and the night setting in, they parted with a drawn battle.

In the beginning of the year 1665 Ayscue hoisted his flag as rear-admiral of the blue, and in the great battle that was fought on the 3rd of June in the same year that squadron had the honour to break through the centre of the Dutch fleet, and by this means make way for one of the most complete victories ever obtained by this nation at sea. For in this battle the Dutch had ten of their largest ships sunk or burned, besides their admiral Opdam's, which blew up in the midst of the engagement, by which the admiral himself, and upwards of 500 men, perished. Eighteen men of war were taken, four fire-ships destroyed, thirteen captains, and more than 2000 private men, made prisoners; and this with a very inconsiderable loss to the English. The fleet being repaired, it was ordered to rendezvous in Southwold Bay, from which, to the number of sixty-sail, they weighed anchor on the 5th of July, and stood over for the coast of Holland. The standard was borne by the gallant earl of Sandwich, vice-admiral Sir George Ayscue, and Sir Thomas Tyddiman rear-admiral. Sir William Penn was admiral of the white, Sir William Berkely vice-admiral, and Sir Joseph Jordan rear-admiral. The blue flag was carried by Sir Thomas Allen, whose vice and rear were Sir Christopher Mimms and Sir John Harman. The design was to intercept de Ruyter in his return, or, at least, to take and burn the Turkey and East-India fleets, of which they had certain intelligence, but they succeeded in neither of these designs; de Ruyter arrived safely in Holland, and the Turkey and India fleets took shelter in the Port of Bergen in Norway. The earl of Sandwich having detached Sir Thomas Tyddiman to attack them there, returned home, and in his passage took eight Dutch men of war, which served as convoys to their East and West India fleets, and several merchantmen richly laden, which finished the actions of that year. The triumphs of the British flag under Ayscue were now drawing to a close; as he shortly afterwards lost his flag-ship the Royal Prince, and was taken prisoner in an engagement with the Dutch fleet under de Ruyter and Van Tromp. The Dutch admiral de Ruyter, in his letters to the States-general, says, in a few words, that Sir George Ayscue, admiral of the white, having run upon a sand-bank, fell into their hands, and that after taking out the commanders, and the men that were left, they set the ship on fire. But, according to the information collected by order

of the States from the letters written to them upon the occasion, Sir George Ayscue, in the Royal Prince, ran upon the Galloper. The unfortunate admiral made signals for assistance; but the English fleet continued their route; so that he was left quite alone, and without hope of succour, in which situation he was attacked by two Dutch fire-ships, by which, without doubt, he had been burnt, if lieutenant-admiral Tromp who was on board the ship of rear-admiral Sweers, had not made a signal to call off the fire-ships, perceiving that his flag was already struck, and a signal made for quarter, upon which rear-admiral Sweers, by order of Van Tromp, went on board the English ship, and brought off Sir George Ayscue, his officers, and some of his men on board of his own vessel, and the next morning Sir George was sent to the Dutch coast, in order to go to the Hague in a galliot by order of General de Ruyter. After having remained a prisoner in the castle of Louvestein till the close of the war, Ayscue returned to the English court, but, meeting with a cold reception, he retired to a small cottage in Devonshire, where he died at an advanced age.

AZARA, DON JOSEPH D', a distinguished Spanish statesman, who was born at Barcelona in 1731. He received a good education, and was sent to Rome as ecclesiastical agent. He was afterwards attached to the Spanish embassy, and took a very active part in various important negotiations between the courts of Spain and Rome. In 1796 he was employed in a more difficult undertaking to solicit the clemency of the conqueror of Italy in behalf of Rome, where the French nation had been insulted, and he at least acquired the esteem of Buonaparte. About the same time he became acquainted with Joseph Buonaparte, then French ambassador at Rome. Being afterwards sent to Paris in a diplomatic character, he was favourably received, and found some relief from the recollection that he had left behind him his valued friends, his fine library, and museum of paintings and antiques. During this mission he experienced alternate favour and disgrace, being recalled by his court, exiled to Barcelona, and sent again to Paris with the rank of ambassador. His health, however, was now much impaired, and, when he was indulging the hope of being able to return to Italy and pass the rest of his time in the enjoyment of his friends and favourite pursuits, his constitution suddenly gave way and he expired January 26, 1797. He left a very considerable fortune in furniture, pictures, busts, &c., but appears to have lost his other property. He translated several classical authors, but his principal work is devoted to a view of the natural history and geographical characteristics of new Spain. The celebrated naturalist Cuvier wrote a series of notes for an edition of Azara's *Travel's in South America*.

AZUNI, DOMINIC ALBERT, a celebrated Italian jurist, who was born at Sassari, in 1760. He was for many years secretary of the supreme court at Genoa, where he died in 1827. Azuni was the author of several works on jurisprudence.

BABEUF, FRANCIS NOEL, a celebrated republican writer, who figured in the worst scenes of the French revolution. He was born at St. Quentin of poor parents, and passed his youth in a menial service. Having been imprisoned in the citadel of Arras for forgery, he made his escape, and went to Paris, where in concealment he published a pamphlet



against the Jacobins, entitled—"Du Système de Dépopulation, ou la Vie et les Crimes du Carrier." 8vo. Soon after, changing his plan, he started an incendiary journal, called "Le Tribun du Peuple, par Gracchus Babeuf." He then wrote alternately for and against the Jacobins, as best suited his purpose, and was repeatedly arrested for reviling the national representatives. After the fall of Robespierre, Babeuf was regarded as the head of that party which was opposed to all moderate government. Returning to the capital after the organization of the constitution in 1795, he resumed his journal, and advocated in it the most pernicious principles, with such insane violence as to bring on him the vengeance of the ruling powers. He was accused of a conspiracy against the directorial government, tried at Vendôme, and ultimately executed.

BABINGTON, GERVASE, was born in Nottinghamshire, and educated at Trinity College in Cambridge, of which he afterwards became fellow: he took a doctor's degree in divinity, and was appointed domestic chaplain to Henry earl of Pembroke, president of the council in the marches of Wales. By his interest he became treasurer of the church of Landaff, prebendary of Wellington in the cathedral of Hereford; and, in 1591, was advanced to the bishopric of Landaff. In 1594 he was translated to the see of Exeter, and in 1597 to that of Worcester: he was likewise made one of the queen's council for the marches of Wales. To the library of his cathedral at Worcester he was a very great benefactor, not only repairing the edifice, but also bequeathing to it all his books, a gift of considerable value. He died May 17, 1610.

There was a Catholic gentleman of the same family, who formed a plot for the delivery of Queen Mary from the custody of Elizabeth, for which he was afterwards executed.

BABINGTON, WILLIAM, M.D., a very eminent physician, who was born in 1757. He was for many years apothecary, and afterwards physician and lecturer on medicine and chemistry at Guy's Hospital.

His publications were not numerous. They consisted of—"A Systematic Arrangement of Minerals, founded on the joint Consideration of their Chemical, physical, and external Characters," 4to. 1795. "A new System of Mineralogy, in the form of a Catalogue, after the manner of Baron Born's Catalogue of the Fossils of M. de Raab," 1799; and some contributions to "Nicholson's Journal" and the "Medico-Chirurgical Transactions."

Dr. Babington was the personal friend and agreeable associate of the most distinguished persons of this country. In truth, his amiable temper, gentle manners, sound judgment, liberal sentiments, and varied information, rendered his society highly acceptable to a class of men whose stern and laborious abstractions occasionally required the soothing repose of friendly intercourse and the exhilarating relief of enlivening conversation.

He died at his house in Devonshire Place, April 29th 1833.

BACCIO, ANDREAS, a celebrated physician, who flourished at the end of the sixteenth century. He was born near Ancona, became professor of medicine at Rome, and was first physician to Pope Sixtus V. He was the author of several very curious and learned works, printed at Rome:

BACCIO DELLA PORTA, a Florentine painter

of eminence, who derived his name of Porta from his having a study near the city gate; and on his entering into the Dominican order he assumed the appellation of Frà Bartolommeo di S. Marco. He studied under Cosimo Roselli, but derived much of his skill from imitating the works of Leonardo da Vinci. He became the instructor of Raphael in colouring, who in return gave him lessons in perspective. He chiefly painted sacred subjects. His St. Sebastian, an undraped figure, was so admirably designed, and so naturally and beautifully coloured, as to obtain the general commendations of artists and critics. He died in 1517.

BACCHINI, BERNARDIN.—This learned Italian was born at Borgo-San-Donino in 1651. He studied the classics, under the tuition of the Jesuits, and in his sixteenth year entered the order of St. Benedict, on which occasion he adopted the name of that saint, in lieu of Bernardine, his baptismal name. Soon after, his father died, leaving his widow and three children with very little provision. Bacchini, however, pursued his studies, and took lessons in scholastic philosophy from Maurice Zapata; but by the advice of Chrysogonus Fabius, master of the novices of his convent, he studied mathematics, as the foundation of a more useful species of knowledge than the physics and metaphysics of the ancients. He afterwards applied to divinity with equal judgment, confining his researches to the fathers, councils, and ecclesiastical history. Having obtained leave, on account of his health, to retire to a monastery in the country, he remained there two years, during which he studied the science of music, and on his recovery began to preach, agreeably to the desire of his superiors.

At length he settled at Parma, and established a periodical journal of literature, which he conducted for some years with learning and judgment; but his criticisms created enemies, who procured his banishment from the city. He retreated to Modena, and under the patronage of the duke of Modena (who made him his librarian) he resumed his journal. He was also historiographer to the duke, and collected materials for the history and genealogy of the family of Este. He subsequently became abbot of a Benedictine monastery, and he was also chosen professor of ecclesiastical history at Bologna, where he died in 1721, aged seventy. Bacchini was one of the most learned men of his time. His knowledge was various and extensive, and his acquaintance with ecclesiastical antiquities very profound. His literary journal alone extends to nine volumes in quarto.

BACHELIER, JOHN JAMES, a very eminent French artist, who expended a large fortune in improving the fine arts in his native country. He was ultimately made director of the porcelain manufactory at Sevres, where he died in 1805.

BACH, JOHN SEBASTIAN, a very eminent musician, who was born at Eisenach in 1685, where his father, John Ambrosius, was musician to the court and to the town, and had a twin-brother, John Christopher, who was musician to the court and town of Armstadt, and was so very like him that even their own wives could not distinguish them, except by their dress. These twins were perhaps in this respect the most remarkable ever known. They loved each other with great affection; and their voice, disposition, and style of music was alike. If one was ill, the other was so likewise: they died also

within a short time of each other. They were indeed a subject of astonishment to all who knew them. In the year 1695, when John Sebastian was not quite ten years of age, his father died; he had lost his mother at an earlier period. Being thus left an orphan, he was obliged to have recourse to an elder brother, John Christopher, who was an organist at Ardruff. From him he received the first instructions in playing on the clavichord. His inclination and talent for music must have been already very great, since the works which his brother gave him were so rapidly learned that he began with much eagerness to look out for some that were more difficult. The most celebrated composers for the clavichord in those days were Froberger, Fircher, John Gaspar Kerl, Bachelbel, Buxtehude, Bruhn, Böhme, &c. He had observed that his brother had a book, in which there were several pieces of the above-mentioned authors, and earnestly begged him to give it to him, but he was constantly denied, till his desire to possess the book was so increased by refusal that he at length sought for means to get possession of it secretly. As it was kept in a cupboard which had only a little door, and his hands were still small enough to pass through, so that he could roll up the book, which was merely stitched in paper, and draw it out, he did not long hesitate to make use of these favourable circumstances; but for want of a candle he could only copy it in moonlight nights, and it took six months before he could finish his laborious task. At length, when he thought himself safely possessed of the treasure, and intending to make use of it in secret, his brother found it, and took from him the copy which had cost him so much pains; and he did not recover it till his brother's death, which took place soon after. John Sebastian, being thus again left destitute, went, in company with one of his schoolfellows, named Erdmann, afterwards Russian president in Dantzic, to Luneburg, and engaged there in the choir of St. Michael's school as a treble or soprano singer. His fine treble voice procured him here a livelihood. His inclination to play on the clavichord and organ was as ardent at this period as in his more early years, and impelled him to see and hear every thing which, according to the ideas then entertained, would contribute to his improvement. With this view he not only went several times while he was a scholar, from Luneburg to Hamburg, to hear the organist, John Adam Reinken, who was at that time very celebrated, but sometimes also to Zell, in order to become acquainted with the prince's band, which consisted principally of Frenchmen, and with the French taste, which was then a novelty in those parts. It is not known at what period he removed from Luneburg to Weimar, but it is certain that he became court-musician at the latter town in 1703, when he was just eighteen years of age. He exchanged this place, however, in the following year, for that of organist to the new church at Armstadt: and, still further to gratify his desire of learning, he made a journey on foot to Lubeck, to hear Diederich Buxtehude, organist to St. Mary's church in that city, with whose composition he was already acquainted. The effects of his persevering diligence must already have excited great attention; for he received in quick succession several offers of places as organist; among others, that of the church of St. Blasius, at Muhlhausen, which he accepted. But, shortly after he

had entered upon it, he performed before the reigning duke of Weimar, and was so highly approved of that he was offered the situation of court-organist, which he accepted. He had still further occasion to improve in his art when his prince, in 1717, appointed him director of the concerts, in which place he had to compose and execute pieces of sacred music. Handel's master, Zachau, organist at Halle, died about this time, and J. S. Bach, whose reputation was already high, was invited to succeed him. He, in fact, went to Halle, to prove his qualifications, by performing a piece as a specimen of his skill. However, for what reason is not known, he did not enter upon the office, but left it to an able scholar of Zachau's of the name of Kirchhof. John Sebastian Bach was now thirty-two years of age, and had long been regarded with admiration, not only by amateurs, but by judges of the art, when, in the year 1717, Marchand, formerly much celebrated in France as a performer on the clavichord and organ, came to Dresden, where he performed before the king with such skill that a large salary was offered him if he would engage in his majesty's service. Marchand's merit chiefly consisted in a very elegant style of performance. But J. S. Bach had an equally elegant style, and at the same time a copiousness of ideas which Marchand did not possess. This was known to Volumier, at that time director of the concerts in Dresden. He knew the absolute command of the young German over his thoughts and his instrument, and wished to produce a contest between him and the French artist, in order to give the prince the pleasure of judging of their respective merits, by comparing them himself. With the king's approbation, therefore, a message was sent to J. S. Bach, at Weimar, to invite him to this musical contest. He accepted the invitation, and, on his arrival in Dresden, Volumier first procured him an opportunity secretly to hear Marchand. Bach was not discouraged, but sent a polite note to the French artist, formally inviting him to a musical trial of skill: he offered to play upon the spot whatever Marchand should set before him, but requested the same readiness on his part. As Marchand accepted the challenge, the time and place for the contest were fixed, with the king's consent. A large company of both sexes, and of high rank, assembled in the house of Marshal Count Fleming, which was the place appointed. Bach did not make them wait for him, but Marchand did not appear. After a long delay, they at last sent to enquire at his lodgings, and the company learned, to their great astonishment, that he had left Dresden in the morning of that day, without taking leave of any body. Bach alone, therefore, had to perform, and excited the admiration of all who heard him. He had not long returned to Weimar when Prince Leopold of Anhalt-Cothen, a great judge and lover of music, invited him to take the office of master to his chapel. He immediately entered on this situation, which he filled nearly six years; but during this time (about 1722) took a journey to Hamburg, in order to perform on the organ there. His performance excited universal admiration. The veteran Reinken, then near a hundred years old, heard him with particular pleasure; and in regard to the chorus, "*An Wasserflüssen Babylons*," which he varied for half an hour in the true organ style, he paid him the compliment of saying, "I thought that this art was dead, but I see



that it still lives in you." On the death of Kuhnaw, in the year 1723, Bach was appointed director of music and chanter to St. Thomas's school, at Leipsic. In this place he remained till his death. Prince Leopold of Anhalt-Cöthen had a great regard for him, and Bach, therefore, left his service with regret. But, the death of the prince occurring soon after, he saw that providence had guided well. Upon this death, which greatly afflicted him, he composed a funeral dirge, with several remarkably fine double choruses, and executed it himself at Cöthen. That in his present situation he received the title of master of the chapel from the duke of Weissenfels, and in the year 1736 the title of court composer to the King of Poland, elector of Saxony, is of little consequence; only it is to be observed that the last title was derived from connections in which Bach was engaged by his office of chanter in St. Thomas's school. His second son, Charles Philip Emanuel, entered the service of Frederic the Great in 1740. The reputation of the all-surpassing skill of John Sebastian was at this time so extended that the king became anxious to hear so great an artist. At this period the king had every evening a private concert, in which he himself generally performed on the flute. One evening, just as he was getting his flute ready, and his musicians were assembled, an officer brought him the list of the strangers who had arrived. With his flute in his hand he ran over the list, but immediately turned to the assembled musicians, and said with considerable agitation, "Gentleman, old Bach is come." The flute was now laid aside, and old Bach, who had alighted at his son's lodgings, was immediately summoned to the palace. The king then gave up his concert for that evening, and invited Bach to try his forte-pianos, made by Silvermann, which stood in several rooms of the palace. The musicians went with him from room to room, and Bach was invited every where to play unpremeditated compositions. After he had gone on for a short time, he asked the king to give him a subject for a fugue, in order to execute it immediately without any preparation. The king admired the learned manner in which his subject was thus executed extempore; and, probably to see how far such art could be carried, expressed a wish to hear a fugue with six obligato parts. But, as it is not every subject that is fit for such full harmony, Bach chose one himself, and immediately executed it, to the astonishment of all present, in the same magnificent and learned manner he had done that of the king. His majesty desired also to hear his performance on the organ. The next day, therefore, Bach was taken to all the organs in Potsdam, as he had before been to Silvermann's forte-pianos. After his return to Leipsic, he composed the subject which he had received from the king, in three and six parts, added several artificial passages to it, in strict canon, and had it engraved under the title of "Musical Offering" (Musical Offering) and dedicated it to the inventor. This was Bach's last journey. The indefatigable diligence with which, particularly in his younger years, he had frequently passed days and nights in the study of his art, had weakened his sight. This weakness continued to increase in his latter years, till at length it brought on a very painful disorder in the eyes. By the advice of some friends, who placed great confidence in the ability of an oculist who had arrived at Leipsic from England,

he ventured to submit to an operation, which twice failed. Not only was his sight now wholly lost, but his constitution, which had been hitherto so vigorous, was quite undermined by the use of perhaps noxious medicines. In consequence of the operation he continued to decline, till he expired, on the evening of the 30th of July, 1750, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. On the morning of the tenth day before his death, he was suddenly able to see again, and bear the light. But a few hours afterwards he was seized with an apoplectic fit; this was followed by an inflammatory fever, which his enfeebled frame, notwithstanding all possible aid, was unable to resist.—Such was the life of this remarkable man. We will only add that he was twice married, and that he had by his first wife seven, and by the second wife thirteen children, namely, eight sons and five daughters. All the sons had admirable talents for music; but they were not fully cultivated, except in some of the elder ones.

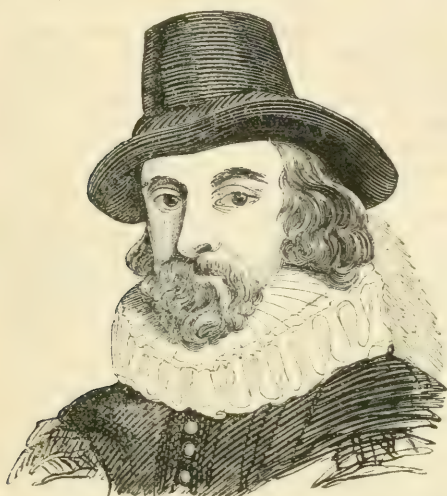
BACKER, JACOB.—This distinguished portrait-painter was born at Harlingen in 1609, but spent the greatest part of his life at Amsterdam. He was remarkable for a great readiness of hand and freedom of pencil. He painted historical subjects with considerable success; the picture of Cimon and Iphigenia is thought to be the best. In designing academy figures his expression was so just, and his outline so correct, that he obtained the prize from all his competitors; and his works are still bought at very high prices in the low countries. In the collection of the elector palatine there is an excellent head of Brouwer, painted by his master; and in the Carmelite's church at Antwerp is preserved a beautiful picture of the Last Judgment, which is well designed and well coloured. He died in 1651.

BACKHUYSEN, LUDOLPH, an eminent painter, who was born at Embden in 1631, and received his earliest instruction from Albert Van Everdingen, but acquired his principal knowledge by frequenting the painting-rooms of different great masters, and observing their various modes of colouring. He had not practised long before he became the object of general admiration; while painting, he would not suffer even his most intimate friends to have access to him. He studied nature attentively in all her forms, in gales, calms, storms, clouds, rocks, skies, lights, and shadows; and he executed every subject with great transparence and beauty. It was a frequent custom with Backhuysen to go to sea in a storm, in order to store his mind with direct copied from nature. He perfectly understood the management of the chiaro-scuro, and by his skill in that part of his art he gave uncommon force and beauty to his objects.

BACON, FRANCIS, baron of Verulam.—This great reformer of philosophy was one of the most remarkable men of whom any age can boast. He was born at London in 1561, and displayed, from his earliest childhood, proofs of a superior mind. In his thirteenth year he entered the university of Cambridge, where he made great progress in all the sciences. He had not completed his sixteenth year when he wrote against the Aristotelian philosophy, which seemed to him more calculated to perpetuate disputes than to enlighten the mind. It was then the custom, in this country, to send abroad, particularly to France, those young men who were destined for public life. Francis Bacon went to Paris in the suite of Sir Amias Paulet, who soon after sent him



to England with an important message. He discharged it to the satisfaction of the queen (Elizabeth), returned to France, and travelled through several provinces of that country, to study its manners and laws. When nineteen years old he wrote a work, entitled, *Of the State of Europe*, in which he gave displayed proofs of the early maturity of his judgment. The death of his father called him back to England, where, in order to be enabled to live suitably to his rank, he devoted himself to jurisprudence, and pursued the study of the law with so much success that he was made counsel extraordinary to the queen before he was twenty-eight years old. His professional labours did not, however, make him lose sight of the idea which he had early conceived of reforming the plan of scholastic studies agreeably to sound philosophy. His place was more honourable than lucrative.



The moral character of Queen Elizabeth was disgraceful to the age in which she lived, but her political management was excellent. She was a lover of peace, and it must have been no common addition to the tranquillity and happiness of our ancestors that they enjoyed both uninterrupted for such a length of years, while Scotland and France, Spain and Holland, were torn with continual divisions, and bleeding by the wounds of foreign and domestic wars. Hers too was the age of heroes, both in arts and arms. Great captains, able statesmen, writers of the highest order arose, under her influence, and from this circumstance Bacon had all the incentives that could kindle his ambition and quicken him in the pursuit of knowledge and fame. As the lord treasurer had married his aunt, we find him frequent in his applications to that minister for some post in the state. Lord Burleigh interested himself so far on his behalf as to procure for him the office of Register to the Star Chamber, worth about 1600*l.* a year: but it was only in reversion, and he did not obtain it till near twenty years afterwards. Neither did he obtain any other important preferment during this reign, though his eloquence and systematical learning had raised him in the opinion of many of the greatest men at court. He was particularly patronized by Robert Devereux, the celebrated and

unfortunate earl of Essex, to whom he attached himself in his younger years, and by whose interest with the queen he flattered himself with the prospect of bettering his fortune. Elizabeth herself bestowed on him several marks of distinction, admitted him often to her presence, and even consulted him on her state affairs, as her ministers sometimes made use of his pen in vindication of her government.

Bacon being chosen a member of parliament, he conducted himself with dignity and independence. He had been chosen member for the county of Middlesex in 1593, and voted with the popular party against the measures of the ministers, though he continued in the service of the crown. But, towards the end of Elizabeth's reign, his parliamentary conduct became more servile. If any thing can excuse him, it is his poverty, which was so great that he was twice arrested for debt. The reign of James I. was more favourable to him. That prince, who was anxious to be considered a patron of letters, conferred upon him, in 1603, the order of knighthood. Having been commissioned to make a solemn representation of the oppressions committed by the royal purveyors in the king's name, he executed the task with so much address as to satisfy both the king and the parliament. The House of Commons voted him the public thanks, and James made him one of the king's counsel, with a pension of 40*l.*, which was soon followed by another of 60*l.* His situation now continually improved: he formed an advantageous marriage; and in 1617 was made lord keeper of the seals, in 1619 lord high chancellor of England and baron of Verulam, and in the following year viscount St. Alban's. He might now have lived in affluence without degrading his character by those acts which have so deeply stained his reputation.

In March 1621 he was impeached by the House of Commons for corruption in his high office, and, in the examination of grievances, the Commons were led to attend particularly to several patents for monopolies, which had excited loud murmurs among the subjects. Bacon and the other officers of state were supposed to have been the agents of Buckingham in obtaining these oppressive instruments. But charges of a more personal nature arose against the chancellor; and the House of Commons, after receiving the complaints of a great number of individuals, reported them to the lords, and accused his lordship of having, in his judicial capacity, received bribes from suitors before the court of chancery. At first he endeavoured to shelter himself from the effects of a minute investigation by mingling vague protestations of his upright intentions with a reluctant confession that, through the weakness of human nature, and the influence of evil example, he might have erred; at the same time he endeavoured to persuade his judges that the deprivation of his office would have a more salutary effect in preventing future delinquency than the infliction of a severer punishment. His judges, however, required him to give in a specific answer to all the charges. He sent a letter to the House, acknowledging himself guilty in almost all the twenty-eight articles, and attempting to palliate his criminality in a few of them. On the 3d of May, six weeks after the investigation commenced, the following sentence was pronounced: "Upon complaint of the commons against the Viscount St. Albans, lord chancellor, this high court hath thereby, and by his own confession, found him guilty of the



crimes and corruptions complained of by the commons, and of sundry other crimes and corruptions of like nature; and therefore this high court having first summoned him to attend, and having his excuse of not attending by reason of infirmity and sickness, which he protested was not feigned, or else he would most willingly have attended, doth nevertheless think fit to proceed to judgment, and therefore this high court doth adjudge that the Lord Viscount St. Albans shall undergo fine and ransom of 40,000*l.*, that he shall be imprisoned in the Tower during the king's pleasure, that he shall for ever be incapable of holding any office or employment in the state or commonwealth, that he shall never sit in parliament, or come within the verge of the court."

Thus fell Bacon, furnishing in his avarice another melancholy example of the proneness of human nature to turn from the plain and obvious road to real happiness. The only extenuation of Bacon's corruption which has ever been attempted is thus pleaded by Addison:—"His principal fault seems to have been the excess of that virtue which covers a multitude of faults. This betrayed him to so great an indulgence towards his servants, who made a corrupt use of it, that it stripped him of all those riches and honours which a long series of merits had heaped upon him." This lame apology, feebly hinted at by the chancellor himself, deserves little notice. His connivance at the extortions of his servants was one of the corruptions charged on him; and his guilt will not be lessened by the supposition that the support of their extravagance led him to all his other acknowledged acts of venality. To say that his unrighteous gains were not avariciously hoarded, but lavished on his unworthy dependents, or that want of economy had plunged him into difficulties, is to insult the moral feelings of mankind; and on the same principles we must excuse the depredations of every marauding chief who shares the spoil with the partakers of his extortions. But the unfortunate fate of Bacon may be attributed in a great measure to an ostentatious love of state and an utter indisposition to superintend his own expenditure. Of his easiness with his domestics, and the rapacious use they made of his favour and neglect, he became sensible when too late. "Sit down, my masters, your rise has been my fall," he exclaimed to them sarcastically, on their rising to salute him, as he passed them one day in the midst of his troubles. He was soon released from the Tower; by degrees the rest of his sentence was mitigated, and he even regained some portion of favour with the king, who consulted him on the best methods of reforming the courts of justice. Other marks of favour and indulgence were also shown him: he received a pension of 1200*l.* per annum, in addition to the grant which he had obtained from the Alienation-office of 600*l.* a-year; and 700*l.* a-year was granted to him from his own estate. Thus he was still enabled to live at a considerable expense, and he gradually resumed his philosophical studies with his usual ardour. In the spring of 1622 he published his "History of Henry VII.," which has met with less favour than his other works, and soon after received a full pardon, removing all his disabilities, in consequence of which he was summoned to the second parliament in the succeeding reign of Charles I.; but his infirmities did not allow him to take his seat.

Bacon pursued his philosophical researches to the last; and in the spring of 1626 was proceeding, in a weakly state of health, on a short journey into the country, to try some experiments in natural philosophy, when he was taken so ill upon the way that he was obliged to stop at the earl of Arundel's house at Highgate, where he expired, after a week's illness, in April, 1626. He was privately buried in the chapel of St. Michael's Church in Old Verulam, where a monument was erected to his memory by his faithful friend and servant in all his troubles, Sir Thomas Meautys. In order to judge of the elevated genius of Bacon, it is necessary to recollect that although the fields of natural knowledge had been cultivated by Roger Bacon, Galileo, Copernicus, and others, he came into the world at a period when Aristotle had obtained supreme authority in the schools, and men, lost in a labyrinth of definitions, distinctions, and disputations, wasted their time in speculations altogether barren and useless. There still therefore wanted a comprehensive mind, which could survey the whole region of science, examine the foundation of systems of philosophy that evidently palsied the natural progress of society, and suggest a more sure and advantageous mode of cultivating knowledge.

Such a commanding genius was Bacon, and such the grand plan which he in a great measure executed in his great work on science, a scheme which has entitled him to the appellation of the "Father of experimental Philosophy." The eternally increasing pile of natural knowledge which philosophers, following his method of experimental investigation, have been enabled to raise, is an imperishable monument to his memory; and it is a singular example of the confidence with which original genius reposes upon futurity that he confidently anticipated the respect and admiration of posterity, as appears by the following passage in his will:—"My name and memory I leave to foreign nations, and to mine own countrymen, after some time be passed over." The great celebrity obtained by Lord Bacon, in this high philosophical department obscures by its very brightness much of the credit which is due to him for his "Moral Essays," and other more popular and miscellaneous productions, which however have all merited and secured a due share of attention.

The moral defects which were interwoven with Bacon's intellectual superiority may be palliated, but certainly can never be excused. Servility, ingratitude, and corruption, are not to be lightly passed over even in a Bacon; and, although certain sources of error may be less odious than others, society is equally injured by the errors themselves. This great man however has, upon the whole, been so great a benefactor to his species as to render it a sort of moral justice on the part of society to follow the example of James I. and to pardon him in consideration of "the profitable employment of his time and great services," provided the boundaries between virtue and vice be unequivocally preserved. Such in fact is the involuntary feeling of most reflective minds on contemplating his history, and human nature would scarcely be improved were the tendency otherwise. Pope quotes the example of Bacon in order to undervalue the possession of superior intellect, which did not prevent the brightest from being at the same time "the meanest of mankind." It would possibly be more to the purpose to illustrate, by so striking an example, the distinction between clearness of perception and

the government of conduct, and to infer that habits and passions require to be regulated by discipline and self-control in the most gifted as well as in the most uninformed of mankind.



The works of Lord Bacon were collected into five volumes, and printed by Bowyer and Strahan, in 1765, and other editions have since appeared. His monument is represented in the above sketch.

**BACON, SIR NICHOLAS**, an eminent English lawyer, who flourished in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. He was born at Chislehurst in Kent in 1510, and was educated at Cambridge, after which he travelled in France. On his return, he studied at Gray's Inn; and, acquiring the favour of Henry VIII., he appointed him attorney of the court of Wards. On the accession of Elizabeth he was knighted, and in 1558 made keeper of the Great Seal and a member of the privy council. He acted with great prudence in this important post, fulfilling the duties which devolved on him with wisdom and propriety, and maintaining the almost uninterrupted favour of the queen for more than twenty years, till the time of his death, which took place after a short illness in February, 1579. Sir Nicholas Bacon left behind him in manuscript several valuable discourses on law and politics, and a commentary on the twelve minor prophets, none of which have been printed.

**BACON, ROGER.**—This eminent philosopher, whose works contain some of the earliest day-dreams of science, nearly resembled his great namesake the chancellor. He was born in 1214, near Ilchester in the county of Somerset. His family is said to have been honourable; but he was ennobled by himself, and required not the reputation of ancestry. Of his juvenile years no account has been preserved, till he is found at Oxford, where youth were then ad-

mitted at a very early age. Here, having successfully applied himself to grammar and logic, his uncommon capacity attracted the attention of some illustrious scholars; and he was especially patronized by Robert Grotest, the eminently learned bishop of Lincoln.

Thus encouraged, after acquiring what instruction Oxford could supply, Bacon repaired to the university of Paris, then the residence of the most accomplished scholars, and the resort of students from all parts of Europe, for the benefit of their instructions. These opportunities Bacon so rapidly improved that he was regarded as alike doing honour to his own country and to that university. His attention was not confined to any particular department of learning, but extended to every object on which he could acquire valuable information.

Thus accomplished at the age of twenty-six, after he had taken the degree of doctor, Bacon returned to his own country, and, having assumed the habit of the Franciscan order, he settled at Oxford 1240. There he again found kind and munificent patrons, men capable of appreciating the importance of his pursuits and eager to encourage them. By their assistance he proceeded in his scientific researches, disposed to build philosophy upon the solid bases of facts and experiments, thus anticipating that era of science introduced by Lord Bacon to a much later age. Referring to this patronage, he says that he expended within the compass of twenty years, in collecting curious authors, making various experiments, and in the construction of instruments, no less than 2000*l.*, a very considerable sum in the thirteenth century.

In that century, however, a man so enlightened, amidst the thick darkness of his age, could by no means expect universal patronage. He was presently assailed by envy and detraction. The clergy, in particular, wished to disguise their own indolence and stupidity, by aspersing his character, and attributing his operations to superhuman power. It is particularly related that the extraordinary effects he produced by his experiments, while residing at Brazen Nose Hall, Oxford, were confidently ascribed to the operation of evil spirits; and he is said to have been made so uneasy by his enemies in the university as to have sought a retirement which to this day is called Friar Bacon's study. It should, however, be added that the clergy had another cause of quarrel with Bacon besides the industrious occupation of his talents. He appears to have been an ecclesiastical reformer, disposed to follow the example of his friend and patron Grotest, who had not scrupled to find antichrist among popes, and to lecture one of the holy fathers on the necessity of reformation.

Yet one pope, at this period, is worthily distinguished, and seems to have been the *Ganganelli* of an earlier age. This was Clement IV., who, in 1266, requested from Bacon the present of all his works. These he now brought into order, and sent them to the pope by a favourite disciple, John of Paris, who was the fittest person to explain the design of his master. This collection of papers, called *Opus Majus*, after remaining in manuscript nearly five centuries, appeared in 1733, from the press of Bowyer, and by the editorial care of the learned physician Dr. S. Jebb. "This work," says Dr. Kippis, "contains a complete body of science for that age. The



author builds on the most rational principles, points out extremely well the hindrances of knowledge, shows that the perfection of wisdom is to be found in the scriptures, and proves that philosophy is not inconsistent with divinity. He makes admirable remarks on the usefulness of the languages, on mathematics, perspective, astronomy, chemistry, and other subjects, and gives us the result of his own enquiries on those different branches of study. He evinces, at large, the importance and necessity of proceeding by experiments, in order to come at truth, and, in short, exhibits a detail of his numerous improvements and curious discoveries."

Such was the work communicated to this singularly liberal-minded pope. Yet, as the art of printing had not then given its mighty aid to the progress of scientific discovery, the knowledge of Bacon's attainments could reach only a very few, even among the small number prepared to enter on such enquiries. There were no doubt many more whose ignorance would be alarmed, and their bigotry excited, by the rumours of his ill-understood, though most laudable, occupations. Clement IV. was now dead, and the enemies of Bacon too easily procured his condemnation to imprisonment from Jerome de Esculo, the general of his order, who, to prevent his appeal to Rome, immediately procured from the holy see a confirmation of the sentence. This imprisonment commenced in 1278. Bacon was confined to his monastery, debarred conversation, and enjoined abstinence. His books, however, appear not to have been withheld from him; and thus, as the poet says of Raleigh, he would "with his prison hours have enriched the world." "Ill treated as he was by his contemporaries," as it has been well expressed, "he was animated by a laudable thirst of fame, and fired with an ardent concern for the welfare of mankind. He laboured for future ages, and consigned his reputation and character to posterity, which has, though late, done justice to his merit."

Bacon had suffered this irksome restraint for ten years when his persecutor, Jerome de Esculo, was raised to the papacy, and assumed the name of Nicholas IV. As this pope, though prejudiced by the reports of Bacon's enemies, was a man of virtue and science, our philosopher hoped to conciliate his clemency. For this purpose, and to show the innocence and utility of his calumniated occupations, he addressed to the pope a very learned and curious treatise on the means of avoiding the infirmities of old age. It may be worthy of remark that this treatise was printed at Oxford in 1590, and that a translation was published in 1683 by Dr. Richard Browne, under the following title, "The Cure of Old Age, and Preservation of Youth, showing how to cure and keep off the Accidents of Old Age, and how to preserve the Youth, Strength, and Beauty of the Body and the Senses, and all the Faculties of both Body and Mind; by that great Mathematician and Physician, Roger Bacon, a Franciscan Friar." Such were the first tributes of justice and gratitude paid by the press of England to our illustrious countryman.

It does not appear that Nicholas IV. was moved to regret or to repair the injuries he had inflicted on Bacon, who had remained a prisoner till released by the interposition of some noblemen who had power with the church, but whose names, it is to be regret-

ted, have not been preserved. Returning to Oxford under these more favourable circumstances, he resumed his ever-favourite pursuits. The last work attributed to his pen by his early biographers, Bale and Pitts, they have entitled "*Compendium Studii Theologici*," an occupation to which the now-contemplated close of life would attract such a man, who no doubt felt what his illustrious namesake and remote successor so well expressed, that "sacred and inspired divinity" is "the sabbath and port of all men's labours and peregrinations."

Roger Bacon died in the college of his order, June 11, 1292, at the age of seventy-eight, and was buried in the church of the Franciscans. The monks who had persecuted him in life bestowed on his memory, perhaps with no complimentary design, the name of *Doctor Mirabilis*. We shall probably take an opportunity of showing, from the labours of his various contemporaries, how well he merited this title in its worthiest application, who had given his nights and days to scientific research, not for the sake of commanding the wonder of ignorance, but of contributing to excite and facilitate the pursuit of knowledge.—See *Partington's Scientific Gazette*.

BACON, JOHN, a sculptor of great eminence. He was born in 1740, and, after receiving the rudiments of a good education, was apprenticed to a Mr. Crispe, proprietor of a porcelain manufactory at Lambeth, where, observing the models furnished by various artists, he imbibed a strong predilection for the art in which he afterwards rose to so high a rank, and even before the expiration of his apprenticeship conceived the idea of constructing statues in the artificial compost which has since been brought to such perfection in the Lambeth manufactory. It was not however till he had attained his twenty-third year that he commenced his operations upon marble, and soon after invented the machine now in general use in the profession, for "getting out the points" of the model upon the stone.

In 1769, having previously received several honorary distinctions from the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, he obtained the first gold medal given by the Royal Academy, of which he became an associate in 1770. A handsome compliment paid him by George III. has been preserved. The artist was employed in executing a bust of that monarch for Christ Church, Oxford, when the king enquired if he had ever been out of the kingdom, and being answered in the negative, replied, "I am not sorry to hear it; you will do it the greater credit." Besides this bust, he executed another of the same monarch for the university of Gottingen. Among the most celebrated of the productions of his chisel, which are very numerous, are the monuments of Lord Chatham in Westminster Abbey and Guildhall, another to Mrs. Draper in the cathedral at Bristol, the statues of Howard the philanthropist, and Johnson the lexicographer, in St. Paul's cathedral, and that of Sir William Blackstone at All Souls' College, Oxford. He died August 7, 1799.

BADCOCK, SAMUEL, a distinguished English divine, who was born at South Moulton, in 1747. He received his education at the dissenting academy of St. Mary, Ottery, in the same county, and at the age of nineteen became pastor of a small dissenting congregation at Winborne in Dorsetshire. He was subsequently invited to become minister of a larger

independent congregation at Barnstaple, which he quitted on some charge against his character, which however he appears to have satisfactorily refuted. It is believed that some suspected leaning to the opinions of Dr. Priestley increased the coolness between himself and flock, which ultimately led to his removal to South Moulton, where he presided over a small congregation and dedicated his time to miscellaneous literature. In 1787 Mr. Badcock joined the established church. His intimacy with Dr. Ross, bishop of Exeter, is supposed to have led to this resolution; and such was the respect paid to him as a man of talents and learning that he was ordained deacon one week and minister the next. He afterwards became assistant preacher at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, where he died May 1788.

**BAGE, ROBERT.**—An English novelist of considerable talents. He was born at Derby in 1728. While at school he made great progress in such learning as was within his reach, and, after remaining there the usual time, he was employed in his father's business. When he became settled in the business of paper-making, he continued to cultivate his mind, by adding a knowledge of the French and Italian languages, and even the more abstruse branches of mathematics. His conversation and correspondence sparkled with all the wit and information which are expected in men of a literary turn, but he was considerably advanced in life before he tried his powers in any regular composition.

A loss sustained in business is said to have first induced Mr. Bage to take up the pen, not as a source of emolument, but to divert his mind from painful reflections. With this view he wrote, and in 1781 published, "Mount Henneth," a novel which became justly popular, from the vivacity of its style and dialogue, and the many well-drawn characters and apposite reflections on questions of morality and humanity. This was followed by other productions of the same kind, "Barham Downs," the "Fair Syrian," and "James Wallace," which were all favourably received by the public, as far superior to the common run of novels. In private life, Mr. Hutton of Birmingham has celebrated him as a man of most amiable and benevolent character; but we are sorry that he adds that "he laid no stress upon revelation," and was "barely a Christian."—There are, indeed, passages in his works which justify this character, and leave us much to regret in the history of a man of such excellent talents and personal worth in other respects. Sir Walter Scott, speaking of this writer, says that "the general object of Bage's composition is rather to exhibit character than to compose a narrative, rather to extend and infuse his own political and philosophical opinions, in which a man of his character was no doubt sincere, than merely to amuse the reader with the wonders or melt him with the sorrows of a fictitious tale. In this respect he resembled Voltaire and Diderot, who made their most formidable assaults on the system of religion and politics which they assailed, by embodying their objections in popular narratives." Mr. Bage died Sept. 1, 1801, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, at Tamworth.

**BAGFORD, JOHN,** a very industrious antiquary and collector of old English books. He had been in his younger days a shoemaker, and afterwards became a bookseller. He was several times in Holland, where he procured many valuable old books, prints, &c., some of which he sold to the late earl of

Oxford, who, after his death, purchased all his collections, papers, &c., for his library. In 1707 were published, in the Philosophical Transactions, his proposals for a General History of Printing. He died at Islington, in 1716, aged sixty-five, and was buried in the cemetery belonging to the Charter-House. In 1728 a print was engraved of him, from a painting of Mr. Howard, by George Vertue. A number of his letters to Humphrey Wanley may be seen in the British Museum; and a large part of his collections is in the Public Library at Cambridge.

**BAGLIONE, GIOVANNI,** a Roman painter of the seventeenth century, who distinguished himself by his works in fresco. He was employed at the age of fifteen in ornamenting the Vatican library; and he afterwards executed a vast number of paintings, principally of sacred subjects, on the walls and ceilings of the Roman churches. Baglione died December 28, 1644.

**BAGLIVI, GEORGE,** an eminent physician and physiologist, born at Ragusa about 1668, and educated at Naples and Padua. He became professor of anatomy at Rome, where he died in 1707. He distinguished himself in the early part of the last century as the author of a new medical theory, which for a time attracted much attention. Baglivi rejected what has been termed the humoral pathology, or the doctrine which ascribes diseases exclusively to changes taking place in the blood and other fluids of animal bodies, instead of which he placed the cause of disease in the altered tone of the solids. He supposed the existence of an alternate motion of the heart and the *dura mater*, by which the whole animal machine was actuated, a theory founded on the discoveries of Pacchioni.

**BAILEY, NATHAN,** an English lexicographer and classical scholar, who kept a school at Stepney, where he died June 27, 1742. He published "Dictionary Domesticum, or a Household Dictionary," "The Antiquities of London and Westminster," and several school books: but his principal work was an "Etymological English Dictionary," which first appeared in octavo, and was gradually enlarged to a folio volume. It has been often reprinted, but is chiefly deserving of notice as having been the basis of Dr. Johnson's more celebrated compilation.

**BAILLIE, MATTHEW,** a distinguished physician and anatomist. He was the son of the Rev. James Baillie, professor of divinity at Glasgow, and nephew of Dr. William Hunter. He was for some years a pupil of Dr. Hunter, by whose influence he was appointed physician to St. George's Hospital, and after his uncle's death became lecturer on anatomy in the same establishment, in conjunction with Mr. Cruickshank. He was for many years one of his Majesty's physicians in ordinary, and long ranked high among his medical contemporaries. Dr. Baillie published in 1793 a valuable work entitled "The Morbid Anatomy of the most Important Parts of the Human Body," which was subsequently enlarged and improved. This was followed by "A Series of Engravings, tending to Illustrate Morbid Anatomy." He also published several valuable papers in the Philosophical Transactions. He died in 1823, in the sixty-third year of his age. Dr. Baillie left his valuable museum to the college of Physicians, with a considerable sum of money to be expended in keeping them in order.

**BAILLIE, ROBERT,** a Scotch divine of considerable eminence as a controversial writer. He was



born at Glasgow in 1599, and was educated in the university of his native city, where, having taken his degrees in arts, he turned his thoughts to the study of divinity; and, receiving holy orders from archbishop Law, he was chosen "regent of philosophy" at Glasgow. While he was in this station he had, for some years, the care of the education of Lord Montgomery, who at length took him to Kilwinning, to which church he was presented by the earl of Eglintoun. Here he lived in the strictest friendship with that noble family, as he did also with his ordinary the archbishop of Glasgow, with whom he kept up an epistolary correspondence. In 1633 he declined, from modesty, the offer of a church in Edinburgh. Being requested in 1637, by his friend the archbishop, to preach a sermon before the assembly at Edinburgh, in recommendation of the canon and service-book, he refused to do it, but wrote an explanatory letter to the archbishop, assigning the reasons of his refusal.

In 1638 Mr. Baillie was chosen by the presbytery of Irvine a member of the celebrated assembly at Glasgow, which was a prelude to the civil war. Though Mr. Baillie is said to have acted in this assembly with great moderation, it is evident that he was by no means deficient in his zeal against prelacy and Arminianism. In 1640 he was sent by the covenanting lords to London, to draw up an accusation against Archbishop Laud, for his obtrusions on the church of Scotland. While he was in England he wrote the presbytery a regular account of public affairs, with a journal of the trial of the earl of Strafford. Not long after, on his return, he was appointed joint professor of divinity with Mr. Dickson, in the university of Glasgow, and shortly after he received invitations from the other three universities, all of which he refused. He continued in his professorship till the Restoration; but his discharge of the duties of it was interrupted for a considerable time by his residence in England: for, in 1643, he was chosen one of the commissioners of the church of Scotland to the assembly of divines at Westminster.

After a long and active life, he was appointed to a high office in the university of his native city, where he died 1662.

**BAILLY, JEAN SYLVAIN**, born at Paris, 1736. Though designed by his father, keeper of the royal gallery of pictures, for a painter, he followed his natural inclination for literature. His first attempts were in poetry; but, on becoming acquainted with Lacaille, he was induced by his instructions and example to devote himself to astronomy. After the death of Lacaille, in 1763, he entered the academy, and published the calculation of a great many of Lacaille's observations on the stars of the zodiac. He undertook also, at this time, a great work on the satellites of Jupiter, the theory of which the academy had made a prize question. His "*Essai sur la Théorie des Satellites de Jupiter, avec des Tables de leurs Mouvements*," appeared in 1766. In 1771 he published a treatise on the light reflected by the satellites of Jupiter, which he undertook to measure by an ingenious process. Amidst these laborious occupations, he never lost his love of literature. His eulogiums on Pierre Corneille, Leibnitz, and others, were so favourably received that he resolved to select a scientific subject, susceptible of the ornaments of style, which might establish his literary fame. He

chose the History of Astronomy, which he published from 1775 to 1787, in five volumes quarto. It met with general approbation, which was increased by the discussions that succeeded, between the author and Voltaire, which led Bailly to publish his "*Lettres sur l'Origine des Sciences, et sur l'Atlantide de Platon*." In 1784 the French academy elected him a member, in the place of Tressan, and, in 1785 he was admitted into the academy of inscriptions. The government also made him a member of the committee for examining the character and influence of animal magnetism, discovered by Mesmer. M. Bailly delivered a double report on this subject, one for the public, to give it a just view of the doctrine, the other for the king alone, on the real causes of magnetism, and its moral influence. The latter was not published till a later period.

Bailly was now enjoying the general esteem due to merit and to virtue, when the revolution tore him from his peaceful pursuits. Paris chose him, May 12, 1789, first deputy of the *tiers-etat*; in the assembly itself he was made first president. He retained this place after the commons had declared themselves a national assembly; and, when the king forbade them to assemble, he presided, in June 1789, in the session of the tennis-court, when all the deputies swore never to separate till they had given France a new constitution. Being chosen mayor of Paris, in the same year, he discharged the duties of his office with his usual integrity and disinterestedness; but these virtues were not sufficient to restrain a furious populace, exposed by turns to the influence of opposite parties. The palliatory measures employed by Bailly to preserve the appearance of tranquillity might delay the eruption, but could not suppress it; perhaps matters had arrived at such a point that even the most vigorous resistance would have been ineffectual. Once only, and on the most just occasion, he had recourse to rigorous measures. This was after the return of the king from Varennes. The violent revolutionists wished to seize this opportunity for his deposition, and a great number of them assembled, July 17, 1791, in the Champ-de-Mars, in order to sign, upon the altar of their country, a petition to this effect. Bailly, accompanied by the national guards, commanded the rebels to disperse, and, on their refusal, dispersed them by force. The national assembly approved of his conduct; nevertheless he resigned his place, September 1791, and Petion became his successor. Bailly now retired entirely from public affairs to the country in the vicinity of Nantes.

When the increasing troubles left him no security even here, his friend Laplace offered him a shelter in his own house at Melun. In the mean time, by the events of May 1793, circumstances were changed, and a division of the revolutionary army entered Melun. Laplace informed him of this danger; but, unfortunately, he did not regard the warning, but persisted in going to Melun. As soon as he entered this place, he was known. He was sent to Paris, where, November 11, 1793, he was condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal, and executed on the twelfth, with circumstances of great cruelty. Clothed in the red shirt, Bailly was placed in a cart, with his hands tied behind his back, and driven to the fatal guillotine, erected on the spot where he had ordered the military to fire upon the people. The very populace who had once adored him, and whose

best interests he had so near his heart, threw mud upon him as he passed, and followed him with the most insulting reproaches; whilst the cold rain incessantly poured on the gray head of the venerable sage. Having reached the fatal spot, it became necessary to remove the guillotine to firmer ground. During this operation, Bailly was taken from the cart, and compelled to walk round the field, to glut the insatiable cruelty of the mob. The brutal multitude spat upon him as he passed, and, notwithstanding the exertions of the executioners, some of them even struck him upon the face. When the apparatus of death was again prepared, Bailly, drenched with rain, and shivering with cold, ascended the platform. "You tremble, Bailly," cried one of the mob in a tone of insult. "I tremble, it is true," replied the philosopher, "but it is from cold, not fear."

Bailly died with the utmost composure. His crimes were his conduct on the Champ-de-Mars, and the boldness with which he had declared the accusations brought against the queen false and calumnious. His posthumous works are, "Essai sur l'Origine des Fables, et des Religions Anciennes," and his "Journal" published during the early period of the revolution.

BAINBRIDGE, JOHN, an eminent physician and astronomer, who was born at Ashby de la Zouch, in 1582. He was educated at the public school of that town; and from thence went to Emanuel College in Cambridge, under the tuition of Dr. Joseph Hall, afterwards bishop of Norwich. When he had taken his degrees of bachelor and master of arts, he went back to Leicestershire, where he directed a grammar-school for some years, and at the same time practised physic. He employed his leisure hours in the mathematics, especially astronomy, which had been his favourite study from his earliest years. By the advice of his friends, who thought his talents too great for a country life, he removed to London, where he was admitted a fellow of the college of physicians. His description of the comet which appeared in 1618 raised his character as an astronomer. It was this circumstance that procured him the friendship of Sir Henry Savile, who, in 1619, appointed him his first professor of astronomy at Oxford. Upon this he removed to that university and was entered a master commoner of Merton College, and was shortly after appointed junior reader of Linacrer's lecture in 1631, and superior reader in 1635. Some time before his death he removed to a house opposite Merton College, where he died in 1643. His body was conveyed to the public schools, where an oration was pronounced in his praise by the university orator; and was carried from thence to Merton College Church, where it was deposited near the altar. He left several works, but many of them have never been published.

BAIUS, or DE BAY, MICHAEL.—This distinguished ecclesiastic was born in 1513 at Melun, in Hainault, and educated at Louvain, at which university he was afterwards elected professor of theology. He is justly considered one of the greatest theologians of the Catholic church in the sixteenth century. He founded systematic theology directly upon the Bible and the Christian fathers, leaving the scholastic method. He had read the writings of St. Augustine, and adopted the views of that father, whose doctrines of the entire incapacity of the human will for good, and the insufficiency of good works, he first maintained against the

less rigid notions of the Jesuits. The doctrines that the human will, when left to itself, could only sin; that even the mother of Jesus was not free from hereditary and actual sin, that every action which did not proceed from pure love to God was sinful, and that no penance was effectual for the justification of the sinner, but every thing was to be attributed solely to the grace of God, through Christ, caused him to be persecuted as a heretic by the old Scotists, and in particular by the Jesuits, who, notwithstanding the favour in which he stood at the Spanish court, at length succeeded in obtaining a papal bull, in 1567, condemning these doctrines, with others falsely imputed to him. Baius submitted; yet the persecutions against him still continued, as did also his defence of the opinions of Augustine in his lectures; but, as the theological faculty at Louvain was entirely in his favour, he not only remained in the quiet possession of his dignities, but was also appointed dean of St. Peter's in 1575, and in 1578 chancellor of the university; nay, the king of Spain conferred upon him the office of inquisitor-general of the Netherlands, where he died in 1589.

BAKER, HENRY, an ingenious and diligent naturalist, who was born in Fleet Street, at the close of the seventeenth century. He was brought up under an eminent publisher, who preceded the elder Dodsley in the business of a bookseller, in which however he appears not to have engaged at all after his apprenticeship, or, if he did, it was soon relinquished by him. Mr. Baker being of a philosophical turn of mind, and having carefully attended to the methods which might be practicable and useful in the cure of stammering, and especially in teaching deaf and dumb persons to speak, he made this his study and employment. In the prosecution of so valuable and difficult an undertaking, he was very successful. He married Sophia, youngest daughter of the well-known Daniel Defoe, by whom he had two sons. On the 29th of January, 1740, Mr. Baker was elected a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries; and, on the 12th of March following, the same honour was conferred on him by the Royal Society. In 1744 Sir Godfrey Copley's gold medal was bestowed upon him, for having, by his microscopical experiments on the crystallization and configuration of saline particles, produced the most extraordinary discovery during that year. Having led a very useful and honourable life, he died at his apartments in the Strand on the 25th of November, 1774, being then about seventy years of age. His wife had been dead some time before; and he only left one grandson, William Baker, who was born February 17, 1763, and to whom, on his arriving at the age of twenty-one, he bequeathed the bulk of his fortune. He was buried, as he desired, in an unexpensive manner in the church-yard of St. Mary-le-strand, within which church, on the south wall, he ordered a small tablet to be erected to his memory. The Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, is under singular obligations to this naturalist. At its first institution he officiated for some time *gratis* as secretary. He was many years chairman of the committee of accounts; and he took an active part in the general deliberations of the Society. He drew up a short account of the origin of this society, which was read before the Society of Antiquaries. He was the author of "The Universe," a poem, which has



been several times reprinted. His account of the water polype, which was originally published in the "Philosophical Transactions," was afterwards enlarged into a separate treatise, and has gone through several editions. But his principal publications are, "The Microscope Made Easy," and "Employment for the Microscope." The first of these, which was originally published in 1742 or 1743, has gone through several editions.

BAKER, SIR RICHARD, well known as the author of the "Chronicle of the Kings of England." He was born at Sissinghurst in Kent, about 1568. In 1584 he was entered a commoner at Hart Hall in Oxford, where he remained three years, which he spent chiefly in the study of logic and philosophy. From thence he removed to one of the inns of court in London, and afterwards travelled abroad, in order to complete his education. In 1594 he was created master of arts at Oxford, and in May, 1603, received the honour of knighthood from James I., at Theobalds.

In 1620 he was appointed high-sheriff of Oxfordshire, having the manor of Middle-Aston and other estates in that county. He married a daughter of Sir George Manwaring of Ightfield in Shropshire, knight, and, having become surety for some of that family's debts, was reduced to poverty, and thrown into the Fleet prison, where he died February 18, 1644-5, and was buried in St. Bride's Church, Fleet Street. "He was a person tall and comely," says Mr. Wood, "of a good disposition and admirable discourse, religious, and well-read in various faculties, especially in divinity and history, as appears from the books he composed."

BAKER, THOMAS, an eminent mathematician, who was born at Ilton in Somersetshire about the year 1625, and entered at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, in 1640, after which he became vicar of Bishop's Nymmet, in Devonshire, where he wrote "The Geometrical Key, or the Gate of Equations Unlocked," by which he gained a considerable reputation. A short time before his death, the members of the royal society sent him some mathematical queries, to which he returned so satisfactory an answer that they presented him a medal with an inscription in praise of his talents. He died at Bishop's Nymmet on the 5th of June 1690.

BAKER, THOMAS, a learned antiquary, born at Crook in 1656. He was educated at the free school at Durham, and afterwards removed to St John's College, Cambridge. Mr. Baker was ordained deacon by Bishop Compton in 1685; and Dr. Watson, tutor of the college, who was nominated, but not yet consecrated, bishop of St. David's, offered to take him for his chaplain, which he declined, probably on the prospect of a like offer from Lord Crew, bishop of Durham, which he soon after accepted. His lordship collated him to the rectory of Long Newton in his diocese, and the same county, June 1687.

Mr. Baker resigned Long Newton August 1, 1690, refusing to take the oaths, and retired to his fellowship at St John's, in which he was protected till January 20, 1716-17, when, with one-and-twenty others, he was dispossessed of it. After the passing the Registering Act, in 1723, he was desired to register his annuity of forty pounds, which the last act required before it was amended and explained. Though this annuity, left him by his father for his fortune, with twenty pounds *per annum* out of his collieries by his elder brother, was now his whole subsistence, he could not be prevailed on to secure himself against

the act. He retained a lively resentment of his deprivations; and wrote himself in all his books, as well as in those which he gave to the college library, *socius ejectus*, and in some *ejectus rector*. He continued to reside in the college as commoner master till his death, which happened July 2, 1740, of a paralytic stroke.

BALDINUCCI, PHILIP, a distinguished Florentine, celebrated for his works on the fine arts. He wrote the life of Bernini, at the request of Christina, the ex-queen of Sweden, which work was published in 1682. He afterwards undertook a general history of the professors of the arts of design, from Cimabue to his own time, in six volumes, three of which were published during his life and the remainder by his son. This valuable work has been repeatedly reprinted. Baldinucci also wrote a "Vocabulary of Design," and "The Origin and Progress of the Art of Engraving on Copper." He died in 1696.

BALDOCK, RALPH DE, an eminent bishop of London, who lived in the reigns of Edward I. and II. He was educated at Merton College, in Oxford, became dean of St. Paul's, was afterwards promoted to the see of London, and at last was made lord high chancellor of England. He had a very amiable character both for morals and learning; and wrote "Historia Anglica," or a history of the British affairs down to his own time, and "A Collection of the Statutes and Constitutions of the church of St. Paul." Bishop Baldock died at Stepney, in July 1313.

BALDWIN, archbishop of Canterbury, was born of obscure parents at Exeter, where, in the early part of his life, he taught in a grammar-school, after which he took orders, and was made archdeacon of Exeter; but he resigned that dignity and became a Cistercian monk in the monastery of Ford, in Devonshire, of which in a few years he was made abbot. In the year 1180 he was consecrated bishop of Worcester. In 1184 he was promoted to the see of Canterbury by Pope Lucius III., and, by his successor Urban III., was appointed legate for that diocese. He laid the foundation of a church and monastery in honour of Thomas à Becket, at Hackington, near Canterbury, for secular priests; but, being opposed by the monks of Canterbury and the pope, was obliged to desist. In 1190 he crowned King Richard I. at Westminster, and soon after followed that prince to the holy land, where he died at the siege of Ptolemais. Giraldus Cambrensis, who accompanied him in this expedition, says, he possessed a mild disposition, and was strictly moral in his conduct. He wrote various tracts on religious subjects, which were collected and published by Bertrand Tissier, in 1662.

BALDWIN.—There have been several monarchs bearing this name, but we can only notice two of the most distinguished of these princes. Baldwin, emperor of Constantinople, was memorable not only on account of his talents, but as having been the founder of the short-lived dynasty of Latin sovereigns of the Eastern empire. He was born in 1172, and was hereditary count of Flanders and Hainault. Having joined in the fourth crusade, he distinguished himself by his courage in several actions which ensued; and when Constantinople, in 1201, was taken by the French and Venetians, Baldwin was unanimously elected emperor of the East. His new sub-



jects, however, revolted against him. They were excited by Joannices, king of Bulgaria, whom he had offended by rejecting his proffered alliance. The insurgents seized Adrianople, in besieging which city Baldwin was taken prisoner by the king of Bulgaria, and probably soon after put to death with circumstances of great cruelty in 1205. The uncertainty of his fate gave rise to a remarkable deception. Twenty years after his disappearance, a hermit exhibited himself in Flanders, professing to be the long-lost prince, and was at first gladly received as such by his former subjects. He was, however, taken to the French court, where he was completely detected, and perished as an impostor.

BALDWIN, king of Jerusalem, reigned from 1143 to 1162, and he may be considered as a model of that chivalry which sprung into existence at the time of the crusades, from the sentiments of honour, justice, devotion, and love. The crusaders had established counts of Tripoli and Edessa, and princes of Antioch. The feudal dominions of the Christians extended as far as Tarsus and Cilicia; but the vassals of Baldwin were always in rebellion against him, or engaged in conflicts with each other. Against them and the new hosts of crusaders, against the knights of St. Mary, the Templars, and the Hospitallers, the Saracen heroes, Saladin, Noureddin, Zenghi, and Seifeddin, fought with equal fanaticism and equal dissensions among themselves, but with better fortune. In the army of Baldwin were sometimes seen Saracens valiantly fighting under the banner of the cross. His unhappy reign was the last struggle to establish the Christian chivalry, the tournaments and the knightly orders in the East. With it fell the feudal constitution in that quarter of the world, both civil and ecclesiastical. This monarch died not long before the total ruin of his kingdom; and when his great adversary, Noureddin, was advised to attack the dominions of the deceased during his funeral, he answered, "Let us respect their affliction: it is just; for they have lost a king such as is rarely to be found."

BALE, JOHN, a celebrated bishop of Ossory, in Ireland, who was born at Cove, near Dunwich, in Suffolk, in the year 1495. At twelve years of age he was entered in the monastery of Carmelites at Norwich, and was educated as a catholic, but was converted to the protestant religion by Thomas Lord Wentworth. On the death of Lord Cromwell, favourite of Henry VIII., who protected him from the persecutions of the catholic clergy, he was obliged to retire into the Low Countries, where he continued eight years. Soon after the accession of Edward VI. he was recalled; and, being first presented to the living of Bishop's Stocke in Hampshire, in 1552, he was nominated to the see of Ossory. During his residence in Ireland he was anxiously engaged in spreading the protestant doctrines, but to very little purpose, and frequently at the hazard of his life. Once, in particular, they would have murdered five of his domestics, if assistance had not promptly been obtained. On the accession of Queen Mary, the tide of opposition became so powerful that, to avoid assassination, he embarked for Holland, but was very unfortunate in his escape. First he was taken by a Dutch man-of-war, and robbed by the captain of all his property. Then, being forced by stress of weather into St. Ives in Cornwall, he was confined on suspicion of treason. Being, however, released after

a few days' confinement, the ship anchored in Dover Road, where he was again seized on a false accusation. From Holland he travelled to Basle in Switzerland, where he continued till Queen Elizabeth ascended the throne. After his return to England he was, in 1560, made prebendary of Canterbury, where he died in November, 1563, in the 68th year of his age. He was so severe a writer against the church of Rome that his books are particularly prohibited in the expurgatory index, published at Madrid.

BALEN, HENDRICK VAN, and JACOB VAN, father and son, historical painters, the former born 1560, the latter in 1611, both at Antwerp. Pictures by each are still extant, and considered valuable.

BALES, PETER, a schoolmaster, who lived in the sixteenth century, celebrated for his skill in penmanship. Holingshed in his chronicle mentions the wonderful skill of Peter Bales in what may be termed *micography*; and Evelyn more particularly states that he wrote the Lord's prayer, creed, decalogue, two short Latin prayers, his own name, motto, day of the month, year of our Lord, and of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, to whom he presented it at Hampton Court, all within the circle of a silver penny, encased in a ring and border of gold, and covered with a crystal, so accurately done as to be plainly legible, to the great admiration of her majesty, the whole privy-council, and several ambassadors then at court. He was very dexterous in imitating the hand-writing of others, on which account he was employed by Sir Francis Walsingham, the queen's secretary of state; but, by involving himself in the conspiracy of the earl of Essex, he suffered imprisonment. He died about 1610. From a book which he published in 1590, entitled the "Writing Schoolmaster in three Parts; the first teaching Swift Writing, the second True Writing, the third Fair Writing," it appears that he was acquainted with stenography. If we wish to form a just idea of the merits of his calligraphy, we must take into account the low state of penmanship at that time. All the manuscripts of that period extant are either miserably written or have the appearance of drawings rather than writings.

BALESTRA, ANTONIO, an excellent historical painter, born at Verona in 1666. At twenty-one years of age he went to Venice, where he entered himself in the school of Antonio Bellucci, and continued for three years under his direction; he afterwards visited Bologna and Rome, and at the latter place became the disciple of Carlo Maratti. Under the tuition of so eminent a master he made a very great proficiency, and exerted himself for some hours of each day in designing after the antique, especially from Raphael, Correggio, Caracci, and other admired painters, which so effectually confirmed his taste and freedom of hand that he obtained the prize of merit in the academy of St. Luke in the year 1694, when he was only twenty-eight years of age. From that time his reputation was established, and he received sufficient encouragement, being engaged to work for most of the churches and in the palaces of the nobility, and his paintings were admired in every part of Europe. His style is sweet and agreeable, not unlike that of Maratti; and the judicious observe in the works of Balestra a certain mixture of the several manners of Raphael, Correggio, and Caracci. He died in 1740. In the church of Santa



Maria Mater Domini at Venice there is one of the most celebrated performances of Balestra, representing the nativity of our Saviour.

**BALEY, WALTER**, a very eminent physician, the son of Henry Baley of Warnwell in Dorsetshire, was born at Potsham in the same county, and educated at Winchester School. He was afterwards sent to Oxford; and, having spent two years there, was admitted perpetual fellow of New College in the year 1550. Having taken his degrees in arts, he practised physic, and 1558 was appointed proctor of the university. About this time he was made a prebend of Wells, which he resigned in 1579. In the year 1561 he was appointed queen's professor of physic, and afterwards became one of her majesty's physicians in ordinary. He was thought skilful in his profession, and had considerable practice. He died in 1592, aged sixty-three; and was buried in the inner chapel of New College.

**BALGUY, JOHN**, an English divine, who was born at Sheffield in 1686. He studied at Cambridge, and afterwards obtained a small living in Lincolnshire. In 1718 he engaged in what was termed the Bangorian controversy, occasioned by a sermon preached by Hoadley, then bishop of Bangor, on the text, "My kingdom is not of this world." Balguy became the champion of liberal principles, and of the bishop, in whose defence he published three pamphlets, and who in 1727 rewarded his services with valuable church preferment.

Mr. Balguy may justly be classed among the divines and writers who rank with Clarke and Hoadley, in maintaining what they term the cause of rational religion and Christian liberty. His tracts are allowed to be masterly in their kind, by those who may not entirely agree with the philosophical principles advanced in them; and his sermons have long been held in esteem, as some of the best in the English language. He was remarkable for his moderation to dissenters of every denomination, not excepting even catholics, though no man had a greater abhorrence of popery. Among the presbyterians and quakers he had a number of friends, whom he loved and valued, and with several of them he kept up a correspondence of letters as well as visits. Among other dissenters of celebrity, he was acquainted with Lord Barrington, and Philips Glover, Esq., of Lincolnshire, author of an "Enquiry concerning Virtue and Happiness," published after his decease in 1751. With the last gentleman Mr. Balguy carried on a philosophical correspondence. Having always had a weak constitution, his want of health induced him in the decline of life to withdraw almost entirely from society, excepting what he found at Harrogate, a place which he constantly frequented every season, and where at last he died, on the 21st of September, 1748, in the sixty-third year of his age.

**BALIOL** or **BALLIOL**, the brother of Alexander, king of Scotland, and competitor with Robert Bruce for that crown. For an account of the extraordinary vicissitudes attendant on the reign of this monarch, see **SCOTLAND**, in the second division of this work.

**BALIOL**, or **BALLIOL**, **SIR JOHN DE**, founder of Baliol College in Oxford, was the son of Hugh Baliol, of Bernard's Castle, in the diocese of Durham; and was a person very eminent for his wealth and riches. During the wars between King Henry III. and his barons, he firmly adhered to the king. In

1263 he began the foundation and endowment of Baliol College, which was afterwards perfected by his widow. He died in the year 1269.

**BALLANTYNE**, a very eminent Scottish printer, born at Kelso in Roxburghshire. He entered into business at an early age, and distinguished himself by the great improvement which the art obtained under his superintendence, evinced in the extensive publications which have of late years issued from the northern press. He was at one time a proprietor of the Kelso Mail, a journal originally set on foot by his brother; and he subsequently ushered into the world the publications known as the Waverley novels. He died in 1821. Several members of Mr. Ballantyne's family are still distinguished for the excellence of their typographical labours.

**BALLENDEN, SIR JOHN**, a Scottish poet, who flourished in the reign of James V. of Scotland. He was descended from an ancient family in that kingdom, and his father was director to the chancery in the year 1540, and clerk-register in 1541. In his youth he had some employment at the court of King James V., and stood high in favour with that prince. Having taken orders, and being created doctor of divinity, at the Sorbonne, he was made canon of Ross, and archdeacon of Murray. He likewise obtained the place of clerk-register, but was afterwards deprived of that employment by the factions of the times; however, in the succeeding reign of Mary, he recovered that office, and was one of the lords of session. Being a zealous catholic, he, in conjunction with Dr. Laing, tried to retard the progress of the reformation, till at last, finding the opposition too powerful, he quitted Scotland, and went to Rome, where he died in the year 1550.

**BALNAVES, HENRY**, a distinguished Scottish reformer, who was very celebrated in the middle of the sixteenth century. He was born at Kirkaldy, and educated at the university of St. Andrews. He afterwards went to France, in order to complete his studies, and, returning to Scotland, was admitted into the family of the earl of Arran, who at that time governed the kingdom; but in the year 1542 the earl dismissed him, for having embraced the protestant religion.

In 1546 Balnaves joined the murderers of Cardinal Beaton, although without having been concerned in that act, yet for this he was declared a traitor, and excommunicated. Whilst that party were besieged in the castle of St. Andrews, they sent Balnaves to England, who returned with a considerable supply of provisions and money; but, being at last obliged to surrender to the French, he was sent, with the rest of the garrison, to France. He returned to Scotland about the year 1559, and, having joined the congregation, he was appointed one of the commissioners to treat with the duke of Norfolk on the part of Queen Elizabeth. In 1563 he was made one of the lords of session, and appointed by the general assembly, with other learned men, to revise the book of discipline. He died at Edinburgh in 1579.

**BALUZE, STEPHEN**, a distinguished professor of the common law in France. He was born in 1631, and went to Paris in 1636.

In 1693 he published his "Lives of the Popes of Avignon," with which the king was so much pleased that he gave him a pension, and appointed him director of the royal college. But he soon felt the uncertainty of courtly favours; for having attached him-

self to the cardinal Bouillon, who had engaged him to write the history of his family, he became involved in his disgrace, and received a *lettre de cachet*, ordering him to retire to Lyons. The only favour he could obtain was to be first sent to Rouen, then to Tours, and afterwards to Orleans. Upon the peace he was recalled, but never employed again as a professor or director of the royal college, nor could he recover his pension. He settled at a considerable distance from Paris, yet still continued his application to his studies, and was engaged in publishing St. Cyprian's works when he was carried off by death, on the 28th of July 1718.

**BALZAC, JOHN LEWIS GUEZ DE**, born at Angoulême in 1595. Voltaire allows him the merit of having given numbers and harmony to the French prose, but censures his style as somewhat bombastic. The critics of his own time gave him great uneasiness; and he gave them no little advantage over him by his vanity, and some particular propositions which were dangerous. Mr. Balzac, however, settled at his country seat, refined his style of writing, and obtained by his letters, and other works which he published from time to time, the reputation of being the first writer in France. He was at length drawn from his retirement by the hopes of making his fortune under Cardinal Richelieu; but in a few years he retired again, disgusted with the dependence of a court life. All he obtained from the court was a pension of 2000 livres, with the titles of counsellor of state and historiographer of France. He died in 1654, and was buried in the hospital of Notre Dame des Anges, to which he bequeathed 12,000 livres.

**BANCHI, SERAPHIM**, a celebrated native of Florence, who was patronised by Ferdinand I., grand duke of Tuscany, and was sent by him to France, during the wars which so long desolated that kingdom, that he might obtain accurate information on the subject. While at Lyons in 1593 Peter Barriere consulted him upon the design of assassinating Henry IV. Banchi, zealous for France and the royal family, directly mentioned it to a lord of the court, pointed out the young man to him, and entreated him to ride off, with all possible speed, to acquaint the king with the danger which threatened him. The nobleman, going to Melun for that purpose, met Barriere, who had just entered the palace to perpetrate his crime. He was arrested, and, being put to the torture, confessed all. The king, to reward Banchi, appointed him bishop of Angoulême, but he either resigned it in 1608 in favour of Anthony de la Rochefoucauld, or declined it with the reserve of a moderate pension. He appears to have passed the rest of his life at Paris. Père Banchi justifies himself, in a work which he published in 1610, against some historians who had accused him of abusing Peter Barriere's confession. He never confessed that young man, and the project was only discovered to him by way of consultation.

**BANCK, LAWRENCE**, a Swedish lawyer, who was professor of civil law for fifteen years in the university of Franeker. In 1669 he wrote a work in Latin on the tyranny of the pope over Christian kings and princes; and in 1656 "*Rome Triumphant*, or the Inauguration of Innocent X." His principal publication however was his edition of his "*Taxa Cancellariæ Romanæ*," or book of the "*Taxes of the Roman Chancery*," which fixes the price of absolution for all sorts of enormities. This work,

which he carefully collected from the most ancient and authentic copies, was soon placed in the list of prohibited books by the Inquisition, on the ground of incorrectness; but enough remains, in editions not controverted, to establish its general accuracy. It was translated into our language under the title of "*The Book of Rates now used in the Sin Custom House of Rome*, and published 1673." Banck died in 1662.

**BANCROFT, RICHARD**, an eminent ecclesiastic who lived in the reign of James I. He was a native of Farnworth in Lancashire, where he was born of respectable parents in 1544. Early in life he became chaplain to Dr. Cox, bishop of Ely, who gave him the rectory of Feversham in Cambridgeshire. In 1584 he obtained the living of St. Andrews, Holborn, and was also appointed treasurer of St. Paul's Cathedral. The following year he became rector of Cottingham in Northamptonshire, at the presentation of Sir Christopher Hatton, lord chancellor, whose chaplain he then was. In 1589 he was made a prebendary of St. Paul's, in 1592 advanced to the same dignity in the collegiate church of Westminster, and in 1594 promoted to a stall in the cathedral of Canterbury. Not long before, he had distinguished his zeal for the church of England by a learned and argumentative sermon against the ambition of the Puritans, preached at St. Paul's Cross. After the archbishop of Canterbury, to whom Dr. Bancroft was chaplain, was advanced to the see of London, he had in effect the archiepiscopal power; for the archbishop, having declined in years, and become unfit for business, committed the sole management of ecclesiastical affairs to Bishop Bancroft. Soon after his being made bishop, he expended 1000 marks in the repair of his house in London. In 1600 he, with others, was sent by Queen Elizabeth to Embden, to put an end to a difference between the English and Danes; but the embassy had no effect. This prelate interposed in the disputes between the secular priests and the Jesuits, and furnished some of the former with materials to write against their adversaries. In the beginning of King James's reign, he was present at the conference held at Hampton Court between the bishops and the Presbyterian ministers. The same year, 1603, he was appointed one of the commissioners for regulating the affairs of the church, and for perusing and suppressing books printed in England or brought into the realm without public authority. On the death of the archbishop of London, Dr. Bancroft was advanced to that see, the possession of which he retained till his death.

One of his last acts was to present to Parliament, in 1610, a plan for better providing a maintenance for the clergy, the leading objects of which were to improve the tithes, to redeem lay impropriation, and to restore the practice of mortuaries by repealing the statute of mortmain. This extravagant proposal Parliament wisely rejected, and the archbishop, in the same year, died of the stone at his palace of Lambeth, aged sixty-seven. As an author, Archbishop Bancroft is only known by the sermon before mentioned, and by two tracts against the Nonconformists, entitled "*Dangerous Positions*," and "*Survey of the Pretended Holy Discipline*." With intolerant principles and a rough temper, he indisputably possessed a strong understanding and great talents for business, which enabled him to occupy his eminent station with considerable reputation. Whether the choice of a



successor, in an equally able man of a directly opposite religious tendency, originated in personal favouritism or in the policy of James I. does not clearly appear; but the circumstance is singular, and looks as if that monarch, who did not want a portion of political sagacity, foresaw that a succession of prelates of the disposition of Bancroft might precipitate that state of civil disorder which was certainly hastened in the following reign by the similar principles and counsels of Laud.

BANDELLO, MATTEO, a celebrated Italian novelist, who was born about 1480, at Castelnuovo di Scivia. He studied at Rome and Naples, and applied himself almost exclusively to polite literature. He lived some years in Mantua, where Pirro Gonzaga and Camilla Bentivoglio entrusted to him the education of their daughter. He afterwards resided at Milan, until, after the battle of Pavia, the Spaniards banished him thence as a partisan of France. Upon this he went first to Ludovico Gonzaga, then to Cesare Fregoso, who had left the Venetian for the French service, and lived with the latter, in Piedmont, till the conclusion of the truce between the belligerent powers, and then followed him to France. After the death of his protector, he resided at Agen with the family of the deceased, and in 1550 was appointed bishop of that city. He left the administration of his diocese to the bishop of Grasse, and employed himself at the advanced age of seventy in the completion of his novels, of which he published three volumes in 1554; a fourth was published in 1573, after his death. Camillo Franceschini also published his novels at Venice, in 1566. Bandello published at Agen, in 1545, "*Canti XI. delle Lodi della S. Lucrezia Gonzaga di Ganzuela e del Vero Amore, col Tempio di Pudicitia*," and also two other poems. Other poems of his, found in manuscript at Turin, were printed by Costa, in 1816, under the title of "*Rime di Matteo Bandello*." The novels of this author are distinguished by a natural simplicity, a rapid narration, and periods at once short and harmonious; but their contents are frequently impure. This reproach applies more to him than to Boccaccio: indeed he loves to dwell on the wanton scenes, and to paint them in lively colours to the imagination.

BANDETTINI, THERESA, a celebrated improvisatrice, born at Lucca about 1756. She received a good education, but was obliged (her family having lost their property) to go on the stage to support herself. She made her first appearance in Florence, and was unsuccessful. This, united to her love for polite literature, led her to the most assiduous study of the poets. As she was one day listening to an improvisatore of Verona, her own genius broke forth in a splendid poetical panegyric on the poet. Encouraged by him, she devoted herself entirely to this beautiful art. Her originality, her fervid imagination, and the truth and harmony of her expression, soon gained for her a distinguished celebrity. She was enabled to abandon the stage, and travel through Italy; and she enjoyed the honour of being chosen a member of several academies. One of her most celebrated poems was that which she delivered in 1794, impromptu, before the prince Lambertini, at Bologna, on the death of Marie Antoinette of France. In 1813, wearied with travelling, she returned to her native city, where she lived retired on her small property. She published "*Odetre*," of which the first part celebrates Nelson's victory at Aboukir, the second

Suvaroff's victories in Italy, and the third the victories of the archduke Charles in Germany. She also gave to the world, under the name of *Amarilli Etrusca*, "*Saggio di Versi Estemporanei*" (published in Pisa, by Bodoni), among which the poem on Petrarch's interview with Laura, in the church, is particularly distinguished, and places her by the side of Rossi.

BANDINELLI, BACCIO, a Florentine sculptor, painter, and architect, who was the contemporary and rival of Michael Angelo. His father was a goldsmith, and he instructed Baccio in drawing and working in metal; but, a taste for sculpture displaying itself, he received instruction in that art. When he was but nine years old he is said to have modelled a *statue of snow*, which was admired for the correctness of its proportions. He subsequently exhibited extraordinary talents, and obtained the patronage of popes and princes. As a sculptor he was particularly eminent, and produced several works of distinguished excellence, especially a copy of the "*Laocoon*;" but the ambitious or rather envious temper of this artist induced him to engage in other undertakings in which he was less successful. Michael Angelo was the peculiar object of his spleen; but, though his productions are manifestly inferior to those of that master-genius in the arts of design, he perhaps excelled as a sculptor all the rest of his contemporaries. He died in 1559, aged sixty-two.

BANIER, ANTONY, a French abbé and writer of the eighteenth century. He was a native of Clermont, in Auvergne, where he pursued his first studies. Repairing to Paris to finish his education, he soon attracted notice; and his talents supplied him with resources which he could not have obtained from his family. He was received into the house of M. du Metz, president of the chamber of accounts, who entrusted him with the care of his sons; and the exercises which he composed for these young gentlemen gave birth to his "*Historical Explanation of the Fables of Antiquity*," which publication made him known as a writer of taste and erudition, and procured him admission into the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. The object of this work is to trace mythology to historical facts; and such a hold did enquiries of this nature obtain over the mind of Banier that almost all his literary labours were more or less connected with them. Besides the foregoing work, he published a "*Translation of the Metamorphoses of Ovid*," with historical remarks and explanations exhibiting great erudition. Of this production there is likewise an edition in Latin and French, 1732, folio, with the plates of Picart. He also gave a new edition of "*Marville's Melanges d'Historie et de Literature*," and had a share in a new and improved edition of Picart's "*Religious Ceremonies*." In his explanation of mythology by history, the abbé Banier, with great judgment, kept clear of tracing affinities with the scriptural accounts, by which he avoided a rock that had wrecked Bochart, Huet, and others. It may be questioned, however, whether his or any other single theory can disentangle the twisted web of ancient mythology. He died in Paris in 1741, in the sixty-ninth year of his age.

BANNISTER, JOHN, a physician and surgeon in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who was educated at Oxford, where, says Anthony Wood, "he studied logic for a time, but afterwards applied himself solely to physic and surgery." In 1573 he took the de-

gree of bachelor of physic; and, obtaining a licence from the university to practise, settled at Nottingham, where he lived many years in great repute, and wrote several medical treatises. His works were collected and published in 1633, in quarto.

**BANKS, SIR JOSEPH.**—This eminent naturalist, without possessing a very profound or powerful mind, did more for furthering the progress of natural history in this country than any other individual who has graced our scientific annals. He was born at Rivesby Abbey, in Lincolnshire, towards the close of 1743. He received a good classical education at Oxford, where he continued till the death of his father; and from this period we find him devoting his time and fortune to the advancement of knowledge.



In 1765 our young naturalist made a voyage to Newfoundland and Labrador, which ultimately led to his circumnavigation of the globe. On the return of Captain Wallace from the South Seas, it was determined to send out Lieut. Cook, a bold and enterprising navigator, to pursue the discoveries which had been already effected in that quarter of the world. Nor were the interests of astronomy forgotten; for orders were given to observe, in the latitude of Otaheite, an expected transit of the planet Venus over the sun. Mr. Banks, fired with the love of fame, and excited by the ardour of science, wished to accompany him. The admiralty exercised all its power and influence, on this occasion, to render the voyage as pleasant and as successful as possible. He was accompanied by Dr. Solander, of the British Museum, a countryman and pupil of Linnæus. He was also attended by two draughtsmen, a secretary, and four servants. It was not, however, until the 26th of August, 1768, that the *Endeavour*, which had been fitted out expressly for this expedition, left Plymouth Sound.

On the coast of Terra del Fuego the lives of our naturalists were greatly endangered; for during an excursion, undertaken solely for the purpose of examining the natural productions of that wild country, the travellers had nearly perished in a snow-storm. Three persons in their suite, indeed, fell victims on this occasion. Dr. Solander was overcome by sleep, and would have become a victim to his love of science had he not been frequently roused by the kind exertions of his companion. At length, on April 12, 1769, the *Endeavour* arrived at Otaheite. There our voyagers were received with great kindness by the natives. "For three months the voyagers continued at this and the smaller contiguous islands,

refreshing themselves after their late hardships, making those astronomical observations for the sake chiefly of which Lieut. Cook was sent out, cultivating the friendship of the natives, laying in stores of fresh provisions, surveying, as navigators, the coasts of the different isles, collecting specimens of natural productions peculiar to them, studying the language, manners, and arts of the islanders, and refitting the ship for the further prosecution of the voyage. At Otaheite Mr. Banks, by the prudence, benignity, vigilance, and spirited activity which he eminently exercised in the intercourse with its inhabitants, contributed in the most essential manner to prevent dissensions and disorders, and to promote that mutual harmony between those simple people and the English which was indispensably requisite to prevent the chief purposes of the voyage from being frustrated. His conduct was that, not of a raw adventurous young man, or of a naturalist unfit for aught but collecting specimens, but of a man who knew himself and human nature, and possessed, in a high degree, the talents of beneficially guiding the designs and controlling the passions of others. The specimens of natural history which he and his companions collected at these isles were very numerous and interesting."

At length on the 15th of August, 1769, after a sojourn of about four months, they took their departure, and on the 6th of October descried the coast of New Zealand. On this occasion an Otaheitan priest, of the name of Tugia, who had voluntarily accompanied them from his native country, acted as an interpreter, and proved highly serviceable in the intercourse with the inhabitants. Here fresh specimens of plants and animals were obtained, some few of which had hitherto been unknown to the students of natural history. New Holland next engaged their attention, and Botany Bay, the name of which implies the treasures it contains, afforded fresh subjects for enquiry and speculation. But soon after this, as they were coasting along the shores of New South Wales, the *Endeavour* struck upon a rock, and they escaped shipwreck and death by a miracle. After refitting their vessel, at the mouth of a river which they named after her, they proceeded on their voyage, and many shells and marine productions were gathered with avidity; but it was the discovery of the Kangaroo that chiefly distinguished this epoch, and afforded an interesting addition to the natural history of quadrupeds. At length, after escaping so many dangers, the noxious climate of Batavia had nearly proved fatal to all. Every person on board the vessel was sick during their stay at this place, from which having departed with no common degree of satisfaction, after a pretty favourable passage, they descried the happy shores of England, and anchored in the Downs on the 12th of June, 1771.

A short sojourn in their native land now ensued; but such was their avidity for new discoveries that Messrs. Banks and Solander planned a voyage for the express purpose of visiting Iceland, a country but little known at that period to the rest of Europe. Having accordingly chartered a vessel for this specific purpose, they set out on their voyage, but could not resist the temptation of surveying those numerous isles scattered along the north-west coast of Scotland. They examined Staffa, and afterwards visited the hot springs of Iceland, the siliceous rocks,



the arctic plants and animals which were afterwards illustrated by drawings and other descriptions.

Sir Joseph having become a very active member of the Royal Society, it was deemed advisable on the resignation of Sir John Pringle to elect him to the office of president, and the result was that that learned body afterwards directed their attention peculiarly to the science of natural history. This gave offence to the mathematicians, and Dr Horsley, then bishop of St. David's, in a speech replete with bitterness and eloquence, threatened a schism, and even the formation of a rival society. "Sir," said he, addressing himself to the chair, "we shall have one remedy in our power if all others fail; for we can at last secede. When that fatal hour arrives, the president will be left with his train of amateurs, and this toy upon the table (pointing to the mace), the ghost of that society in which philosophy once reigned, and Newton presided as her minister."

The goodness of temper and suavity of manners exhibited by Sir Joseph Banks at length succeeded in calming the storm; and, for many years after, not a breath of discontent was heard. His house in Soho Square might be deemed the seat of science, where distinguished natives and foreigners were entertained with a degree of hospitality and of kindness that conciliated all. Every Sunday evening during the winter new discoveries of every kind were communicated and discussed; rare specimens of nature and art were spread on the surrounding tables, while his noble collection of books illustrative of natural history were open to all. The day selected for these meetings appears but little in accordance with the good taste generally exhibited by Sir Joseph, and, when we recollect that the visitors were men in that rank of life that forbade even the remotest probability of their being actively engaged in more worldly pursuits during the remainder of the week, the selection appears still less in accordance with the tastes of a Christian philosopher.

Sir Joseph Banks was a warm patron of Ledyard and the other African travellers; nor ought it to be here omitted that to the generous interposition of Sir Joseph our colonies have been greatly indebted. The culture of the bread-fruit tree of Otaheite has been introduced into more than one of our West India islands; and, as its superiority over the plantain is well known, it bids fair to surpass that valuable production of the tropical regions both in nourishment and utility. New South Wales, too, is partly indebted to his cares for its present prosperity. He also induced the government to explore the extensive shores of New Holland, and smoothed the face of war by his protection of enterprising travellers of all countries from the rigours of hostility. Indeed, his unostentatious readiness to supply the pecuniary wants of scientific persons will long be remembered with gratitude by the recipients of his bounty.

Shortly before his death, we find Sir Joseph Banks devoting a large portion of his time to agricultural pursuits, and carrying on an extensive correspondence with statistical writers for the improvement of this branch of knowledge. We may advantageously take a single letter, which is valuable as peculiarly marking his opinion of Scottish agriculture. It is written to Sir John Sinclair, and dated from Ravesby Abbey, October 13, 1819.

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"Dear Sir John,  
 "I rejoice to learn, from your favour of the 9th, that you have pitched your tents in my neighbourhood, with I shall sometimes see you in London, and often, I trust, while I am at Spring Grove, where I always reside during the three best months in the year.

"I rejoice to hear that your 'Scottish Agriculture' has met with so extensive a sale. The adoption of it in England will probably be the consequence, and a more beneficial one can scarce be conceived. That a Scots farmer can get more crop from the earth than an English one seems a fact not to be disputed. *To have been the cause of imparting to Englishmen the skill of Scots farmers is indeed a proud recollection.*

"A Code of Agriculture from your hands will be an agreeable present to the public. No one has so much experience in the theory of husbandry as yourself. No one, therefore, is so able to lay down the most approved modes of practice. Adieu, my Dear Sir John. Always faithfully yours,

*J. Banks*

Sir Joseph Banks suffered very severely from the gout, and ultimately died from its attacks June 19, 1820. Our space will admit of but one codicil from his will, which relates to the disposal of his library and general collection. By the first codicil, dated 21st Jan. 1820, he gives to his indefatigable and intelligent librarian, Robert Brown, Esq., an annuity of 200*l.* and also the use and enjoyment during life of the library, herbarium, manuscripts, drawings, copper-plate engravings, and every thing else that is contained in his collections, usually kept in the back building of his house in Soho Square; and, after the decease of the said Robert Brown, then he gives the same to the trustees, for the time being, of the British Museum; or, if it be the desire of the said trustees, and the said Robert Brown shall consent to have the same removed to the British Museum in his lifetime, he shall be at liberty to do so: and the said Robert Brown to be provided with the proper means of access thereto for himself and his friends. And he declares that the aforesaid bequests in favour of the said Robert Brown are upon condition that he continue to use his library as his chief place of study in the manner he now does, and that he assists the superintendent of the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew, and continues to reside in London, and does not undertake any new charge that may employ his time. His leasehold house in Soho Square, with the appurtenances, to his wife during her life; and after her decease, or giving up possession thereof, then to the said Robert Brown, subject to the aforesaid conditions.

To Mr. Frederick Bauer, of Kew Green, who has been employed by Sir Joseph as a draughtsman for thirty years, an annuity of 300*l.* upon condition that he continues to reside at Kew Green, and employs himself in making drawings of plants that flower in the collection at Kew, in the same manner as he has hitherto done; and the drawings which he shall so make be added to the collection now in his hands, and which revert to Sir Joseph or his representatives

at the time of his death, as appears by an agreement entered into between them; and it is his will that, if any doubts should arise as to his meaning, in the conditions imposed on the said Robert Brown and Frederick Bauer, the same should be construed in a manner so as to be most favourable to them."

Both the gentlemen adverted to in this codicil are eminent for their scientific acquirements, and the former has furnished the editor of this work with much useful information with regard to his deceased friend and patron.

**BANKS, JOHN**, an English writer of some celebrity, who was born at Sunning in Berkshire in 1709. His first work was entitled the "Weaver's Miscellany," but it was not successful. He was afterwards employed in a large work in folio, intitled the "Life of Christ," which was drawn up with much piety and exactness. He also wrote the celebrated "Critical Review of the Life of Oliver Cromwell," 12mo., which has been often printed, and is upon the whole an impartial work. Towards the end of his life he was employed in writing the "Old England and Westminster Journals," and was thus enabled to live in easy circumstances. He died of a nervous disorder at Islington, April 19, 1751.

**BANTI, SIGNORA BRIGIDA GEORGIS**, a celebrated female singer, who is believed to have been the daughter of an Italian gondolier. She is said to have originally followed the very humble occupation of a ballad singer. While exercising her vocation in the street of Georgi, the town from which she derived one of her names, and in which she was born, she fortunately attracted the attention of a nobleman, by whose liberality she was enabled to cultivate the brilliant talents which she had received from nature. In 1788 M. De Visnes, then manager of the Comic Opera in Paris, offered her an engagement, when her debüt was eminently successful, though limited to the singing a single air between the acts of the performance. Shortly afterwards she appeared in London at the Pantheon in Oxford Street, the manager of which entertained a higher opinion of the quality of her voice than of her skill in its management, as appears from the fact of their deducting a considerable sum from her salary in order to procure her the benefit of able tuition. Her want of industry, and the caprice which seems almost inherent in female singers of a certain pretension, are said to have completely exhausted the patience of her masters, among whom Sacchini quitted her in disgust. Abel was more enduring, and to his instructions is unquestionably owing much of the favour she subsequently acquired. After a protracted absence, spent principally in exercising her art at the different German courts, in all of which she was enthusiastically received, Madame Banti returned to England in 1790, and gained new laurels as well by her execution of the principal airs in Gluck's *Alceste* as by her performance in Bianchi's Opera of *Inez de Castro*, then produced for the first time. She continued on the English stage till 1802, when she returned to her native country, and died at Bologna in 1806 in the fifty-sixth year of her age.

**BAPTIST, JOHN MONNOYER**, a painter of flowers and fruit, who was born at Lisle in 1635, and educated at Antwerp, where he perfected himself in the knowledge of his art, and in his first years was intended for a painter of historical subjects; but, having soon observed that his genius more strongly inclined him

to the painting of flowers, he applied his talents to those subjects, and in that style became one of the greatest masters of his time. His pictures are not so exquisitely finished as those of Van Huysum, but his composition and colouring are in a bolder style. His flowers have generally a remarkable freedom of style, with an exquisite tone of colouring. The arrangements of his objects are surpassingly elegant and beautiful; and in that respect his compositions are easily known, and as easily distinguished from the performances of others. He died in 1699.

**BARATIERE, PHILIP**.—The life of this extraordinary individual furnishes a striking instance of the early and rapid exertion of the mental faculties. He was the son of Francis Baratiere, minister of the French church at Schowobach near Nuremberg, where he was born January 10th 1721, and by his fifth year he understood the French, Latin, High Dutch, and Greek languages. When he was five years and eight months old, he commenced learning the Hebrew tongue; and in three years time was so expert in the Hebrew text that from a bible without points he could give the sense of the original in Latin or French, or translate extempore the Latin or French versions into Hebrew almost word for word. He composed at this time a dictionary of rare and difficult Hebrew words, with critical remarks and philological observations occupying 400 pages; and, about his tenth year, amused himself for twelve months with the rabbinical writers. With these he intermixed a knowledge of the Chaldaic, Syriac, and Arabic, and acquired a taste for divinity and ecclesiastical antiquity by studying the Greek fathers and councils of the first four ages of the church. In the midst of these occupations, he obtained possession of a pair of globes, and in the course of a few days resolved, all the problems on them, and in less than three months formed the idea of discovering the longitude, which he communicated to the Royal Society. In June 1731 he was matriculated in the university of Alstorf; and at the close of the year 1732 he was presented by his father at the meeting of the reformed churches of the circle of Franconia, who admitted him in the deliberations of the synod; and, to preserve the memory of so singular an event, it was ordered to be registered in their acts. In 1734 the Margrave of Brandenburg Anspach granted this young scholar the use of whatever books he wanted from the Anspach library, together with a pension of fifty florins, which he enjoyed three years. Towards the close of his life he acquired a taste for medals, inscriptions, and antiquities, metaphysical enquiries and experimental philosophy intervening occasionally between these studies. He wrote several essays and dissertations, made astronomical remarks and laborious calculations, and wrote a work on the thirty years' war. The final work which he engaged in, and for which he had gathered large materials, was "Enquiries concerning the Egyptian Antiquities." But he died October, 5, 1740, in the twentieth year of his age. He published eleven different works, and left thirty manuscripts on various subjects.

**BARBARINO, FRANCISCO, CHA'**, one of the earliest poets of Italy. He was born at Barbarino, in Tuscany, in 1264, and studied at the universities of Padua and Bologna. This poet is considered one of the founders of Italian literature, from his having written the celebrated poem entitled "Documento



D'Amore." This work was first printed at Rome in 1640, by Ubaldini. Many of his other works are lost. Barbarino died of the plague at Florence, in 1348.

**BARBAROSSA, ARUCH** or **HORUC**, the son of an *arenegado* of Lemnos, and a celebrated pirate. Having by his success in piracy on the coast of Barbary made himself master of twelve galleys stoutly manned with Turks, he rendered himself so formidable that Selim Eutemi, ruler of the country round Algiers, called in his assistance against the Spaniards. Being admitted into Algiers with his men, he caused Selim to be strangled in a bath, and himself to be proclaimed king. He acted with such tyranny that a revolt took place among the Arabs, who sought the aid of the king of Tunis. This confederacy was defeated, and Tunis itself taken, of which Barbarossa also declared himself the sovereign. He then marched to Tremecen, the prince of which he also defeated, and was admitted into their capital by the people, who first beheaded their fugitive king. The next heir of Tremecen then applied for aid to Gomares, governor of Oran for Charles V., who marched with a powerful army towards Tremecen. Barbarossa, leaving the town with his army to meet this new enemy, the people shut the gates, on which he endeavoured to fly, but, being overtaken, fought like a lion in the toils, and was cut to pieces with all his followers, in the forty-fourth year of his age, A. D. 1518.

**BARBAROSSA, HAYRADIN** or **KHAYR ED-DIN**, the brother of the elder Barbarossa. He was left by Aruch to secure Algiers, when he marched against Tunis, and on his death was proclaimed king in his place. Finding his authority insecure, he made application to the Ottoman sultan Soliman, offering to recognize his superiority, and become tributary, provided a force was sent to him sufficient to maintain him in his usurpation. Soliman agreed to his proposals, and, ordering him a reinforcement of janizaries, invested him with the dignity of viceroy or pacha over the kingdom of Algiers. Thus reinforced, Hayradin built a wall for the improvement of the harbour, strengthened it with fortifications, and may be deemed the founder of that city. Such was his reputation for naval and military talents that Soliman II. made him his capitan pacha. In this capacity he signalized himself by a long course of exploits against the Venetians and Genoese; and in 1543, when Francis I. made a league with Soliman, Barbarossa left Constantinople, and with a powerful fleet, having the French ambassador on board, took Reggio, and sacked the coast of Italy. In conjunction with the French, he also besieged and took Nice, and, refitting during the winter at Toulon, again ravaged the coasts and islands of Italy in the ensuing spring, and returned with many prisoners and much spoil to Constantinople. From this time he seems to have declined active service, and to have given himself up to a voluptuous life, until the age of eighty, when he died, and his successor Hassan became possessed of his authority and riches. With the ferocity of a Turk and a corsair, he possessed many generous sentiments, and obtained a character for honour and fidelity in his engagements.

**BARBAULD, ANNA LETITIA**.—This distinguished female was born at Kibworth, in Leicestershire, in 1743, and is justly considered as one of the most classical and elegant writers of her time. Mrs. Barbauld was the daughter of the Rev. Dr. Aikin,

from whom she received an excellent literary education, to which she was no doubt indebted for the full development of her great natural talents, and of a vein of poetry at once elegant and imaginative. Indeed she may be considered as the founder of a class of writers who have reflected the highest credit on the country, and as such peculiarly deserving our notice.

The following account of Mrs. Barbauld is abridged from the life prefixed to the excellent edition of her works, published in two volumes octavo, by her niece, Miss Lucy Aikin, a young lady well qualified to delineate the varied incidents of Mrs. Barbauld's life:—

"In the middle of the last century a strong prejudice still existed against imparting to females any tincture of classical learning; and the father of Miss Aikin, proud as he justly was of her uncommon capacity, long refused to gratify her earnest desire of being initiated in this kind of knowledge. At length, however, she in some degree overcame his scruples; and with his assistance she enabled herself to read the Latin authors with pleasure and advantage; nor did she rest satisfied without gaining some acquaintance with the Greek.

"The obscure village of Kibworth was unable to afford her a single suitable companion of her own sex: her brother, the late Dr. Aikin, was more than three years her junior; and, as her father was at this period the master of a school for boys, it might have been apprehended that conformity of pursuits, as well as age, would tend too nearly to assimilate her with the youth of the ruder sex, by whom she found herself encompassed. But maternal vigilance effectually obviated this danger, by instilling into her a double portion of bashfulness and maidenly reserve; and she was accustomed to ascribe an uneasy sense of constraint in mixed society, which she could never entirely shake off, to the strictness and seclusion in which it had thus become her fate to be educated. Her recollections of childhood and early youth were, in fact, not associated with much of the pleasure and gaiety usually attendant upon that period of life; but it must be regarded as a circumstance favourable, rather than otherwise, to the unfolding of her genius, to have been thus left to find or make in solitude her own objects of interest and pursuit. The love of rural nature sunk deep into her heart; her vivid fancy exerted itself to colour, to animate, and to diversify all the objects which surrounded her: the few but choice authors of her father's library, which she read and re-read, had leisure to make their full impression, to mould her sentiments, and to form her taste; the spirit of devotion early inculcated upon her as a duty opened to her by degrees an exhaustless source of tender and sublime delight; and, while yet a child, she was surprised to find herself a poet.

"Just at the period when longer seclusion might have proved seriously injurious to her spirits, an invitation given to her learned and exemplary father to undertake the office of classical tutor in a highly respectable dissenting academy at Warrington, in Lancashire, was the fortunate means of transplanting her to a more varied and animating scene. This removal took place in 1758, when Miss Aikin had just attained the age of fifteen; and the fifteen succeeding years passed by her at Warrington comprehended probably the happiest as well as the most brilliant portion of her existence. A solitary education had not produced on her its most frequent ill effects, pride and

self-importance: the reserve of her manners proceeded solely from bashfulness, for her temper inclined her strongly to friendship and to social pleasures; and her active imagination, which represented all objects tinged with hues 'unborrowed of the sun,' served as a charm against that disgust with common characters and daily incidents which so frequently renders the conscious possessor of superior talents at once unamiable and unhappy. Nor was she now in want of congenial associates. Warrington academy included among its tutors names eminent both in science and in literature: with several of these, and especially with Dr. Priestley and Dr. Enfield, and their families, she formed sincere and lasting friendships.

"About the close of the year 1771 her brother, after several years of absence, returned to establish himself in his profession at Warrington, an event equally welcome to her feelings and propitious to her literary progress. In him she possessed a friend with discernment to recognize the stamp of genius in her productions, and anticipate their fame, combined with zeal and courage sufficient to vanquish her reluctance to appear before the public in the character of an author. By his persuasion and assistance her poems were selected, revised, and arranged for publication; and when all these preparations were completed, finding that she still hesitated and lingered, like the parent bird who pushes off its young to their first flight, he procured the paper, and set the press to work on his own authority. The result more than justified his confidence of her success: four editions of the work (the first in quarto, the succeeding ones in octavo), were called for within the year of publication, 1773. Compliments and congratulations poured in from all quarters, and even the periodical critics greeted her *Muse* with nearly unmixed applause.

"She was not permitted to repose upon her laurels: her brother, who possessed all the activity and spirit of literary enterprise in which she was deficient, now urged her to collect her prose-pieces, and to join him in forming a small volume, which appeared also in the year 1773, under the title of '*Miscellaneous Pieces, in Prose, by J. and A. L. Aikin.*' These likewise met with much notice and admiration, and have been several times reprinted. The authors did not think proper to distinguish their respective contributions, and several of the pieces have been generally misappropriated. The fragment of Sir Bertrand, in particular, though alien from the character of that brilliant and airy imagination which was never conversant with terror and rarely with pity, has been repeatedly ascribed to Mrs. Barbauld, even in print.

"Shortly after this period Miss Aikin married Mr. Barbauld, who was appointed to the office of pastor in a dissenting congregation at Palgrave, in Suffolk, where he also established a school.

"The rapid and uninterrupted success which crowned this undertaking was doubtless in a great measure owing to the literary celebrity attached to the name of Mrs. Barbauld, and to her active participation with her husband in the task of instruction. It fortunately happened that two of the eight pupils with which Palgrave school commenced were endowed with abilities worthy of the culture which such an instructress could alone bestow. One of these, William Taylor, Esq., of Norwich, known by his '*English Synonyms,*' his exquisite '*Iphigenia in Tauris,*' from the German, his '*Leonora,*' from

Bürger, and many other fruits of genius and extensive learning, constantly acknowledged her, with pride and affection, for the 'mother of his mind;' and in a biographical notice prefixed to '*The Collected Works of Frank Sayers, M.D.*' of the same city, author of the '*Dramatic Sketches of Northern Mythology,*' he has thus recorded the congenial sentiments of his friend:—'Among the instructions bestowed at Palgrave, Dr. Sayers has repeatedly observed to me that he most valued the lessons of English composition superintended by Mrs. Barbauld. On Wednesdays and Saturdays the boys were called in separate classes to her apartment: she read a fable, a short story, or a moral essay, to them aloud, and then sent them back into the school-room to write it out on the slates in their own words. Each exercise was separately overlooked by her; the faults of grammar were obliterated, the vulgarisms were chastised, the idle epithets were cancelled, and a distinct reason was always assigned for every correction; so that the arts of inditing and of criticising were in some degree learnt together. Many a lad from the great schools, who excels in Latin and Greek, cannot write properly a vernacular letter, for want of some such discipline. The department of geography was also undertaken by Mrs. Barbauld; and she relieved the dryness of a study seldom rendered interesting to children by so many lively strokes of description, and such luminous and attractive views of the connection of this branch of knowledge with the revolutions of empires, with national manners, and with the natural history of animals, that these impressive lectures were always remembered by her auditors less among their tasks than their pleasures.

"In 1775 Mrs. Barbauld committed to the press a small volume entitled '*Devotional Pieces compiled from the Psalms of David; with Thoughts on Devotional Taste, and on Sects and Establishments.*' As a selection it did not meet with great success; nor did the essay escape without some animadversion. It was afterwards separated from the Psalms and reprinted with the *Miscellaneous Pieces*, and will be further noticed in the sequel.

"The business of tuition must ever be fatiguing beyond almost any other occupation; and Mr. and Mrs. Barbauld found their health and spirits so much impaired by their exertions that at the end of eleven years they determined upon quitting Palgrave, and allowing themselves an interval of complete relaxation before they should again embark in any scheme of active life. Accordingly, in the autumn of 1785, they embarked for Calais; and, after extending their travels as far as Geneva, returned to winter in the south of France. In the spring they again bent their course northwards, and, after a leisurely survey of Paris, returned to England in the month of June 1786.

"In 1790, the rejection of a bill for the repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts called forth her eloquent and indignant address to the opposers of this repeal: her poetical epistle to Mr. Wilberforce on the rejection of the bill for abolishing the Slave Trade was written in 1791. The next year produced her '*Remarks on Mr. Gilbert Wakefield's Enquiry into the Expediency and Propriety of Public or Social Worship;*' and her '*Sins of Government Sins of the Nation, or a Discourse for the Fast,*' appeared in 1793. She also supplied some valuable contributions to Dr. Aikin's popular book for children, '*Evenings at Home,*' the first volume of which appeared in



1792; but her share in this work has generally been supposed much greater than in fact it was; of the ninety-nine pieces of which it consisted, fourteen only are hers.

"By this time the effervescence caused by the French revolution had nearly subsided; and Mrs. Barbauld, who could seldom excite herself to the labour of composition, except on the spur of occasion, gave nothing more to the public for a considerable number of years, with the exception of two critical essays, one prefixed to an ornamented edition of "Akenside's Pleasures of Imagination," the other to a similar one of the "Odes of Collins," of which the first appeared in 1795, the second in 1797. Both are written with elegance, taste, and acuteness; but, on the whole, they are less marked with the peculiar features of her style than perhaps any other of her prose pieces. No event worthy of mention occurred till 1802, when Mr. Barbauld accepted an invitation to become pastor of the congregation (formerly Dr. Price's) at Newington Green; and, quitting Hampstead, they took up their abode in the village of Stoke Newington. The sole motive for this removal, which separated them from a residence which they liked and friends to whom they were cordially attached, was the mutual desire of Dr. Aikin and Mrs. Barbauld to pass the closing period of their lives in that near neighbourhood which admits of the daily and almost hourly intercourses of affection.

"During the year 1804 Mrs. Barbauld was prevailed upon to undertake the task of examining and making a selection from the letters of Richardson, the novelist, and his correspondents, of which a vast collection had remained in the hands of his last surviving daughter, after whose death they were purchased of his grand-children. It must be confessed that, on the whole, these letters were less deserving of public attention than she had probably expected to find them; and very good judges have valued more than all the remaining contents of the six duodecimo volumes which they occupy the elegant and interesting life of Richardson, and the finished review of his works prefixed by the editor.

"It is probable that Mrs. Barbauld consented to employ herself in these humbler offices of literature chiefly as a solace under the pressure of anxieties and apprehensions of a peculiar and most distressing nature, which had been increasing in urgency during a long course of time, and which found their final completion on the 11th of November 1808, in the event by which she became a widow. She has touchingly alluded, in her poem of 'Eighteen Hundred and Eleven,' to

—'that sad death whence most affection bleed,  
Which sickness, only of the soul, precedes.'

And though the escape of a sufferer from the most melancholy of human maladies could not, in itself, be a subject of rational regret, her spirits were deeply wounded, both by the severe trials through which she had previously passed, and by the mournful void which always succeeds the removal of an object of long and deep, however painful, interest. An affecting dirge will be found among her poems, which records her feelings on this occasion.

"Mrs. Barbauld had the fortitude to seek relief from dejection in literary occupation; and, incapable as yet of any stronger effort, she consented to edit a collection of the British Novelists, which issued from

the press in 1810. The Introductory Essay shows great extent of reading combined with her usual powers of style; and the Biographical and Critical Notices prefixed to the works of each author are judiciously and gracefully executed.

"A gentle and scarcely perceptible decline was now shaping for herself the passage to the tomb. She felt and hailed its progress as a release from languor and infirmity—a passport to another and a higher state of being. Her friends, however, flattered themselves that they might continue to enjoy her society yet a little longer; and she had consented to remove under the roof of her adopted son, that his affectionate attentions and those of his family might be the solace of every remaining hour. But Providence had ordained it otherwise. She quitted indeed her own house, but, whilst on a visit at the neighbouring one of her sister-in-law Mrs. Aikin, her bodily powers gave way almost suddenly; and, after lingering a few days, on the morning of March the 9th, 1825, she expired without a struggle, in the eighty-second year of her age."

BARCLAY, ALEXANDER, an English poet of the sixteenth century. Very little is known concerning him, except what we learn from his writings, which inform us that he was a priest and chaplain of St. Mary Ottery, in Devonshire, and afterwards a Benedictine monk of Ely. He survived the reformation, and obtained preferment in the church. His death took place in 1552, a short time after he had been presented to the living of All-Hallows, in London. The principal work of this poet is a satire, entitled "The Ship of Fools," a translation or imitation of a German composition. He also wrote Eclogues, which, according to Warton, the historian of English poetry, are the earliest compositions of the kind in our language. They are curious and interesting for the descriptions they afford of the character and manners of the age in which they were written.

BARCLAY, ROBERT.—This celebrated apologist of the Quakers was born in the year 1648, at Gordonstown, in the shire of Moray, of an ancient and honourable family. The troubles of the country induced his father, Colonel Barclay, to send him to Paris, to be educated under the care of his uncle, who was principal of the Scots' college in that capital. Under this influence, he was easily induced to become a convert to the Catholic religion, upon which his father sent for him to return home; and, Colonel Barclay soon after becoming a Quaker, his son followed his example. Uniting all the advantages of a learned education to great natural abilities, he soon distinguished himself by his talents and zeal in the support of his new opinions. His first treatise in support of his adopted principles was published at Aberdeen, in the year 1670, under the title of "Truth cleared of Calumnies," &c., being an answer to an attack on the Friends, by a Scotch minister of the name of Mitchell. It is written with great vigour, and, with his subsequent writings against the same opponent, tended materially to rectify public sentiment in regard to the Quakers, as also to procure them greater indulgence from government. To propagate the doctrines as well as to maintain the credit he had gained for his sect, he published in 1675 a regular treatise, in order to explain and defend the system of the Quakers, which production was also very favourably received. These and

similar labours involved him in controversies with the leading members of the university of Aberdeen, and others; but, notwithstanding so much engrossment, his mind was at the same time busy with his great work in Latin, "An Apology for the true Christian Divinity, as the Same is preached and held forth by the People in scorn called Quakers." It was soon reprinted at Amsterdam, and quickly translated into the German, Dutch, French and Spanish languages, and, by the author himself, into English. It met, of course, with many answers; but, although several of them were from able and learned pens, they attracted, comparatively, very little notice. His fame was now widely diffused; and, in his travels with the celebrated William Penn through the greater part of England, Holland, and Germany, to spread the opinions of the Friends, he was received every where with the highest marks of respect. The strength of his understanding rendered this extraordinary man equally adequate to what is considered most important in the business of the world, as appears from an excellent letter addressed by him on public affairs to the assembled ministers of the various powers of Europe at Nimeguen. The last of his productions in defence of the theory of Quakerism was a long Latin letter addressed in 1676 to Adam de Paets, "On the Possibility of an Inward and Immediate Revelation." It was not published in England until 1686, from which time Mr. Barclay, who had endured his share of persecution and been more than once imprisoned, spent the remaining part of his life in the bosom of a large family, in quiet and peace. He died after a short illness at his own house in Uri, A.D. 1690, in the forty-second year of his age. With few exceptions, both partisans and opponents unite in the profession of great respect for the character and talents of Robert Barclay.

BARCLAY, JOHN, was born at Pont-à-Mousson, and educated in the Jesuits' college at that place. He accompanied his father to England, where he was much noticed by James I., to whom he dedicated one of his principal works, a politico-satirical romance, entitled "Euphormio," in Latin, chiefly intended to expose the Jesuits, against whom the author adduces some very serious accusations. He wrote, also, several other works, among which is a singular romance, in elegant Latin, entitled "Argenis," which first appeared at Paris in 1621. It is a political allegory, of a character similar to that of "Euphormio," and alludes to the political state of Europe, and especially France, during the league. Like the "Euphormio," it has been several times reprinted, and has also been translated into several of the modern languages. A singular story of romantic chivalry has been quoted from the "Euphormio" by Sir Walter Scott, in the notes to his poem of "Marmion." The death of this author took place in 1552, a short time after he had been presented to the living of All-Hallows, in Lombard Street.

BARETTI, JOSEPH, an Italian writer of some celebrity who was the son of an architect of Turin, where he was born in the year 1716. He received a good education and some paternal property, which, according to his own confession, he soon gamed away. In 1748 he came to this country, and in 1753 he published in English, a "Defence of the Poetry of Italy against the Censures of M. Voltaire." About this time he was introduced to Dr. Johnson, then engaged in the compilation of his Dictionary, of which Baretti

availed himself to compile an Italian and English Dictionary, in 1760, much more complete than any which had before appeared. In this year he revisited his native country, and published at Venice a journal under the title of "Frusta Literaria, which met with great success, but, owing to the severity of its criticisms, subjected the author to unpleasant if not dangerous consequences. After an absence of six years, he therefore returned through Spain and Portugal to England, and, in 1768, published an "Account of the Manners and Customs of Italy." Dr. Johnson, whose friendship to him was always warm and cordial, soon after introduced him to the Thrale family.

Not long after his return from Italy, an incident occurred to Baretti of the most distressing nature. Having been accosted in the Haymarket by a low woman, he repulsed her with a degree of roughness which produced an attack from some of her male confederates, and, in the scuffle, he struck one of the assailants with a French pocket knife. On this the man pursued and collared him; when Baretti, still more alarmed, stabbed him repeatedly with the knife, and he died of the wounds on the following day. He was immediately taken into custody, and was tried for murder at the Old Bailey, but acquitted. On this occasion, Johnson, Burke, Goldsmith, Garrick, Reynolds, and Beauclerk gave testimony to his good character; and, although he did not escape censure for his too ready resort to a knife, his acquittal was generally approved. In 1770 he published his "Journey from London to Genoa," through England, Portugal, Spain, and France—a work replete with information and entertainment. He also continued to publish introductory works for the use of students in the Italian and other modern languages, and superintended a complete edition of the works of Machiavel. The latter part of his life was harassed with pecuniary difficulties, which were very little alleviated by his honourary post of foreign secretary to the royal academy, and an ill-paid pension of £80 per annum under the North administration. He died in May, 1789.

Baretti, although rough and cynical in his appearance, was a pleasant companion; and of his powers in conversation Dr. Johnson thought highly. He was deemed a latitudinarian in respect to religion; but his integrity was unimpeached, his morals pure, and his manners correct. He had, also, a high sense of the value of independence, and often refused pecuniary assistance when he most needed it.

BAREZZI, STEFANO, a painter of Milan, who became known by the mode which he invented of taking old fresco paintings from walls, by fixing them upon a piece of linen, covered with a certain cement, which loosens the colours; they are then transferred upon a board prepared for the purpose, upon which, after removing the linen, they remain perfectly firm. In the hall of exhibition of the palace Brera is to be seen a painting of Aurelio Luino, representing the torture of St. Vincent, which he has safely transferred to a board in this manner.

BARKER.—There were two eminent literary men of this name. The elder, Samuel, wrote several learned tracts, which were collected and published in one quarto volume the year after his decease, which took place in 1760. He was son-in-law to the learned but eccentric William Whiston; and, besides the writings above named, he left behind



him in manuscript a Hebrew Grammar, which he had long been engaged in drawing up, but in a very unfinished state.

Thomas Barker, who succeeded him in the estate, was a fellow of the Royal Society, and among the Philosophical Transactions are to be found several ingenious papers from his pen on meteorological, astronomical, and other subjects. He also wrote an account of the parish of Lyndon, for Wright's "History of Rutlandshire," an "Essay on the Demoniacs described in Scripture," a "Treatise on Comets," another on the "Sacrament of Baptism," and a work entitled "The Messiah, being the Prophecies concerning him methodized with their Accomplishment." He died in 1809, having subsisted from infancy to the age of eighty-eight on a vegetable diet.

BARKER, ROBERT, an artist of great ingenuity, and patentee of the panoramic exhibition in which bird's-eye views are painted in distemper round the wall of a circular building, so as to produce a striking resemblance to reality. The first picture of the kind was a view of Edinburgh, exhibited by Mr. Barker in that city in 1788. He then adopted the name of "Panorama" to attract notice, and commenced similar exhibitions in London, being ultimately enabled to build a commodious house for that purpose in Leicester Square. Mr. Barker died in April 1806, leaving two sons, one of whom continued the same species of exhibition, which is still very popular.

BARLOW, THOMAS, was born at Langhill, in Westmoreland, in the year 1607, and was descended from the ancient family of Barlow-Moore in Lancashire. He received the first elements of his education at the free school of Appleby; and, in the sixteenth year of his age, removed to Queen's College in Oxford, of which he was chosen a fellow in 1633. Two years afterwards, he was appointed metaphysical reader in the university; and his lectures were published in 1637, for the use of the students. In 1652 he was elected head-keeper of the Bodleian Library; and, about the same time, was appointed lecturer of Church Hill, near Bedford. In 1657 he was chosen provost of his college; and, after the restoration of Charles II., was nominated one of the commissioners, for reinstating the members who had been ejected by the parliament in 1648. In 1660 he was admitted Margaret professor of divinity; in the following year was elected arch-deacon of Oxford; and in 1675 became bishop of Lincoln. He died at Bugden, in Huntingdonshire, in 1691, in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

BARLOW, JOEL, an eminent American poet and diplomatist, who was born at Reading, a village in Connecticut, about 1755. His father died while he was yet a lad at school, leaving him little more than sufficient to defray, economically, the expenses of a liberal education. In 1774 he was placed at Dartmouth College, New Hampshire, then in its infancy, and, after a very short residence there, entered Yale College, New Haven, where he displayed a talent for versification, which gained him reputation among his fellow-students, and introduced him to the particular notice and friendship of Doctor Dwight, then a tutor in that college. These circumstances contributed to excite his poetical ambition still more strongly, and thus fixed the character of his future life. The militia of Connecticut, in the beginning of the war of the revolution, formed a considerable part of General Washington's army; and young Barlow,

more than once, during the vacations of the college, served as a volunteer in the camp, where four of his brothers were on duty, and is said to have been present at the battle of White Plains. Having passed through the usual course of study with reputation, he received in 1778 the degree of bachelor of arts, on which occasion he appeared, for the first time, before the public in his poetical character, by reciting an original poem. It was printed at Litchfield, with some other of his minor pieces, in a collection entitled "American Poems." Upon leaving college, he applied himself assiduously to the study of the law. But he continued this pursuit only a few months.

The Massachusetts division of the American army was, at this time, deficient in chaplains, and Barlow was strongly urged, by some influential friends, to qualify himself for that station. It was, at the same time, intimated to him that every indulgence should be shown him in his theological examination. Under this assurance, being well grounded in general literature, and having passed his whole life among a people with whom almost every man has some knowledge of speculative divinity and religious controversy, he applied himself strenuously to theological studies, and, at the end of six weeks, was licenced to preach as a congregational minister, and repaired immediately to the army. Here he is said to have been regular in the discharge of his clerical duties, and much respected as a preacher.

Barlow embarked for England in 1788, and, soon after, crossed the channel to France. While in France he took a warm interest in the revolution then in progress, and became intimately acquainted with many leaders of the republican party, particularly with that section afterwards denominated the *Girondists*, or *moderates*, entered into all their plans, and was soon conspicuous as one of their most zealous partisans. He returned to England in 1791, with the intention of embarking for America, after having resided for a year or two longer in London. About the end of the year 1791 he published, in London, the first part of his "Advice to the Privileged Orders." This he afterwards completed by the addition of a second part; and the whole has been several times reprinted in the United States. In the autumn of the same year he published a "Letter to the National Convention," in which he urged them to abolish the royal power, render elections more frequent and popular, and dissolve the connection between the government and the national church. All these publications procured him some profit and much notoriety. Though France was the theme, they were doubtless intended to have their chief effect on England. Barlow consequently became acquainted with all the English politicians who were, like him, engaged in the cause of reform or revolution, and with most of the republican men of letters and science, who about that period were so numerous in our metropolis as almost to form a distinct class.

Towards the end of 1792 the London constitutional society, of which he was a member, voted an address to the French convention, and Mr. Barlow and another member were deputed to present it. They immediately undertook and executed their commission. Barlow was received in France with great respect, and the convention soon after conferred upon him the rights of a French citizen. As the revolutionary symptoms in England had attracted the attention of

government, and an official enquiry had been set on foot respecting Barlow's mission, he deemed it unsafe to return to England, and fixed his residence, for a time, in France. In the latter part of this year he accompanied his friend Gregoire, and a deputation of the national convention, who were sent to organize the newly-acquired territory of Savoy, as a department of the republic. He passed the winter at Chambery, the capital of Savoy, where, at the request of his legislative friends, he wrote an address to the people of Piedmont, inciting them to throw off their allegiance "to the man of Turin, who called himself their king." This was immediately translated into French and Italian, and circulated widely through the whole of Piedmont, but without producing much popular effect. The rest of the winter was passed in the more peaceable employment of composing a mock heroic poem in three cantos, entitled "*Hasty Pudding*," one of the happiest and most popular of his productions. From Savoy he returned to Paris, where he continued to reside for about three years. During this, as well as his subsequent residence in Paris, with the exception of a translation of Volney's *Ruins*, his literary labours appear to have been nearly suspended, and he engaged in several plans of commercial speculation. His connection with public men, and knowledge of political affairs, together with the great advantages of credit and of personal safety which he derived from his character of a friendly neutral, enabled him to profit by those great and sudden fluctuations in the value of every species of property which arose from the disjointed state of public affairs, the rapid depreciation of the *assignats*, and the frequent sales of confiscated estates.

About the year 1795 Barlow was sent as an agent on private, legal, and commercial business, to the north of Europe, and, soon after his return, was appointed American consul at Algiers, with powers to negotiate a treaty of peace with the dey, and to redeem all American citizens held in slavery on the coast of Barbary. He immediately proceeded on this mission, through Spain, to Algiers. Here he soon concluded a treaty with the dey, in spite of numerous obstacles thrown in his way by the agents of several of the European powers. In the beginning of the next year, he negotiated a similar treaty with Tripoli, and redeemed and sent home all the American prisoners whom he could discover among the captives of the Barbary powers. These humane exertions were made with great hazard and danger, sometimes, it is said, even at the risk of his life.

In 1797 he resigned his consulship, and returned to Paris, where he engaged in some very successful commercial speculations, and acquired a considerable fortune. As long as France retained the forms of a free constitution, he regarded it as his adopted country, and invested a large portion of his property in landed estates. Among other purchases which he made was that of the splendid hotel of the count Clermont de Tonniere, in Paris, in which he lived for some years, in an elegant and even sumptuous manner. On the rupture between his native country and France occasioned by the maritime spoliations of the later, Barlow exerted all his influence and abilities to bring about an adjustment of differences. To assist in attaining this end, he published a "*Letter to the People of the United States, on the measures of Mr. Adams's Administration*." At the same period, he drew up and presented a memoir to the French

government, in which he boldly denounces the whole system of privateering as mere sea robbery.

After an absence of nearly seventeen years, Barlow returned to his native country in the spring of 1805. After visiting several parts of the United States, he purchased a beautiful situation in the neighbourhood of Georgetown, but within the limits of the city of Washington, where he built a handsome house, and lived in an elegant and hospitable manner. Early in 1806 he drew up a prospectus of a great national academy, to be established under the immediate protection of government, printed it at his own expense, and circulated it widely. In 1808 "*The Columbiad*," which had been the labour of half his life, and had been gradually expanded from the "*Vision of Columbus*" to the bulk of a quarto, made its appearance in the most magnificent volume which had ever issued from the American press, adorned by a number of fine engravings, executed in London by the first artists. It was inscribed, in an elegant and affectionate dedication, to Robert Fulton, the celebrated engineer. The high price at which "*The Columbiad*" was sold by no means fitted it to the condition of the literary market in the United States. Only a few copies were purchased. In spite of these aids, "*The Columbiad*" never acquired the popularity which the "*Vision of Columbus*" enjoyed. It aspires to the dignity of a philosophical poem, and the narrative part is nearly overwhelmed by political declamation and philosophical discussions, and is deformed by pedantic and uncouth words of the author's own coinage. There are, besides, other faults, both of plan and execution, of a more serious character. After the appearance of "*The Columbiad*," Barlow employed himself in making large collections of historical documents, and preparing the plan of a general history of the United States of North America, a work which he had long meditated. In the midst of these pursuits he was, in 1811, nominated by the president minister plenipotentiary to the French government, and soon after sailed for France.

He applied himself with great diligence to the duties of his new station, and to negotiating a treaty of commerce and indemnification for former spoliations. In October, 1812, he was invited by the duke de Bassano to a conference with the emperor Napoleon, at Wilna. He immediately set off on his mission, travelling day and night. The weather was unusually severe, and the whole country through which he passed, after leaving France, was so wasted by contending armies as scarcely to afford him a comfortable meal. In a state of exhaustion, from want of food and sleep, the sudden changes from extreme cold to the excessive heat of the small and crowded cottages of the Jews, the only taverns in Poland, produced a violent inflammation in the lungs. He rapidly sunk into a state of extreme debility and torpor, from which he never recovered. He died, Dec. 22d, 1812, at Zarnawica, an obscure village in Poland, in the neighbourhood of Cracow.

Mr. Barlow was of an amiable disposition: his manners were grave and dignified. In mixed company he was generally silent, and often absent. He had no facility or sprightliness of general conversation; but, on subjects which happened to excite him, he talked with interest and animation, and, among his intimate acquaintance, is said to have sometimes displayed a talent for pleasantry and humour.



All his prose writings bear the stamp of an active, acute, and nervous mind, confident in its own strength, and accustomed to great intrepidity of opinion. His political and moral speculations are often original, always ingenious, but deficient in those comprehensive views, and that ripeness of judgment, which are required by the complex nature of the subjects he examines.

BARNAVE, ANTOINE PIERRE JOSEPH MARIE, deputy to the states-general of France, a distinguished orator, and a zealous adherent and early victim of the revolution. He was born at Grenoble in 1761, being the son of a rich *procureur*. He was of the protestant religion, became a lawyer, was chosen a deputy of the *tiers etat* to the assembly of the states-general, and showed himself an open enemy to the court. The constituent assembly appointed him their secretary, member of the committee for the colonies, also of the diplomatic committee, and in January 1791, their president. After the flight of the king, he was almost the only one who remained calm. He defended Lafayette against the charge of being privy to this step, and, after the arrest of the royal family, was sent with Petion and Latour-Maubourg, to meet them, and conduct them to Paris. The sight of their misfortunes, and the profanation of the royal dignity, seemed to have made a profound impression on his mind.

Barnave treated his captives with the respect due to their rank and misfortunes, and his reports were unaccompanied with remarks. From this moment a visible change in his principles was observed. He defended the inviolability of the royal person, and painted the fatal disasters which threatened the state. He opposed the ordinance which enjoined strong measures against the refractory priests; and succeeded, though with difficulty, in obtaining the repeal of the severe decree relating to the colonies. His influence continually declined, and he was entirely given up by the revolutionary party. When the correspondence of the court fell into the hands of the victorious party, they pretended to have found documents which showed him to have been secretly connected with it, and he was guillotined Nov. 29, 1793.

BARNES, JOSHUA, a celebrated Greek scholar. He was born in 1654, and received his grammatical education at Christ's Hospital, and was admitted into Emmanuel College at Cambridge in 1671. He was elected a fellow in 1678, took the degree of bachelor of divinity in 1688, and in 1695 was chosen Greek professor in that university. A Mrs. Mason, a widow resident at Hemmingford, near St. Ives, became a great admirer of his learning, and intimated her purpose of leaving him an annuity of 100*l*. "Upon this hint he spoke," and secured the widow herself, with a jointure of 200*l*. per annum. He lived about twelve years after his marriage, and died on the 3rd of August, 1712. The learning of Barnes was very extensive, and his pen remarkably ready and prolific. His principal publications were a volume of Latin and English poems, most of which were composed during his attendance at Christ's Hospital, and before he had completed the seventeenth year of his age; a poetical paraphrase of the book of Esther in Greek verse, with a Latin translation and Greek notes; a "History of Edward III.," in which he imitates the ancient historians, and puts long elaborate speeches into the mouths of the principal personages;

all the works of Euripides, with a preliminary dissertation on the life and writings of that poet; the works of Anacraon, with a Latin translation and notes, a life of the poet, and a dissertation on lyric poetry.

BARNEVELDT, JOHN VAN OLDEN, grand pensionary of Holland, a man of eminent talents and the simplest manners, a martyr to duty and republican principles, and an example of virtue such as history seldom presents us. He was born in 1549, and early showed himself zealous for the independence of the United Provinces, which had thrown off the yoke of Spain. As advocate-general of the province of Holland, he displayed profound views, and the services of thirty years established his high reputation. He preserved his country against the ambition of Leicester, penetrated the secret plans of Maurice of Nassau, whom his fellow-citizens had elevated to the post of stadtholder; and his marked distrust of this prince placed him at the head of the republican party, which aimed to make the stadtholder subordinate to the legislative power. Spain, at that time, made proposals for peace through the archduke, governor of the Netherlands. Barneveldt was appointed plenipotentiary on this occasion, and evinced alike the skill of a statesman and the firmness of a republican.

Maurice of Nassau, whose interest led him to prefer a war, laboured to prevent the establishment of peace; and Barneveldt, perceiving this, was induced only by the most urgent solicitations of the states to retain the office which had been assigned to him, and at last concluded in 1609 an armistice with Spain for the term of twelve years, in which the independence of Holland was acknowledged. His influence now became still greater, and he was more and more an object of jealousy to the house of Nassau. The hostile spirit of the opposite parties in the state was further increased by theological difficulties. In order to prevent a civil war, Barneveldt proposed an ecclesiastical council, which resolved upon a general toleration in respect to the points in question. The states acceded at first to this wise measure, but, at a later period, the machinations of the Nassau party persuaded them to adopt other views. This party represented the Arminians as secret friends of Spain.

Barneveldt was now attacked in pamphlets, and, even in the assembly of the states, was insulted by the people, of whom Maurice had become the idol. As he could not hope any longer to stay the torrent, and foresaw the fate which awaited him, he again determined to resign his office; but the solicitations of his friends, and his love for his country, prevailed anew over all other considerations. Maurice insisted upon a general synod, with a view as he pretended of putting an end to all religious quarrels; but Barneveldt persuaded the states to oppose this measure, the consequences of which were evident. Troops were now levied without the consent of Maurice to re-establish order in the cities where the Gomarists had excited disturbances. On the other side, the Nassau party redoubled its attacks upon Barneveldt, who, in answer to them, published that celebrated memorial in which he warns the United Provinces of the danger which threatened them from the other party. Maurice, however, procured the assembling of a synod at Dort, in 1618, to which almost all the Calvinistic churches of Europe sent de-



puties. They condemned the Arminians with the most unjust severity, and Maurice was encouraged by their sentence to adopt violent measures.

Against the wishes of the states, he caused Barneveldt and other leading men of the Arminians to be arrested; and twenty-six bribed judges condemned to death, as a traitor, the man to whom his country owed its political existence and who disdained to implore mercy. Vain were the remonstrances of the widowed princess of Orange<sup>and</sup> of the French ambassador; in vain did the friends and relations of the patriot exclaim against the sentence. Maurice remained firm in his evil purpose.

On the 13th of May, 1619, this venerable patriot ascended the scaffold, and suffered death with the same firmness which he had evinced under all the circumstances of his life. His two sons formed a conspiracy against the tyrant. William the principal agitator escaped; but Reinier was taken and executed. His mother, after his condemnation, threw herself at the feet of Maurice to beg for mercy, and, to his question why she humbled herself thus for the sake of her son when she had not done it for her husband, made this memorable reply:—"I did not ask pardon for my husband, because he was innocent: I ask it for my son, because he is guilty."

**BARNEY, JOSHUA**, a distinguished naval commander in the service of the United States of America, was born in Baltimore, Maryland, July 6, 1759. His parents lived on a farm between the town and North Point, where he was sent to school until ten years of age. He was then put into a retail shop at Alexandria, but, soon becoming tired of that occupation, returned to Baltimore in 1771, and insisted on going to sea. He first went out in a pilot-boat with a friend of his father, and afterwards made several voyages to different places in Ireland and the continent of Europe. In the last of them, the care of the ship devolved upon him, though but sixteen years of age, in consequence of the illness of the captain and the discharge of the mate. He remained in the command eight months, and finally returned to Baltimore. At that period, the war having commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, Barney offered his services to the latter, and obtained the situation of master's mate in the sloop of war *Hornet*, commanded by Captain William Stone. He carried the first flag of the United States seen in Maryland, whilst beating up for volunteers for the vessel.

In 1775 the *Hornet* joined the fleet of Commodore Hopkins, which sailed to New Providence, one of the Bahama islands, captured the town and fort, and the vessels in the harbour, and returned to the Delaware, having given the island up again, after securing the canon, powder, shells, mortar, &c. In 1776, when not yet seventeen years of age, he was presented with a lieutenant's commission by Robert Morris, president of the marine committee, on account of his conduct whilst serving in the schooner *Wasp*, in the Delaware Bay, during an action between the English brig *Tender* and that vessel, which resulted in the capture of the former under the very guns of two of the British ships. Soon after that affair he sailed in the *Sachem*, Captain Isaiah Robinson, in the capacity of lieutenant, and brought into port an English brig, taken after a severe action of two hours.

On returning from the West Indies, the *Sachem*, *Andrew Doria*, and *Lexington*, made two prizes, on

board of one of which Barney was placed as prize-master. But, after beating about several days in a heavy gale of wind, he was captured by the *Perseus* of twenty guns. The captain of the British vessel exchanged his prisoners at Charleston, South Carolina. In the spring of 1777 Barney again joined the *Andrew Doria*, and took part in the defence of the Delaware. He was afterwards ordered to Baltimore to join the Virginia frigate, Captain Nicholson, but, in attempting to get her to sea, the pilot ran her on shore, and she was captured by the British.

The United States having no vessels at this time out of the Middle States, Barney accepted the offer of his old friend and commander, Captain Robinson, in November, 1778, to go with him from Alexandria in a ship with a letter of marque. After a severe action with the privateer *Rosebud*, they arrived at Bourdeaux, took a cargo of brandy, mounted eighteen guns, and shipped seventy men. On their return they made a valuable prize after a running fight of nearly two days. In 1780 he married the daughter of Alderman Bedford, and in the following month, whilst going to Baltimore, was robbed of all his fortune, which he had with him in paper money. He returned to Philadelphia without mentioning his loss, and soon after entered on board the United States ship *Saratoga* of sixteen guns, commanded by Captain James Young. The same year he was taken prisoner by the British, and sent to Plymouth, where he was confined in the Mill Prison some time, when he escaped in a British officer's undress uniform. He was retaken, but escaped again, and arrived in Philadelphia in March 1782. A few days afterwards, the state of Pennsylvania gave him the command of the *Hyder Ally*, a small ship of sixteen guns, in which he proceeded down the bay with a convoy.

Barney was then sent with despatches to Doctor Franklin in Paris. He was well received at the French court, and returned to Philadelphia with a valuable loan from the French king—a large sum of money in chests of gold and barrels of silver—and brought with him a passport signed by our own sovereign, and the information that the preliminaries of peace were signed.

In 1795 Barney received the commission of captain in the French service, and commanded a French squadron, but in 1800 resigned his command and returned to America. In 1812, when war was declared against Great Britain, he offered his services to the general government, and in 1813 was appointed to the command of the Flotilla for the defence of the Chesapeake. During the summer of 1814, whilst in that situation, he kept up an active warfare with the British until the 1st of July, when he was ordered to Washington, to consult about the expected invasion, and the means of defending the capital. On the 16th the British entered the Patuxent; and on the 21st the commodore landed most of his men, and joined General Winder at the Woodyard, where he found Captain Miller and his marines, with five pieces of artillery, which were placed under his command. He proceeded with his force to the city, and was ordered to protect the bridge; but the next day, with the permission of the president, he set out for Bladensburg, with his guns and men, to join the army. He had scarcely reached the field of battle when he perceived the Americans in full retreat, and the British advancing.



He, however, kept up a brisk fire upon the British for some time, but was at length obliged to order a retreat, when in great danger of being surrounded by our troops, and having himself received a wound in the thigh.

In withdrawing he fell, from weakness caused by loss of blood, and was found in this situation by our troops, by whom he was treated with kindness, and carried in a litter to the town of Bladensburg. His wife, one of his sons, and his surgeon, came to him on the 27th of August, and after a night's rest carried him home. The wound had been probed by the English surgeons, but without finding the ball. His surgeon was equally unsuccessful, and it was never extracted. The corporation of Washington voted him a sword, and the legislature of Georgia passed a vote of thanks to him for his conduct. The following May he was sent on a mission to Europe, and returned in October to Baltimore, where he found himself crippled by his wound. After remaining in his farm at Elkridge until his strength was restored, he removed to Baltimore, but, in the course of a few months, came to the determination of emigrating with his family to Kentucky. He set out in consequence, having made every necessary preparation, but at Pittsburg was taken ill, and died December 1st, 1818, in the sixtieth year of his age.

**BAROCCIO, or BAROZZI, FREDERIC**, a celebrated painter of the Roman school, who was born at Urbino in 1528. He studied at Venice, and copied much from Titian. When he went to Rome, Raphael exerted the same influence over him which Titian had done before. He afterwards endeavoured to adopt the style of Correggio, but not with equal success. His colouring remained monotonous. Mengs censures him for always representing objects as if they were seen in the air between transparent clouds, and for endeavouring to make the most opposite colours harmonize merely by means of the light. He is not free from mannerism. Among his best works are the "Flight of Æneas, or the conflagration of Troy," engraved by Agostino Carracci, and to be found in the old gallery Borgnese.

**BARON, MICHAEL**, a celebrated French actor, born at Paris in 1652, equally successful in tragedy and comedy. Preachers are said to have attended in a grated box to study his action. Such was his vanity that he said every century produced a Cæsar, but it required 2000 years to produce a Baron. He died in 1729.

**BARONIUS, CÆSAR**.—This eminent scholar was born at Sora, in the kingdom of Naples, October 30, 1538. He received his early education in Naples, and in 1557 went to Rome, where he was one of the first pupils of St. Philip of Neri, and member of the congregation of priests of the oratorio founded by him; he afterwards became cardinal and librarian of the Vatican library. He owed these dignities to the services which he rendered the Catholic church by his "Ecclesiastical Annals," on which he laboured, with indefatigable assiduity, from the year 1580 until his death, in June, 1607. They comprise a rich collection of genuine documents from the papal archives, and are, therefore, of great use to the student of ecclesiastical history, but contain many false statements and unauthentic documents, and the air of sincerity which prevails throughout is calculated to give very erroneous ideas of the papal administration of the church. They

are principally written to confute the "Centuries of Magdeburg," and to prove that the doctrines and the constitution of the church had remained the same from the beginning. These "Annales Ecclesiastici a Christo nato ad A. 1198, a C. Baronio," were often reprinted, with the corrections of the author. At Mentz, an edition was commenced in 1601, in twelve volumes, folio. The Antwerp edition, however, begun in 1589, is handsomer, but does not contain the treatise "De Monarchia Siciliæ," which contests the ecclesiastical privileges of the king of Sicily, known by the above name, and therefore was forbidden by the Spanish court. Many errors, particularly chronological, were corrected by the Franciscan, Anthony Pagi, in his excellent criticism on the work. Other Catholic writers have also mentioned his errors, against which the censures of the Protestants have been more particularly directed.

**BARRAS, PAUL FRANÇOIS JEAN NICHOLAS, COMPTE DE**, a celebrated member of the national convention, who was born at Foix, in Provence, June 30, 1755, of the family of Barras, whose antiquity in Provence had become a proverb. He served as second lieutenant in the regiment of Languedoc until 1775, when he made a voyage to the Isle-de-France, the governor of which was one of his relations, and entered into the garrison of Pondicherry. He afterwards served in Suffren's squadron, and at the Cape of Good Hope. At his return he gave himself up to gambling, and by this means dissipated his fortune. The revolution broke out. He immediately showed himself an opponent of the court, and had a seat in the *tiers-état*, whilst his brother was sitting in that of the nobility. July 14, 1789, he took part in the attack upon the Bastille, and August 10, 1792, upon the Tuileries. He was afterwards elected a jurymen at the tribunal of Orleans, and, in September, a member of the national convention, where he voted for the death of Louis XVI. Although he had established his reputation as a republican, yet he displeased Robespierre, who resolved to involve him in the great proscription which he then meditated. On this account Barras joined the members of the committee, who also foresaw the danger which awaited them, and were determined to strike an effectual blow, and overthrow their oppressor. He therefore took an important part in the events of July 27, 1794. He was entrusted with the chief command of the forces of his party, repelled the troops of Henriot, and made himself master of Robespierre. In October, 1795, when the troops of the sections which favoured the royal cause approached the convention, Barras, for a second time, received the chief command of the troops of the convention, and the battalion of the patriots, who hastened to their assistance. On this occasion, he employed General Buonaparte, whose services were of the highest importance to him. In his report he attributed the victory to this young general, and, a few days after, procured for him the chief command of the army of the interior. His important services promoted him to the directory; and it is said that Buonaparte owed to him the command of the army of Italy. However this may be, Barras soon perceived that Buonaparte would give a decisive superiority to him who should obtain an influence over him; and, therefore, he displaced Carnot from the war department, and took possession of it himself. This se-



parated them, and Carnot, for some time, took part with the council, where a party had been formed to restrain the power of the directory, and particularly that of Barras. The rupture could only terminate with the ruin of one of the parties; that of the council fell by the events of the 4th of September, 1797, in which Barras took a leading part. From this period he governed absolutely until June 13, 1799, when Sieyès entered the directory. Nevertheless, Barras succeeded in preserving his seat, whilst Merlin de Douay, Treillard, and La Réveillère-Lepeaux were compelled to give in their resignation. He himself became a victim of the proceedings of the 9th of November. He resigned his office, and received, upon his request, from the first consul, a passport to his estate. He afterwards retired to Brussels, where he lived for several years; but, finally, received permission to repair to the south of France. He died in January, 1829.

**BARRERE, BERTRAND, DE VIEUZAC.**—This individual was born on the 10th of September, 1755, at Tarbes, of a respectable family, and first attracted attention by his easy and elegant delivery. In 1789 he was chosen deputy to the states-general, where he openly expressed his republican principles. He was afterwards elected president of the convention. Louis XVI. was examined, for the first time, under the presidency of Barrere, who voted for his death. As he spoke on all the measures of the reign of terror in flowery and poetical language, he was called *L'Anacreon de la guillotine!* On the day previous to Robespierre's fall, Barrere pronounced his eulogy; but, when he saw that the convention declared itself against him, he deserted him, took part in the proceedings of the 9th Thermidor, and preserved, by this means, some influence. He appeared, on all occasions, a zealous defender of Napoleon, yet without playing any important part during his reign. In 1815 he was banished, like all the regicides, who had entered into the service of Napoleon after his return from Elba, and died shortly after in exile.

**BARRINGTON, DAINES**, a very distinguished lawyer and naturalist. He was born in 1727, and, after the usual preparatory studies at Oxford and the Inner Temple, was called to the bar. He held several offices previous to his being appointed a Welsh judge in 1757; and he was subsequently second justice of Chester till 1785, when he resigned that post, and thenceforward lived in retirement, chiefly at his chambers in the Inner Temple, where he died in March 1800. The works of this writer are numerous, consisting of papers in the Transactions of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies, of both which learned bodies he was a fellow, "Observations on the Statutes, chiefly the more Ancient," an edition of Orosius, with the Anglo-Saxon version of King Alfred, and an English translation and notes, 1773. His "Tracts on the Probability of reaching the North Pole," published in 1775, excited much interest.

**BARRINGTON, JOHN SHUTE**, was born in 1678, and received part of his education at the university of Utrecht. On his return to London he studied law in the Inner Temple, and, in 1701, distinguished himself as a writer in favour of the civil rights of the Protestant dissenters, to which body he belonged. Being employed by Lord Somers to engage the Presbyterians of Scotland to favour the projected union between the two kingdoms, he was,

in 1708, rewarded for his services by the place of commissioner of the customs, from which he was removed by the Tory ministry of Anne. This deprivation however was of little consequence, his fortune having been secured by the bequest of two considerable estates from different persons, one of which was left him by Francis Barrington, of Tofts, Esq., whose name he assumed by act of parliament. On the accession of George I., he was chosen member of parliament for Berwick-upon-Tweed, and in 1720 was raised to the peerage by the title of Viscount Barrington, of Ardglass. In 1725 Lord Barrington published his principal work, entitled, "Miscellanea Sacra," afterwards reprinted by his son, the bishop of Durham, in three volumes, octavo, 1770. This work traces the methods taken by the apostles to propagate Christianity, of which it has been deemed a judicious defence. In the same year he published "An Essay on the several Dispensations of God to Mankind," and was also the author of various other tracts relative to toleration in matters of religion. He died in 1734, leaving several children, of whom five sons had the uncommon fortune of each rising to high stations respectively in the state, the church, the law, the army, and the navy.

**BARROS, JOAN DE**, one of the most illustrious of the Portuguese historians. He was born at Viseu in 1496, and was descended from an ancient noble family. At first one of the pages of the king Emanuel, he distinguished himself so much by his talents and address that the king selected him, at the age of seventeen, for the companion of the prince royal. He employed all his leisure time in reading Sallust, Livy, and Virgil, and is said to have written his first work in the midst of the distractions of the court, in the antichamber. It was a historical romance, entitled "The Emperor Clarimond," and was distinguished for beauty of language. Barros presented it to the king, who urged him to undertake the history of the Portuguese in India. The king died a few months after, but his orders were executed, and this historical work appeared thirty-two years later. King John III. appointed Barros governor of the Portuguese settlements in Guinea, and afterwards general agent for these colonies. He performed the duties of this office with understanding and honesty. The king presented him, in 1530, with the province of Maranhão in Brazil, for the purpose of colonization, but he lost a great part of his fortune by the enterprise, and returned the province to the king, who indemnified him for his losses. At the age of seventy-two years, he retired to his estate at Alitem, where he died after three years. His work "L'Azia Portuguesa," upon the doings of the Portuguese in India, consists of forty books, and probably will always remain a standard work in this department of literature. He wrote, besides, a moral dialogue, "Rhopicancuma," in which he shows the pernicious consequences of accommodating principles to circumstances; but this work was prohibited by the inquisition. He also wrote a dialogue on false modesty, and a Portuguese grammar, the first ever published.

**BARROW, ISAAC**, an eminent mathematician and divine, who was the son of Mr. Thomas Barrow, a respectable citizen and linen-draper of London, in which city he was born in 1630. His childhood gave no presage of his future celebrity; for, at the Charter-house, where he was educated, he was



chiefly remarkable for fighting and neglect of study. Being removed to a school at Felsted, in Essex, he began to show some earnest of his future great reputation. He was subsequently entered a pensioner of Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he was chosen a scholar, in 1647. The ejection of his uncle, the bishop of St. Asaph, from his fellowship at Peterhouse, in consequence of his adherence to the royal party, and the great losses sustained by his father in the same cause, left him in a very unprovided condition. His good disposition and great attainments, however, so won upon his superiors, that, although he refused to subscribe to the covenant, he was very highly regarded. In 1649 he was elected fellow of his college, and, finding that opinions in church and state opposite to his own now prevailed, proceeded some length in the study of anatomy, botany, and chemistry, with a view to the medical profession. He however changed his mind, and to the study of divinity joined that of mathematics and astronomy, unbending his mind by the cultivation of poetry, to which he was always much attached. In 1652 he graduated as M. A. at Oxford, and, being disappointed in his endeavours to obtain the Greek professorship at Cambridge, engaged in a plan of foreign travel. He set out in 1655; and, during his absence, his first work, an edition of Euclid's Elements, was published at Cambridge.

He visited France and Italy, where he embarked for Smyrna; and, the ship in which he sailed being attacked by an Algerine corsair, he stood manfully to the guns until the enemy was beaten off. From Smyrna he proceeded to Constantinople, returned, in 1659, by way of Germany and Holland, and was soon after episcopally ordained by bishop Brownrigg. In 1660 he was elected Greek professor at the university of Cambridge, without a competitor. At the recommendation of Dr. Wilkins, afterwards bishop of Chester, he was, in 1662, chosen professor of geometry in Gresham College, and, in 1663, the Royal Society elected him a member of that body, in the first choice after their incorporation. The same year he was appointed the first Lucasian professor of mathematics at Cambridge, on which occasion he delivered an excellent prefatory lecture on the utility of mathematical science. In 1669, on a conscientious principle of duty, he determined to give up mathematics, and adhere exclusively to divinity. Accordingly, after publishing his celebrated "Lectiones Opticæ," he resigned his chair to a successor worthy of him—the great Newton.

In 1670 he was created D. D. by mandate, and in 1672 the king nominated him to the mastership of Trinity College, observing that he had bestowed it on the best scholar in England. He had, before this, refused a living, given him with a view to secure his services as a tutor to the son of the gentleman who had it to bestow, because he deemed such a contract simoniacal; and he now, with similar conscientiousness, had a clause in his patent of master, allowing him to marry, erased, because incompatible with the intentions of the founder. In 1675 he was chosen vice-chancellor of the university of Cambridge; but the credit and utility expected from his labours were frustrated by his untimely death, from a violent fever, in May, 1677, in the forty-seventh year of his age. The works of Dr. Barrow, both mathematical and theological, are of the highest class. Of the former, the following are the principal:—"Euclidis

Elementa," Cantab.; "Euclidis Data," Cantab.; "Lectiones Opticæ," Lond.; "Lectiones Geometricæ," Lond.; "Archimedis Opera, Apollonii Conicorum;" "Theodosii Sphericorum, lib. iii. Nova Methodo illustrata et Succincte Demonstrata;" "Lectio in qua Theoremata Archimedis de Sphæra et Cylindro per Methodum Indivisibilium Investigata, &c.;" "Mathematicæ Lectiones." The two 1st works were not published till after his death.

As a mathematician, especially in the higher geometry, Barrow was deemed inferior only to Newton: as a divine he was singularly distinguished for depth and copiousness of thought; and he so exhausted the subjects which he treated in his sermons that Charles II. used to call him an unfair preacher, for leaving nothing to be said after him. Le Clerc speaks of his sermons as exact dissertations rather than addresses to the people; and, although unusually long, they so abounded in matter that his language sometimes laboured in the expression of it, whence his style is occasionally involved and parenthetical. Passages of sublime and simple eloquence, however, frequently occur; and, although his divinity is less read now than formerly, it is not unfrequently resorted to as a mine of excellent thoughts and arguments. A fine specimen of his characteristic copiousness is quoted, by Addison, from his sermon "On Vain and Idle Talking," in which the various forms and guises of wit are enumerated with a felicity of expression which it would be difficult to parallel.

BARRY, MARIE JEANNE GOMART DE VAUBERNIER, COMTESSE DU, the celebrated mistress of Louis XV., king of France, daughter of a commissioner of the customs at Vauconleurs, named *Gomart de Vaubernier*. She was born in 1744, and, after the death of her father, entered the service of a milliner at Paris, afterwards belonged to the establishment of the notorious Gourdan, where she was known by the name of *Mlle. Lange*, and became the mistress of the count du Barry, who built high hopes upon her charms. By a refinement in licentiousness he managed to make her known to the king, and she soon took the place of the marchioness de Pompadour. The king deemed it necessary to find her a husband, and she fell to the lot of the count du Barry, a brother of the one above mentioned.

The countess du Barry was now publicly introduced at court. She soon governed all France, caused the ruin of the duke de Choiseul, whose haughty spirit would not bend before her, promoted the duke d'Aiguillon, and assisted him to take revenge on the parliament, which was, in 1771, driven from Paris, and afterwards entirely suppressed. Yet we ought not to ascribe to her the evils of which she was only the instrument in the hands of intriguing counsellors. She herself loved pleasure more than intrigue. After the death of the king, she was banished to an abbey near Meaux, but afterwards received permission to reside in her beautiful pavilion near Marley. She lived quietly, during the revolution, until Robespierre's dominion. But her riches, and her connection with the Brissotists, caused her ruin. She was placed at the bar of the revolutionary tribunal, condemned to death, and executed, December 6, 1793. On her way to the scaffold, her prayers for mercy were incessant; her eyes were bathed in tears; she uttered loud shrieks, and implored the compassion of the people. Her cry was still heard at the moment of her execution:—"Monsieur le bourreau, encore un



*moment.* It has been observed that, among all the women condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal, she was the only one that showed excessive fear in her last moments.

**BARRY, GIRALD**, or **GIRALDUS CAMBRENSIS**, a celebrated English topographer. He was born at Pembroke in South Wales about 1146, being descended from a family allied to the princes of the country. After an early education at home, he was sent to France for improvement, and on his return home obtained various ecclesiastical preferments. At thirty years of age he was chosen bishop of St. David's, in succession to his uncle; but, satisfied that King Henry II. would not confirm the election of a native Welshman, he declined the preferment. He then returned to Paris, in order to study civil and canon law, and, returning in 1180, was entrusted with the administration of the see of St. David's for three or four years, on the tumultuary expulsion of the bishop. In 1184 Henry II. appointed him his chaplain, and attended much to his advice on Welsh affairs. The next year he accompanied prince John to Ireland, and was offered the united sees of Ferns and Leighlin; but, disapproving of the measures of John, he again declined the preferment, and chiefly occupied himself in collecting materials for his "*Topography of Ireland.*"

Returning to Wales in 1187, Giraldus assiduously employed himself in writing that work, and, when it was finished, went to Oxford, and publicly read it for three days running, during which he sumptuously feasted the members of the university, the citizens, soldiers, inhabitants, and poor. In 1188 he accompanied the primate Baldwin in a tour through Wales, to preach up the crusade, the best result of which journey was his "*Itinerary of Wales.*" During the expedition of Richard I. he was of much assistance to William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, in the management of Wales, but upon some disgust he retired from court, and spent six years at Lincoln in study and in writing. He was afterwards much engaged in an endeavour to become bishop of St. David's, always the chief object of his ambition; but he was defeated after much anxiety and vexation. In 1215 he might have been nominated to that see, but refused it on the proffered terms, and soon after retired into a monastery, where he died about 1220.

**BARRY, JAMES, R. A.**—This eminent artist was born in the city of Cork, where he received a very liberal education, but that city had no school of painting, and nothing beyond a house-painter was known; and yet, in despite of every disadvantage naturally arising from a want of any direct instructions, he designed and painted a picture which immediately proclaimed him to be possessed of no common abilities, and also procured him the patronage and support of several of the leading men of Ireland. As he could derive little or no benefit from the exhibition of his picture at Cork, he, accompanied by a friend and schoolfellow, proceeded to Dublin, where he arrived on the eve of an exhibition of a society, the parent of our Society of Arts at the Adelphi, and going to their rooms without even a solitary letter of recommendation, and in company only of his friend, he at once obtained his request to have his picture placed for exhibition. When the exhibition opened, all eyes were fixed upon the "*Baptism of the King of Cashell,*" for that was the name of his painting. The applause was general,

and the company were at a loss who could be the artist, never having heard of Barry before, and, when he proclaimed himself as the painter, he was treated with derision, and considered as an impostor; for his youth, being then no more than nineteen, and boyish appearance, indicated no such capabilities. The society at whose exhibition he had thus suddenly shone so conspicuously voted him the sum of 20*l.*, and three eminent members of the Irish Commons bought the picture, and presented it to the House as an honour to Ireland; but, unfortunately, it is now no longer in existence, having been consumed by the fire that destroyed the Dublin House of Parliament.

From this time also must be dated the commencement of that friendship between Barry and Burke which so much redounds to the honour of the latter. Burke immediately offered all the assistance in his power to enable him to reach London, and it was on this occasion that Barry first showed that independence of feeling which distinguished him in after-life, by refusing assistance of any kind, and he did not come to London till he had earned a sufficiency by his own exertions. Burke also induced him to visit Italy, where the vast powers of Barry's genius were fully developed by the study and contemplation of those relics of antiquity, and the remains of those specimens of Italy's golden days, which still render that classic country so dear to real lovers of art and literature. After five years' absence he returned to England, and claimed the admiration of the public by his productions founded on the model of the antique, yet possessing that degree of originality that he could not be accused of mannerism, or being a mere copyist. He was chosen professor of painting to the Academy, and in that office he attempted to model a real Historical School of Painting; but what are the efforts of the greatest genius if not ably supported? He endeavoured to reason with his fellow academicians, to appropriate some part of the accumulating fund derived from their exhibitions to the purchase and establishment of a gallery of choice paintings from the old masters, for the benefit of the students. This was a request which was but reasonable, and to be expected from such a mind, but his fellow academicians, at least the majority, were not gifted with the same powers of mind and ardent love of their profession; for, from this magnanimous attempt to embody all that was excellent for the benefit and advantage of future artists, and for the honour of the country, he was expelled the academy!

Shortly after this event, the earl of Buchan set on foot a subscription for him, which amounted to about 1000*l.* With this sum it was intended to purchase an annuity, when the object of their bounty was seized with a pleuritic fever, of which he died on the 22d of February, 1806, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

An ingenious biographer thus sums up the character of the subject of this article:—"As an artist, Barry was distinguished by the grandeur of his conceptions, and the general magnificence of his designs. Glowing with the enthusiasm of genius, and impressed with an early conviction of the paramount importance of his art, he pursued, with indefatigable ardour, whatever could be made even remotely subservient to his professional improvement. He beheld the face of nature with the exquisite rapture of a poet; and, while he contemplated its magnificent



or tranquil scenes, felt his mind expand with the finest conceptions of grandeur and of beauty. He read, with all the interest of a kindred mind, the works of our most classical bards, and had completely digested and appropriated whatever was most pleasing or exalted in their descriptions. But his favourite study was history, which presented to his discriminating eye all the varieties of character, action, and passion, and furnished valuable hints for his direction in the high style of historical painting. The monuments of Grecian sculpture, which he contemplated in Italy with almost idolatrous admiration, led him to the study of mythology, in which he acquired the skill and taste of an accomplished critic. And his early education, aided by the religious subjects of the Italian paintings, gave his mind so strong a bias for theology that there was scarcely a fact in its history with which he was not acquainted. All these accomplishments were considered by himself as mere auxiliaries to his art; and their advantage is sufficiently apparent in his paintings, which, however deficient in correctness and execution, are allowed by all to be almost unrivalled in the sublimity of idea and vast reach of thought expressed in their design. But his varied acquisitions appear with still more admirable effect in his writings, which contain more acute and able criticisms on the various styles and productions of the great masters in painting, and more judicious rules for the practice of that art, than any work of the same kind that has ever been given to the world. How much is it to be regretted that such an artist had not been enabled, by the independence of his circumstances, to follow out, without distraction, his own magnificent ideas, or that the sternness and irritability of his temper prevented him from reaping the full advantage of his superiority! In justice to his character, however, we must observe that, though thus repulsive and irascible, he was by no means deficient in the better qualities of the heart. He was susceptible of the warmest friendship; and, had not his mind been soured by dependence and misfortune, might have been a cheerful and engaging companion. His honesty, his candour, and his sincerity, were proverbial; and his desires were so moderate and well regulated that he could submit, without repining, to privations which few men in polished life could even sustain."

**BARTHELEMI, JOHN JAMES**, a distinguished literary character, who was born in 1716 at Cassis, a sea-port in Provence. At twelve years of age he was sent to school at Marseilles, from which he was transferred to the seminary of the Jesuits, where he ultimately received the tonsure. Not being satisfied with the course of application in this establishment, he formed to himself an additional plan of private study, comprehending the Greek, Chaldean, and Hebrew languages, which he pursued with a degree of ardour that brought on a dangerous illness. While thus engaged, he became acquainted with a young Maronite then resident at Marseilles, by whose assistance he learned the Arabic language, and such was his proficiency that he enabled himself to commit to memory and deliver several Arabic sermons to a body of Arabian and Armenian catholics at Marseilles. Having finished his studies, he retired to his family at Aubagne, but passed a great part of his time with M. Carey, who possessed a choice cabinet of medals, and in whose society he seems to

have imbibed that predilection for the study of ancient history and literature by which he was afterwards so much distinguished. In 1744 he went to Paris with a letter of recommendation to M. Boze, keeper of the royal medals, with whom he was soon formally associated in the care and arrangement of the cabinet. In 1747 he was elected associate of the Academy of Inscriptions, and on the death of M. de Boze succeeded him as keeper of the king's medals. In the succeeding year M. de Stainville, afterwards duke of Choiseul, being appointed ambassador to Rome, invited the abbé to accompany him. His engagements would not allow him to attend the ambassador in his journey, but he joined him at Rome in the autumn, and, after being presented to Pope Benedict XIV., made the tour of Naples. Here he viewed the subterraneous treasures of Herculaneum and Pompeii, and distinguished himself on his return to Rome by a new and ably-supported explanation of the celebrated Mosaic at Palestrina, which he was of opinion related not to Sylla, but to the emperor Adrian.

When M. de Stainville, then duke of Choiseul, became minister in 1758, one of his first cares was to provide for the abbé, whose moderation was more than gratified by several successive pensions and the place of secretary-general of the Swiss. When in 1771 Choiseul was banished to his seat at Chanteloup, to make way for Aiguillon, Barthelemi followed him, and, on the duke's dismissal, resolved to resign his place of secretary. Advised by the duke to go to court and give it up in person, on his unalterable resolution to retreat with his patron, he was allowed to retain a pension of 10,000 livres on the appointment. At this time his income was 35,000 livres per annum, which he expended in kindness to men of literature, in the advantageous settlement of his nephews, and in the increase of his library. After thus spending nearly twenty years of his life, he found himself, by the suppression of places and pensions, suddenly reduced to strict necessities, at a time when old age had brought with it the usual accession of infirmities. Possessed of that calm constitutional temperament which is far beyond riches, he bore this change without complaint, and even with gaiety. In 1788 appeared his celebrated work, "*The Travels of the Younger Anacharsis*," which had occupied him for a period of thirty years. It was received with universal applause, and procured him an entrance into the French academy by acclamation. In 1790 he was offered the vacant post of king's librarian, which he declined, deeming himself inadequate to the requisite duties; but he still continued to employ himself in the cabinet of medals, which, under his superintendence, had increased in number from 20,000 to 40,000. In 1792 the failure of his strength became manifest, and it was at this moment that himself, his nephews, and several other persons, were denounced as aristocrats. Being arrested at the house of Madame de Choiseul, in September 1793, he was conducted to the prison of Les Magdelonnettes, and submitted to this indignity with his usual serenity, and, a cell being prepared for him, retired quietly to repose. Madame de Choiseul and her friends so rapidly interested themselves to get the order reversed that he was released the same evening by the committee, who, ashamed of the transaction, asserted that the arrest had taken place without their knowledge. Soon after, by way of



reparation, he was offered the place of librarian in chief, but successfully pleaded his age and infirmities. He lived on, however, until April 30, 1795, on which day he was reading Horace, until the book fell from his cold hands, and, apparently yielding to sleep, he expired unobserved, in the commencement of his eightieth year. The person of Barthélemi was large and well proportioned, and his features, according to an excellent bust of him by Houdon, admirably expressed the antique simplicity and candour of his character. In many respects he resembled the best of the philosophical characters of that Greece which he so much admired. The works of the abbé Barthélemi published separately are,—1. "*Les Amours de Carite et de Polydore*," 1760 and 1796; 2. "*Lettres sur quelques Monumens Pheniciens*," 1766, 4to; 3. "*Entretiens sur l'Etat de la Musique Grecque, au Quatrieme siecle*," 1777, 8vo; 4. "*Voyage du Jeune Anacharsis*," 3 vols. 4to—7 vols. 8vo, 1788; 5. A portion of a vast medallic history, under the title of "*Paleographie Numismatique*," 3 vols folio; 6. "*Discours prononcé à l'Academie Française*," 1789, 4to; 7. "*Voyage en Italie*," 8. "*Dissertation sur une Inscription Greque*," 1792, 8vo; 9. "*Œuvres Diverses*," published by St. Croix, 1798, 2 vols. 8vo. To these are to be added many papers on subjects of classical antiquity, in the *Memoirs of the Academy*.

BARTHEZ, PAUL JOSEPH, a learned French physician, born at Montpellier, December 11, 1734. After the termination of his studies, in 1754, he went to Paris, where the cure of the count of Perigord introduced him to notice. He was received into the society of Barthélemi, Caylus, Henault, Mairan and d'Alembert. Two memoirs which he presented to the Académie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres, obtained the first prizes. He took part in the "*Journal des Savans*," and also in the "*Encyclopédie*." Recalled to Montpellier, he founded there a medical school, which acquired a reputation throughout all Europe. He also published there his "*Nouveaux Elémens de la Science de l'Homme*," which were translated into most of the European languages. But his ambition did not find sufficient food at Montpellier; he therefore returned in 1780 to Paris, where he was appointed by the king Médecin Consultant, and by the duke of Orleans his first physician, and he became a member of almost every learned Society in France. The revolution deprived him of the greatest part of his fortune and places, but Napoleon, who understood how to discover and reward merit, brought him forth again and loaded him in his advanced age with dignities and honour. He died October 15, 1806. Among his numerous writings is the one entitled "*Nouvelle Mécanique des Mouvements de l'Homme et des Animaux*."

BARTHOLINE, THOMAS.—This eminent Danish anatomist was born at Copenhagen in the year 1616, and, after receiving his classical education in that city, he travelled through the greater part of Europe. From Leyden, where he began his medical studies, he went successively to Paris, Montpellier, and Padua. After an absence of eight years, he returned to Copenhagen, and from thence he went to visit Basle, where he was honoured with the degree of doctor of medicine in 1645. The first public situation which he held was the professorship of mathematics at Copenhagen, from which he was translated in 1647 to the chair of medicine, which he filled with great credit

to himself, and with great advantage to the science. Nearly at the same time with Jolliff and Olaus Rudbeck, he discovered the lymphatics while dissecting the bodies of live dogs, and he perceived the same vessels in the liver of a fish. Fatigued with the duties of a public life he retired, in 1661, to his estate at Hoggestat, where he continued nine years, prosecuting with ardour his favourite studies. By some unfortunate accident his house caught fire in the year 1670, and, the whole of his manuscripts and valuable library being completely consumed, he was compelled to resume the active labours of his youth. The king of Denmark created him his physician and aulic counsellor; and he was appointed chief inspector of the library of the university. These new appointments, and the sympathy of his numerous friends and correspondents, soon consoled him for his heavy loss. He died in the year 1680, leaving behind him a family of five sons and three daughters.

BARTLEMAN, JAMES, the most celebrated bass singer of his day, and well known for his musical compositions. He was educated under Dr. Cooke, who introduced him to the King's ancient concerts. He died in 1820, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, where a tablet is erected to his memory.

BARTOLOZZI, FRANCIS, an eminent engraver, was born in 1728 at Florence, where his father was a silversmith. He was intended for the same business, but in his employment of the graver displayed so much taste and execution that he was placed at the Florentine academy, under Gaetano Biagio and Ignazio Hugford. Here he had for a fellow pupil Giovanni Cipriani, with whom he formed a friendship which lasted through life. After a successful application to painting for three years, he was articled to Joseph Wagner, of Venice, who employed him too much in the execution of works from inferior masters, although he at the same time contrived to complete several pieces of his own drawing. When his engagement was expired, he married a Venetian lady of good family, and accepted the invitation of Cardinal Bottari to repair to Rome, where he engraved his celebrated plates from the life of St. Nilus, and the heads of painters for a new edition of Vasari. Not meeting with the encouragement that he expected, he returned to Venice, where Mr. Dalton, librarian to George III, employed him to engrave some of the drawings of Guercino, and, pleased with the execution of them, offered him 300*l.* per annum to accompany him to England, and work on his account. Under this engagement he completed his beautiful collection of Guercinos. Being advised to terminate this engagement by his countryman Girdini, he then worked on his own account and for the booksellers, particularly Mr. Boydell. About this period the red dotted or chalk style became prevalent; and Bartolozzi contrived to execute it so beautifully as to assist in seducing the public taste from the superior and legitimate style of line engraving. When the Royal Academy was instituted, he was elected one of the members as a painter, and might have made a fortune by his labours; but, with such spontaneous liberality and generosity to others, he appears to have been careless in respect to pecuniary acquirement, and in consequence was induced in 1802 to accept an invitation from the Prince Regent of Portugal, to superintend a school of engravers at Lisbon, with a pension of



100*l.* per annum, a handsome house, and the produce of the engravings. It is said a pension of 400*l.* was offered to him to remain in England; but that he would accept it only on condition that government would explain the matter to the prince regent of Portugal. This interference being deemed improper, he proceeded with his intention, and bade England farewell, in his seventy-fifth year. He was received in Lisbon with great distinction, and executed several fine engravings there in a wonderful manner, considering his great age. He died in that capital in his eighty-eighth year, leaving a wife and a son, to whom and a favourite pupil he left his small property in equal divisions. Few artists have reached so distinguished a rank in the profession as Bartolozzi, and that in every species of engraving. His etchings in imitation of the drawings of the great masters admirably represent the character and spirit of the originals; and his Marlborough gems, musical tickets, and prints for Boydell's Shakspeare, exhibit exquisite specimens of taste and execution.

BARTON, BENJAMIN SMITH, M.D., an eminent professor in the university of Pennsylvania, who was born in Pennsylvania, in the United States of America, in 1766. The death of his parents occasioned his removal, in 1782, to the family of a brother in Philadelphia, where he spent several years in the study of literature, the sciences, and medicine. In 1786 he came to England, and prosecuted his medical studies at Edinburgh and London. He afterwards visited Gottingen, and there obtained the degree of doctor in medicine. On returning to Philadelphia, in 1789, he established himself as a physician in that city, and his superior talents and education soon procured him extensive employment. Shortly after, he was elected a member of the American Philosophical Society, in that city, and contributed to their Transactions many papers on various subjects in natural science. He was also, in 1789, appointed professor of natural history and botany in the college of Philadelphia, and continued in the office on the incorporation of the college with the university, in 1791. He was appointed professor of *materia medica* in 1795, on the resignation of Doctor Griffiths, and, on the death of Doctor Rush, succeeded him in the department of the theory and practice of medicine. He died December 19, 1815. Mr. Barton was highly distinguished by his talents and professional attainments, and contributed much, by his lectures and writings, to the progress of natural science in the United States. His chief publication is *Elements of Zoology and Botany*. In 1805 he commenced the *Medical and Physical Journal*, to which he contributed many valuable articles.

BARTON, ELIZABETH, a country girl of Aldington in Kent, also called the *Holy Maid of Kent*. She was used as an instrument by the Catholics and adherents of Queen Catharine to excite the English nation against the proposed divorce of Henry VIII. from his first wife, and the apprehended separation of the English church from Rome, with which the king then threatened the pope. Her delirium, in a violent nervous illness, was made use of by the curate of Aldington, Richard Masters, and by a canon of Canterbury named Bocking, to persuade her that she was a prophetess inspired by God, and destined to prevent this undertaking of the king. During her paroxysms she exclaimed against this divorce, and against the prevailing sins and heresies, and brought

the image of the Virgin at Aldington, where she was cured, according to her own prophecy, into great respect. Bocking, already suspected of an illicit intercourse with her, persuaded her to become a nun; and the approbation of Archbishop Warham of Canterbury, and Bishop Fisher of Rochester, encouraged her to continue her revelations, which she pretended were communicated to her by a letter from heaven. By the prophecy that Henry, if he persisted in his purpose of divorce and second marriage, would not be king for one month longer, and would die a shameful death, she excited many monks and nuns to violence against the king. Her revelations, published and distributed by the monks, produced such a fermentation among the people that Henry ordered the apprehension and examination of Elizabeth and her accomplices before the star-chamber. After they had there confessed the imposture, they publicly confirmed it at Paul's Cross. The machinations of a party to induce them to retract sealed their fate. A bill was passed in parliament attainting them of high treason, and Elizabeth Barton and five of her accomplices were hanged at Tyburn in April 1534.

BARTRAM, JOHN, one of the most distinguished of American botanists. He was born in Chester county, Pennsylvania, United States of North America, in 1701. He was self-taught in his favourite science, and in the rudiments of the learned languages, and medicine, and surgery. So great in the end was his proficiency in his favourite pursuit that Linnæus pronounced him "the greatest natural botanist in the world." He made excursions, in the intervals of agricultural labour, to Florida and Canada, herboring with intense zeal and delight. At the age of seventy, he performed a journey to East Florida, to explore its natural productions, at a period too when the toils and danger of such an expedition far exceeded those of any similar one which could be undertaken, at the present time, within the limits of the United States.

John Bartram was the founder of the first botanic garden in America for the cultivation of American plants, as well as exotics. This garden, which is situated on the banks of the Schuylkill, a few miles from Philadelphia, still bears his name. He contributed much to the gardens of Europe, and corresponded with the most distinguished naturalists of that quarter of the globe. Several foreign societies and academies bestowed their honours upon him, and published communications from him in their transactions. He died in 1777, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. At the time of his death, he held the office of American botanist to George III. He was amiable and charitable, and of the strictest probity and temperance.

William Bartram, the son of this distinguished botanist, acquired almost as high a degree of celebrity as a botanist as his father. He was born in 1739, and displayed at a very early age a strong love for the study of botany. He accompanied his father in a journey into East Florida, for the purpose of exploring the natural productions of that country, after which he settled on the river St. John, for some years, and finally returned about the year 1771 to his father's residence. In 1773, at the request of Dr. Fothergill of London, he embarked for Charleston, to examine the natural productions of the Floridas, and the western parts of Carolina and Georgia, chiefly

in the vegetable kingdom. In this employment he was engaged nearly five years, and made numerous contributions to the natural history of the country through which he travelled. His collections and drawings were forwarded to Dr. Fothergill; and, about the year 1790, he published an account of his travels and discoveries, with an account of the manners and customs of the Creek, Cherokee, and Choctaw Indians. This work soon acquired extensive popularity, and is still frequently consulted.

After his return from his travels, he devoted himself to science, and, in 1782, was elected professor of botany in the university of Pennsylvania, which post he declined in consequence of the state of his health. In 1786 he was elected a member of the American Philosophical Society, and was a member of several other societies in Europe and America. Science is indebted to him for the knowledge of many curious and beautiful plants peculiar to North America, and for the most complete and correct table of American ornithology which appeared before the work of Wilson, who was assisted by him in the commencement of his American Ornithology. He wrote an article on the natural history of a plant a few minutes before his death, which took place suddenly, by the rupture of a blood vessel in the lungs, July 22, 1823, in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

**BASEDOW, JOHN BERNARD**, a native of Hamburgh, whose novel plans of education attracted as much attention in Germany in the latter part of the last century as that of Joseph Lancaster did more recently in this country. This projector, who was the son of a peruke-maker, studied theology at Leipsic, after which he returned to Hamburgh about 1746. He became tutor to the son of a gentleman at Berghorst in Holstein, and subsequently was chosen professor of moral philosophy and the belles lettres at Soroe in Denmark. Here he was patronized by Count Bernstorff; but incurring the charge of heterodoxy, on account of the opinions delivered in his lectures, he was removed from Soroe to the gymnasium of Altona.

Some time after he instituted at Dessau an establishment for education, called *Philanthropinon*, which the prince of this territory favoured. The chief features of Basedow's system are the cosmopolitan character which he endeavoured to instil into his pupils, and the full development of the faculties of the young, at which he aspired, in pursuance of the notions of Locke and Rousseau. With Salzmann, Campe, &c., he established some good institutions, and particularly deserves credit on account of his efforts for the education of the lower classes.

Like other speculators, he was more capable of forming plans than of executing them, but he published several valuable works on education, which are even now ranked high as authorities in scholastic instruction.

Basedow died at Magdeburg in 1790, in the sixty-seventh year of his age.

**BASIL, SAINT**, surnamed the Great, was born in Cæsarea, in the year 326, and became bishop of that city. Having studied at Constantinople, he went to Athens to perfect himself in that school of science; and, his studies being completed, he returned to his native country in 355, and taught rhetoric. While he resided at Athens, he became acquainted with Julian, afterwards surnamed the Apostate, who was also engaged in the study of eloquence in that cele-

brated city. With him Basil read not only the profane authors, but also the books of the Holy Scriptures: Julian carefully concealed from him his real sentiments of the sacred writings. But, when raised to the imperial throne, he threw off the mask, and filled his court with heathen philosophers and magicians from all parts of the world. Basil manfully rejected his repeated solicitations to reside at his court, though accompanied with the warmest professions of friendship. He afterwards visited the monasteries in Syria, Egypt, and Libya, where he became so fond of the monastic life that he embraced it on his return to Pontus and Cappadocia. Having received the order of priesthood from Eusebius, bishop of Cæsarea, he retired into religious solitude; but in that state he continued only about three years; for upon the death of that bishop, in 370, he reluctantly allowed himself to be appointed his successor. No sooner was he seated in the episcopal chair than the emperor Valens began to persecute him, and even threatened to banish him from Cæsarea, because he refused to embrace the tenets of the Arians. The emperor sent to him a prefect, who was commanded, either by entreaty or menace, to obtain his compliance. The pious Basil peremptorily refused. The prefect having reminded him of the danger to which he was exposed of having his *land*, his *liberty*, and even his *life* sacrificed by the disappointed emperor, he made the following noble reply: "He who has nothing dreads not *confiscation*. Every place being alike indifferent to me, how can any *exile* be a punishment? If you *imprison* me, I shall enjoy more pleasure than at the court of Valens. And, with respect to *death*, it will be to me a blessing, because it will unite me to the Almighty." The prefect was astonished, and remarked that none had ever presumed to speak to him in that manner. "Probably," replied Basil, "you never before saw a *bishop*!" Finding it impossible to bend him from his resolution, the emperor ceased to molest him; and Basil then began to use all that influence which his high character and office had so justly acquired in endeavouring to compose the differences which at that time subsisted betwixt the eastern and western churches; but unhappily his well-meant efforts proved ineffectual, and that contest was not terminated till after his death. He also took a share in the various controversies which arose in that period of the church, and died in the year 379. "In point of genius, controversial skill, and a rich and flowing eloquence," says Mosheim, "he was surpassed by very few in that century."

**BASIRE, ISAAC**, a learned divine, who was born in the island of Jersey in 1607. For some time he was master of the free-school in Guernsey, and then became chaplain to Morton, bishop of Durham, who gave him a rectory and a vicarage in the diocese. In 1640 he was made doctor in divinity at Cambridge, chaplain to Charles I., and in 1643 prebendary of Durham. On the breaking out of the civil war, he lost all his preferences, on which he made a journey to the Morea, where he preached with great success among the Greek Christians, after which he travelled to the Holy Land. At Constantinople he preached to the French Protestants, and was entertained for some years by George Ragotzi, who made him professor of divinity at Weissenburg. He was recalled by Charles II. in 1661, who appointed him his chaplain in ordinary. He died in 1676. He wrote a history



of the English and Scottish Presbytery, and several sermons.

**BASIRE, JAMES.**—This ingenious engraver was born in London in 1730. He studied his art first under his father, and afterwards under Richard Dalton, with whom he travelled to Rome for improvement. In 1760 he obtained the appointment of engraver to the Antiquarian Society; and his principal works are plates of architectural and archæological subjects, which he executed for the publications of that learned body. He was also engraver to the Royal Society. His death took place in 1802. The works of Basire are, in many respects, worthy of praise, but in point of minute accuracy and delicate finishing they will bear no comparison with the productions of the principal architectural engravers of the present day.

**BASKERVILLE, JOHN,** an eminent English artist, particularly deserving of notice for his improvements in printing and type-founding. He was born at Wolverley, in Worcestershire, in 1706, and, inheriting a small estate, was brought up to no profession. He, however, acquired a particular skill in penmanship and carving letters on stone, and, at the age of twenty, he settled at Birmingham as a writing-master. He subsequently engaged in the manufacture of jappanned works; and, in 1750, commenced his labours in the branch of art which acquired for him so much celebrity. His first great performance as a printer was an edition of Virgil, in 1756, which was followed by many of the Latin classics, and some English ones, of various sizes. The beauty of his typographical productions was superior to any thing which had previously appeared from an English press; and when it is considered that the paper and ink, as well as the types and workmanship, were the fruits of one man's skill and ingenuity, it must be admitted that he possessed great merit. He died in 1775; and his types and matrices were afterwards sold at Paris for £3700, to Beaumarchais, who printed with them, at Kehl, a superb edition of Voltaire. Baskerville was an enemy of all outward forms of divine service, which he declared to be mere superstition; and he ordered, in his will, that his body should not be buried in a burying-ground.

**BASNAGE, DE FRANQUENET, JAMES.**—The subject of this article, of whom Voltaire, in his age of Louis XIV., says "that he was more fitted to be the minister of a state than of a parish," was born in 1653. He studied at Saumur, and afterwards at Geneva and at Sedan, and then became minister among the Protestants at Rouen. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes induced him to leave France in 1685, and settle in Holland, where he devoted his great talents, during the remainder of his life, to literary researches and the duties of his profession. He was for some time minister of a congregation at Rotterdam; and in 1709, through the interest of the pensionary Heinsius, who was much attached to him, he was made one of the pastors of the Walloon church at the Hague. At the congress of Utrecht he was employed to conduct a secret negotiation with Marshal d'Uxelles, the French plenipotentiary, which affair he executed with much ability; and he was afterwards entrusted with several other important commissions. Such was his reputation for political sagacity that Dubois, being sent to the Hague in 1716, to negotiate a defensive alliance between France, England, and the States General, was

directed by his employer, the Regent duke of Orleans, to follow in all things the advice of Basnage. The negotiation was concluded, and the refugee minister, as the reward of his services, obtained the restoration of his estate, which he had forfeited on leaving France. He died at the Hague, after a long illness, in 1723. One of the most important acts in the life of Basnage was that in which he induced the primate of Paris to forego his persecution of the protestants. The archbishop being much perplexed by the papal bull "Unigenitus," the rigours of which put an end to the hopes of uniting the catholic and reformed churches, applied to Basnage on the subject, and the arguments of the reformer convinced the catholic bishop of the fallibility of the pope. The works of this author, almost all written in French, are very numerous, and relate principally to history and theology. Among the most important are—"The History of the Reformed Churches," published in 1725; "The History of the Jews, from Jesus Christ to the present time, being a continuation of the History of Josephus," in fifteen volumes; and "The Annals of the United Provinces, since the peace of Munster," in two volumes, folio.

Henry Basnage, younger brother to the above, conducted a celebrated critical work from 1687 to 1709.

**BASSOMPIERRE, FRANCOIS DE,** marshal of France, one of the most distinguished and most amiable men of the courts of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. He was born in 1579, in Lorraine, and descended from a branch of the family of Cleve. After travelling through Italy, he appeared at the court of Henry IV., where his taste for splendour and gallantry made him conspicuous in the feasts and sports of the capital. In 1602 he made his first campaign against the duke of Savoy, and fought with equal distinction, in the following year, in the imperial army, against the Turks. His love of France, however, soon called him back, and shortly after he endeavoured to obtain in marriage the hand of the daughter of the constable de Montmorency, whose charms had excited the most violent passion in Henry IV. Bassompierre yielded to the solicitations of his king, and renounced his intended union with her. In 1622 Louis XIII. appointed him marshal of France, and became so much attached to him that Luynes, the declared favourite, alarmed at his growing influence, insisted upon his removal from the court, leaving him the option to accept either an embassy or the chief command of an army, or the office of a governor. Bassompierre decided upon an embassy, and occupied this post successively in Spain, Switzerland, and England. After his return, he entered again into the military service, and was present at the siege of Rochelle and Montauban. The cardinal Richelieu, who soon after obtained entire control of the king and the country, feared the boldness of Bassompierre and his secret connection with the House of Lorraine, whose machinations served him as a pretext for sending him, in 1631, to the Bastile, from which he was not released till 1643, after the death of the cardinal. He died in 1646. Bassompierre studied, in his youth, philosophy, jurisprudence, medicine, and the military art. During his detention, he occupied himself with his memoirs, and the history of his embassies in Spain, Switzerland, and England, which sheds much light on the events of that time.

**BASTWICK, DR. JOHN,** an eminent English

physician, who was born at Writtle in Essex, 1593, and studied at Emanuel College, Cambridge, but leaving the university, without a degree, he travelled for nine years, and was made doctor of physic at Padua. He printed at Leyden, in 1624, a small work entitled "Elenchus Religionis Papistice, in quo probatur neque Apostolicam, neque Catholicam, imo neque Romanam esse." Afterwards, in England, he published "Flagellum Pontificis et Episcoporum latialium;" and though he declared, in the preface, that he intended nothing against such bishops as acknowledged their authority from kings and emperors, yet, our English prelates imagining that some things in his book were levelled at them, he was cited before the high commission court, fined 1000*l.*, and sentenced to be excommunicated, to be debarred the practice of physic, to have his book burnt, to pay costs of suit, and to remain in prison till he made a recantation. Accordingly he was confined two years in the Gate-house, where he wrote a book called "The New Litany," in which he taxed the bishops with an inclination to catholicism, and exclaimed against the severity and injustice of the high-commission's proceedings against him. For this he was sentenced to pay a fine of 5000*l.*, to stand in the pillory in the Palace Yard, Westminster, and there lose his ears, and to suffer perpetual imprisonment in a remote part of the kingdom. The same sentence was, the same year 1637, passed and executed upon Prynne and Burton.

Bastwick was conveyed to Launceston Castle in Cornwall, and thence removed to St. Mary's Castle in the Isle of Scilly, where his nearest relations were not permitted to visit him. The House of Commons, however, in 1640, ordered him as well as the others to be brought back to London; and they were attended all the way thither by vast multitudes of people, with loud acclamations of joy. The several proceedings against them were voted illegal, unjust, and against the liberty of the subject; their sentence reversed; their fine remitted; and a reparation of 5000*l.* each ordered out of the estates of the archbishop of Canterbury, the high commissioners, and other lords, who had voted against them in the star-chamber. Bastwick died in 1652.

BATHURST, ALLEN, EARL, was the son of Sir Benjamin Bathurst, of St. Pauler's Perry, Northamptonshire, and was born in London in 1684. He was educated at Oxford, and represented the borough of Cirencester in two parliaments during the reign of Anne, whose Tory administration he strongly supported, and in return was raised to the peerage in 1711. He was a warm opponent to Sir Robert Walpole, and in 1757 was appointed treasurer to Prince George, then become prince of Wales, on whose accession to the throne he obtained a pension of 2000*l.* per annum. He was advanced to the earldom in 1772. Lord Bathurst is distinguished as the intimate friend of Bolingbroke, Addison, Pope, Swift, Gay, and all the celebrated wits of the age, and was himself a man of considerable abilities. After his son became chancellor, he went to visit his father, who invited a large party to meet him at dinner. The whole company sat up late, except the chancellor, on whose retirement at twelve o'clock the aged earl facetiously exclaimed, "Now the old gentleman is gone, we can manage to take another bottle." He died in 1775 at the advanced age of ninety-one.

BATHURST, HENRY, EARL, son of the preceding nobleman, was born in 1714. Having studied

the law, by the influence and patronage of his father, he rapidly ran through all the honours of the profession, being early made solicitor-general, and then attorney-general to the prince of Wales. In 1754 he was raised to the chief justiceship of the Common Pleas, and in 1771 advanced to the woolsack, with the title of Baron Apsley. He resigned the seals in 1778, and died in 1794. He wrote a pamphlet in quarto, entitled, "The Case of Miss Swordfeiger," a work on the "Theory of Evidence."

BATTEUX, CHARLES, an honorary canon of Rheims, born, May 7, 1713, at Allend'-buy, a village near Rheims. He displayed his gratitude to this city, in which he received his education, by the ode *In Civitatem Remensem*, 1730, which was much admired. In 1750 he was invited to Paris, where he taught rhetoric in the colleges of Lisieux and Navarre, and was afterwards appointed professor of Latin and Greek philosophy at the royal college. In 1754 he became a member of the academy of inscriptions, and in 1761 of the French academy. His constitution, naturally strong, sunk under his exertions, and he died July 14, 1780. His eulogy was pronounced by M. Delille, then director of this society. Batteux did much service to literature and the fine arts, by introducing unity and system into the numerous canons of taste, which had gained a standing among the French by the example of many eminent men, particularly in regard to poetry, and must be regarded as a valuable writer on *æsthetics*, notwithstanding the higher point of view in which this science is now considered. Some of his most valuable works are, "Les Beaux-Arts réduits à un même Principe," Paris, 1747; and "Cours de Belles-Lettres ou Principes de la Littérature," published at Paris in 1774 and several times afterwards. These works have been translated into many other languages.

BATTONI, POMPEO, a very eminent Italian painter. He was born at Lucca in 1708. His father, a goldsmith, devoted him to that art, to which he had but little inclination. It afforded him, however, occasion to exercise himself in drawing, and to exhibit his excellent talent for painting; and the first specimen of his skill which attracted notice was a golden cup of exquisite workmanship, which he executed so satisfactorily that his capacity was thought to be far superior to the trade of a goldsmith: and at the instance of his godfather, Alexander Quinigi, several patriotic noblemen agreed to send him to the Roman Academy of Painting, at their common expense.

When his friends took charge of his education as an artist, father Diversi, of the order of Philipppines, and the abbé Fatinelli, took him to Sebastian Concha and Augustine Masucci, who were at that time the most celebrated masters of the Roman school, that he might select one of them for his tutor and guide. But the antiques, and Raphael's works, from the very first, made so strong an impression on his mind that he chose rather to avoid the modern manner, and form himself entirely on the old. The sensibility with which nature had endowed him made him feel that there could be but one true style in the practice of the art, and that none of the modern, which depart so far from the antique, could be the right. Accordingly, rejecting the advice of his masters, he devoted himself to the study of the antiques and the works of Raphael d'Urbino. How diligent he was in this practice is seen in the heads still preserved



which he copied from the Dispute on the Sacrament, a copy of the school of Athens, painted in oil and not quite finished, and the various commissions he received from foreigners for drawings of the best originals.

Battoni's portraits always secured a high price, but his historical works scarcely equal them in point of merit. Fuseli says that he "was not a very learned artist, nor did he supply his want of knowledge by deep reflection. His works do not bear the appearance of an attentive study of the antique, or of the works of Raphael and the other great masters of Italy. but nature seemed to have destined him for a painter, and he followed her impulse. He was not wanting either in the delineation of character, in accuracy, or in pleasing representation; and, if he had not a grand conception, he at least knew how to describe well what he had conceived. He would have been, in any age, reckoned a very estimable painter; at the time in which he lived he certainly shone conspicuously. His name is known throughout Europe, and his works are every where in estimation.

Mengs, who was a more learned man, was his rival; but, less favoured by nature, if he enjoyed a higher reputation, he owed it less perhaps to any real superiority than to the commendations of Winkelmann.

BAUER, FERDINAND, a German artist, highly distinguished for his skill as a botanical painter. He accompanied Captain Flinders in his survey of the coast of New Holland, between 1802 and 1805, and was warmly patronised by Sir Joseph Banks. He died at Vienna, March 17, 1826.

BAUMGARTEN, ALEXANDER THEOPHILUS, an eminent writer on metaphysics and moral philosophy. He was born at Berlin in 1714, and studied in the university of Halle, where, after taking the degree of M. A., he was appointed extraordinary professor of philosophy. In 1740 he accepted of a similar situation at Frankfort on the Oder. He was the first who gave a scientific form to the theory of the fine arts, in a work of which he published the first part in 1750, under the title of "*Æsthetica*," a term which the Germans have adopted to designate the science which he treats. The second part appeared in 1758. His other ethical and philosophical works are much esteemed. He died in 1762.

James Baumgarten, brother to the above, was born in the duchy of Magdeburgh in 1706. He was educated at Halle, where in 1734 he was appointed professor of theology. He was one of the most celebrated protestant divines of his age, and the author of several valuable works on theology and history. He published the first sixteen volumes of the great Universal History commenced at Halle in 1744, and died in 1757.

BAXTER, ANDREW, an ingenious philosopher and metaphysician. He was a native of Aberdeen, and was educated at King's College in that city, after which he was employed as a private tutor. About 1730 he published "*An Enquiry into the Nature of the Human Soul; wherein the Immateriality of the Soul is evinced from the Principles of Reason and Philosophy.*" This work was applauded by Warburton, and obtained for the author a high reputation, though his arguments, which are founded on the *vis inertiae* of matter, have since been controverted by Hume and Colin Maclaurin. In 1741 he went abroad with one of his pupils, and remained for

some years at Utrecht, where he contracted an acquaintance with several of the Dutch literati. He returned to Scotland in 1747, and resided at Whittingham in East Lothian, where he died in 1750, aged sixty-three.

BAXTER, RICHARD, an eminent English nonconformist divine, born in the village of Rowton in 1615. The example of his father, who was accused of Puritanism, gave him a serious turn very early in life. After receiving his education, he was sent to London, under the patronage of Sir Henry Herbert, master of the revels; but he soon returned into the country with the intention of studying divinity, and, in 1638, received ordination in the church of England. The imposition of the oath of universal approbation of the doctrine and discipline of the church of England, usually termed the *et cætera* oath, detached him and many others from the establishment; and, when the civil war broke out, he took part with the parliament, and, after the battle of Naseby, accepted the appointment of chaplain to Colonel Whalley's regiment. He is said to have been the whole of this time a friend to the establishment, according to his own notions, and to have repressed sectaries as much as he was able. In 1647 he retired, in consequence of ill health, from his military chaplainship, and, when he recovered, opposed the measures of those in power, and preached urgently against the covenant. He even endeavoured to persuade the soldiery not to encounter the Scottish troops who came into the kingdom with Charles II., and hesitated not to express an open dislike to the usurpation of Cromwell, whom he told, in a conference very characteristic of both parties, that the people of England deemed the ancient monarchy a blessing. The fact is that Baxter, with many more zealous religious partisans, held civil liberty to be of secondary consequence to what he esteemed true religion, and appears, from the tenour of a sermon which he preached before Cromwell, to have deemed the toleration of separatists and sectaries the grand evil of his government.

After the restoration, he was made one of the king's chaplains, and a commissioner of the Savoy conference, to draw up the reformed liturgy. The active persecution of the nonconformists soon followed; and, upon the passing of the act against conventicles, he retired, and preached more or less openly as the act was more or less rigidly enforced. After the accession of James II., in 1685, he was arrested for some passages in his Commentary on the New Testament, supposed hostile to episcopacy, and was tried for sedition. The violence of Jefferies, who would neither hear the accused nor his counsel, produced a verdict of guilty on the most frivolous grounds. He was sentenced to two years' imprisonment and a heavy penalty, which, after a short confinement, the king remitted, probably with some degree of compunction for the manner of its infliction. From that period Baxter lived in a retired manner till his death, in 1691. His wife cheerfully shared all his sufferings on the score of conscience both in and out of prison. The character of this divine was formed by his age; his failing was subtle and controversial theology, his excellence practical piety. In divinity he sought to establish "a resting-place between strict Calvinism and high-church Arminianism, by the admission of election, and the rejection of reprobation. Christ died for some

especially, and for all generally; that is to say, all possess the means of salvation." A body called *Baxterians* long acknowledged these distinctions, and the nonconformist clergy, after the revolution, were divided between this body, the pure Calvinists, and the high-church passive-obedient Arminians. Baxter was a voluminous writer: his "Saints' Everlasting Rest," and the "Call to the Unconverted," have been extraordinarily popular.

BAYARD, JAMES, an eminent American lawyer and politician, was born in Philadelphia, in 1767. His classical education was completed at Princeton College. In the year 1784 he engaged in the study of the law, and, on his admission to the bar, settled in the state of Delaware, where he soon acquired considerable practice and reputation. A few years after he reached his majority, he was elected a representative of Delaware in congress. The first occasion on which he particularly distinguished himself was the impeachment of William Blount, a senator of the congress of the United States. Mr. Bayard was chairman of the committee of eleven, who were selected, by the house of representatives, to conduct that impeachment. He took the chief and a very brilliant part in the discussion of the constitutional questions which arose out of the successful plea of the accused to the jurisdiction of the senate. At an early period of his political career, President Adams offered him the post of envoy to the French republic, which prudential reasons induced him to decline.

Mr. Bayard was one of the leaders of the federal party in congress at the epoch of the election of Mr. Jefferson to the office of president. In the memorable contest in the house of representatives, which was produced by the equality of votes for Mr. Jefferson and Colonel Burr, he finally prevailed upon his political coadjutors to adopt the mode of proceeding which enabled the friends of Mr. Jefferson to triumph. Hostile as he was to that statesman, and much as he had reason to expect of personal advantage from a different issue, he sacrificed party feeling and ambitious hope, when he perceived that the peace of the country and the stability of the constitution might be endangered by continuing the struggle. In no debate of the house did he display his genius more than in that which preceded the repeal, in March, 1802, of the judiciary bill. It was almost universally conceded that he was the ablest advocate of the system or organization which was destroyed. He continued in the house of representatives after the change of administration, always conspicuous for his sound principles, constant acuteness, extensive knowledge, and manly copious eloquence. In 1812 he strenuously opposed the declaration of war with Great Britain. President Madison selected him as one of the commissioners to treat for peace under the proffered mediation of the emperor Alexander of Russia. He embarked on this important mission, which had not been sought nor expected by himself or his friends for him, from the port of Philadelphia, May 8, 1813, and arrived at St. Petersburg in July of that year, where absence of the emperor prevented the transaction of any business, and, when all hope of advancing the main object seemed idle, Mr. Bayard proceeded, in January, 1814, by land to Holland, where he learned the willingness of the British court to treat directly with the American envoys.

Previously to the arrival of his colleagues, who, in consequence of this annunciation, were despatched by the American government, he visited England. At the proper period, he repaired to Ghent, which was ultimately chosen as the scene of the negotiations which terminated in the treaty that bears the name of that place. On the conclusion of this business, he made a journey to Paris, where he remained until he heard of the ratification of the treaty, and of his appointment as envoy to the court of St. Petersburg. This he promptly declined. It was his intention, however, to come to this country, in order to co-operate in the formation of a commercial treaty with the British cabinet, as he was included in the commission sent for that purpose; but an alarming illness put an end to every plan except that of reaching his home as early as possible. He embarked at Havre in May, 1815, in a state of the most painful debility, suffered unfortunate delays in the voyage, and arrived in the United States only to die in the arms of his family.

Mr. Bayard was a logician of the first order, possessed a rich and ready elocution, and commanded attention as well by his fine countenance and manly person as his cogent reasoning and comprehensive views. He acquired a reputation, both as a lawyer and political orator, scarcely inferior to that of any one of his American contemporaries.

BAYARD, PIERRE DU TERRAIL, CHEVALIER DE, called "The Knight without fear and without reproach." He was born in 1476, in the Castle of Bayard, near Grenoble, and was one of the most spotless characters of the middle ages. He was simple and modest; a true friend and tender lover; pious, humane, and magnanimous. The family of Terrail, to which he belonged, was one of the most ancient in Dauphiné, and was celebrated for nobility and valour. Young Bayard was educated under the eyes of his uncle George of Terrail, bishop of Grenoble, and early imbibed, in the school of this worthy prelate, the virtues which distinguished him in after life. At the age of thirteen he was received among the pages of the duke of Savoy, the ally of France. Charles VIII., who saw him at Lyons, in the suite of this prince, was struck with the dexterity with which the youth managed his horse; he begged him of the duke, and committed him to the care of Paul of Luxemburg, count de Ligny. At the age of eighteen he accompanied Charles VIII. to Italy, and distinguished himself greatly in the battle at Verona, where he took a standard. At the beginning of the reign of Louis XII., in a battle near Milan, he pursued the fugitives with such eagerness that he entered the city with them and was taken prisoner. Ludovico Sforza returned him his arms and his horse, and dismissed him without ransom. Whilst the French were in Apulia, Bayard defeated a Spanish corps, and made their leader, don Alonzo de Sotomayor, prisoner. He treated him with generosity. Sotomayor, however, not only violated his parole by flight, but calumniated the chevalier, who, according to the custom of that time, challenged him, and killed him. Afterwards, like Horatius Cocles, he defended a bridge over the Garigliano singly against the Spaniards, and saved the French army by checking the advance of the victorious enemy. For this exploit he received as a coat of arms a porcupine, with the motto, *Vires agminis unus habet*. He dis-



tinguished himself equally against the Genoese and Venetians.

When Julius II. declared himself against France, Bayard went to the assistance of the duke of Ferrara. He did not succeed in his plan of taking the pope prisoner; but he refused, with indignation, an offer made to betray him. Being severely wounded at the assault of Brescia, he was carried into the house of a nobleman, who had fled, and left his wife and two daughters exposed to the insolence of the soldiers. The chevalier protected the family, refused the reward of 2500 ducats which they offered to him, and returned as soon as he was cured into the camp of Gaston de Foix, before Ravenna.

In the war commenced by Ferdinand the Catholic he displayed beyond the Pyrenees the same talents and the same heroism which had distinguished him beyond the Alps. The fatal reverses which embittered the last years of Louis XII. only added a brighter splendour to the personal glory of Bayard. Henry VIII. of England, in alliance with Ferdinand and Maximilian, threatened Picardy in 1513, and besieged Terouane. The French army disgracefully took to flight, when Bayard, with his accustomed intrepidity, made an ineffectual resistance to the enemy; overpowered by superior numbers, his troop was on the point of laying down their arms, when the chevalier perceived an English officer at some distance from him, immediately galloped towards him, presented his sword to his breast, and cried, "Yield, or die!" The Englishman surrendered his sword; Bayard immediately gave him his own, saying, "I am Bayard, and your captive, as you are mine." The boldness and ingenuity of this action pleased the emperor and the king of England, who decided that the brave knight needed no ransom; and both captives were released from their parole.

When Francis I. ascended the throne, he sent the chevalier into Dauphiné, to open for his army a passage over the Alps, and through Piedmont. Prosper Colonna lay in wait for him on his march, expecting to surprise him, but he was himself made prisoner. This brilliant exploit was the prelude to the battle of Marignano. When Charles V. invaded Champagne, with a large army, and threatened to penetrate into the heart of France, Bayard defended the weakly-fortified town of Mezières against every assault, until the dissensions of the hostile leaders compelled them to retreat. On his return he was saluted in Paris as the saviour of his country; the king bestowed on him the order of St. Michael and a company of 100 men, which he was to command in his own name—an honour which, till then, had only been conferred on princes of the blood. After the surrender of Lodi, fortune changed, and the French troops were expelled from their conquests. Bonnivet was obliged to retreat through the valley of Aosta; his rear was beaten, and himself severely wounded, when the safety of the army was committed to the chevalier Bayard. It was necessary to pass the Sesia in the presence of a superior enemy, and Bayard, always the last in retreat, vigorously attacked the Spaniards, when a stone from a blunderbuss struck his right side, and shattered his backbone. He fell, exclaiming, "Jesus, my God, I am a dead man!" His attendants hastened towards him—"Place me under yon tree," he said, "that I may see the enemy." For want of a crucifix, he kissed the cross of his sword, confessed to his squire,

consolated his servants and his friends, bade farewell to his king and his country, and died, April 30, 1524, surrounded by friends and enemies, who all shed tears of admiration and grief. His body, which remained in the hands of his enemies, was embalmed by them, given to the French, and interred in a church of the Minorites, near Grenoble. His monument consists of a simple bust, with a Latin inscription.

BAYEN, PETER, a celebrated French chemist, and member of the National Institute of France, born at Chalons in the year 1725. His early propensity to study induced his friends to send him to the college of Troyes, where he went through a regular course of study, and imbibed a taste for natural philosophy. Anxious to improve his knowledge of chemistry, to which he was particularly attached, he went to Paris in 1749, and studied pharmacy under an able apothecary, the father of the celebrated Charas. The diligence and thirst for knowledge displayed by Bayen attracted the notice of his master, who gave him every opportunity of improvement, and entrusted him with the direction of his laboratory. From the skill which he had acquired in pharmaceutical operations, he was appointed principal apothecary to the army in Germany, during the seven years' war. Upon his return to Paris, at the conclusion of the war, he was employed by government to analyse all the mineral waters in France. This labour, at first performed in conjunction with Venel, afterwards devolved upon Bayen alone, who published several works upon this important subject. His analysis of the waters of Baresges and Bagneres de Luchon, is particularly valuable, and is an admirable model for all similar researches.

The funds which were destined for these interesting investigations having been diverted to other purposes, Bayen abandoned the Pyrenees, and employed himself in the analysis of various specimens of minerals which he had collected in his travels. The results of these analyses were published in the *Memoires des Savans étrangers*, in numerous memoirs on marbles, granites, serpentine, porphyries, jaspers, schists, and iron spar.

Bayen had the high honour of being the first who doubted the existence of the phlogistic principle of Stahl. He at first communicated his doubts to several of his friends, but particularly to the celebrated Macquer, who did not approve of them. Without being discouraged at the opinion of Macquer, Bayen continued his researches, and proved that the excess of weight, the colour, &c., of all metallic oxides, were owing to the absorption of one of the constituent parts of atmospheric air. The illustrious Lavoisier, who was then occupied with the subject of metallic oxides, happened to be present when the memoir of Bayen was read in the academy, and, struck with the importance of the discovery, he repeated all the experiments, and was thus led to those great views by which he effected a revolution in the science of chemistry. Bayen continued his labours in the cause of science to a very advanced age, dying in the year 1798. He retained his faculties till the last.

BAYLE, PIERRE, was born at Carlat, in Languedoc, in 1647, and received his first instruction from his father, a Calvinistic preacher. At the age of nineteen years, he entered the college of Puy-Laurens to finish his studies, and the ardour with which he

devoted himself to them weakened his constitution. All books were eagerly devoured by him; his taste for logic led him particularly to study religious controversies, but Amyot's Plutarch and Montaigne were his favourite works. In Toulouse he studied philosophy with the Jesuits. The arguments of his professor, and still more his discussions with a catholic priest who dwelt near him, confirmed his doubts of the orthodoxy of protestantism, so that he resolved to change his religion. His conversion was a triumph to the catholics. His family, however, tried all means to regain him, and, in a little more than a twelvemonth, he returned to his old faith. In order to escape from the punishment of perpetual excommunication, which the catholic church then pronounced against apostates, he went to Geneva, and thence to Copet, where Count Dohna entrusted him with the education of his sons, and where he studied the philosophy of Des Cartes. But, after some years, he returned to France, and settled in Rouen, where he was employed in teaching. From thence he went to Paris, where the society of learned men indemnified him for the fatigues of an occupation to which he was obliged to submit for a third time. In 1675 he obtained the philosophical chair at Sedan, where he taught with distinction until the suppression of this academy in 1681. He was afterwards invited to discharge the same duties at Rotterdam.

The appearance of a comet, in 1680, which occasioned an almost universal alarm, induced him to publish, in 1682, his "*Pensées Diverses sur la Comète*," a work full of learning, in which he discussed various subjects of metaphysics, morals, theology, history, and politics. It was followed by his "*Critique Générale de l'Histoire du Calvinisme de Maimbourg*." This work, received with equal approbation by the catholics and protestants and esteemed by Maimbourg himself, excited the jealousy of his colleague, the theologian Jurieu, whose "*Refutation du P. Maimbourg*" had not succeeded, and involved Bayle in many disputes.

He afterwards undertook a periodical work, "*Nouvelles de la République des Lettres*," in 1684.

The death of his father and of his two brothers, together with the religious persecutions in France, induced him to undertake his "*Commentaire philosophique sur ces Paroles de l'Evangile; Contrains-les d'entrer*," which in regard to style and tone is not worthy of him. Indeed he was himself unwilling to acknowledge it; but Jurieu, who probably recognised its author by the zeal with which toleration is defended in this work, attacked it with violence. His hatred only waited for a pretence to break out against Bayle; he found it in the "*Avis aux Réfugiés*," a work in which the protestants are treated with little ceremony. Bayle repelled these charges in two publications; but the calumny prevailed. In 1693 the magistrates of Rotterdam removed him from his office, and forbade him to give private instruction. He now devoted all his attention to the composition of his "*Dictionnaire Historique et Critique*," which was published in 1696. This was the first work which appeared under his name. Jurieu opposed him anew, and caused the consistory, in which he had the greatest influence, to make a severe attack upon him. He however promised to remove every thing which the consistory deemed offensive; but finding the public had other views, and preferring

rather the satisfaction of his readers to that of his judges, he left the work, with the exception of a few trifles, unaltered. He found two new enemies in Jacquelot and Le Clerc, who both attacked his religion: others persecuted him as the enemy of his sect and his new country. These contests increased his bodily infirmities. His lungs became inflamed; but he was unwilling to use any medical applications against a disorder which he considered as hereditary and incurable. He died, so to speak, with the pen in his hand, in 1706, at the age of fifty-nine years. "Bayle," says Voltaire, "is the first of logicians and sceptics. His greatest enemies must confess that there is not a line in his works which contains an open aspersion of Christianity; but his warmest apologists must acknowledge that there is not a page in his controversial writings which does not lead the reader to doubt and often to scepticism." He compares himself to Homer's cloud-compelling Jupiter. "My talent," he says, "consists in raising doubts; but they are only doubts." The confidence of most theologians induced him to undertake to prove that several points are not so certain and so evident as they imagined. But he gradually passed these limits; and his captiousness caused him to doubt even the most universally acknowledged facts. Yet he never attacked the great principles of morality. Though an admirable logician, he was so little acquainted with physics that even the discoveries of Newton were unknown to him. His style is natural and clear, but often prolix, careless, and incorrect. He himself calls his "*Dictionnaire*" "*une compilation informe des passages census à la queue les uns des autres*." Without assenting implicitly to this modest judgment, we must confess that the articles, in themselves, are of little value, and that they serve only as a pretext for the notes, in which the author displays, at the same time, his learning and the power of his logic. The character of Bayle was gentle, amiable, disinterested, highly modest and peaceable: and he devoted himself entirely to literature. The most esteemed edition of his "*Dictionnaire Historique*" is that published in 1740, in four volumes folio.

BAYLEY, RICHARD, M. D., a skilful American, who was born at Fairfield, Connecticut, in the year 1745. Having completed his medical studies, he went to London, to attend the lectures and hospitals. After little more than a year's residence in that city, he returned to New York, and commenced practice there in 1772. At this period his attention was first drawn to the then prevalent and fatal croup, which had been treated as the putrid sore throat. Observing how fatal was the use of stimulants and antiseptics, he examined the nature of the disease, and became convinced that it was of an inflammatory character. He accordingly treated it as such, with decided success, and, soon after the publication of his "*View of the Croup*," his opinions and treatment of it were universally adopted.

In the autumn of 1775 Mr. Bayley revisited London, where he spent a winter, and, in the following spring, returned to New York, in the capacity of surgeon in the English army under Howe. He resigned this post in 1777, and, during the rest of his life, continued the practice of his profession in the same city. In 1788 he lost his valuable collections in morbid anatomy, and some delicate preparations, by the violence of the celebrated "doctors' mob," who broke into his house, and carried off and burned



his cabinet. In the spring of 1792 he was appointed professor of anatomy in Columbia College, and, in 1793, became professor of surgery, which was his favourite subject. His lectures were clear, precise, and practical. As an optician, he acquired great celebrity, and also as an experienced and successful lithotomist. When the yellow fever desolated New York, soon after the revolution, Doctor Bayley devoted himself to personal attention to the sick, and became practically familiar with the disease, and its most successful remedies. He likewise investigated its cause, and declared that it was the filth which polluted the docks and some of the streets, affirming "that when a more rigid police prevailed, to free the city from nuisances, no more would be heard of particular diseases."

In 1797 he published his work on "Yellow Fever," in which he proved the malady to be of local origin. So strong was his belief on this point, and so clear his perception of the cause of the fever, that he predicted the very spot where it afterwards appeared, in the year 1799. In 1798 a correspondence took place between the cities of New York and Philadelphia, in the course of which a proposition was made by the committee of the latter to that of the former, soliciting their co-operation in a memorial to the general government for a quarantine law. This gave Doctor Bayley, who was on the New York committee, an opportunity of impressing upon the general government the propriety of establishing a lazaretto, below and at a distance from the city or port of entry. He was the person to whom the state of New York is, in fact, chiefly indebted for its quarantine laws, although they have since been altered and amended. In August, 1801, Doctor Bayley in the discharge of his duty as health physician, enjoined the passengers and crew of an Irish emigrant ship, afflicted with the ship fever, to go on shore to the rooms and tents appointed for them, leaving their luggage behind. The next morning, on going to the hospital, he found that both crew and passengers, well, sick, and dying, were huddled together in one apartment, where they had passed the night. He inconsiderately entered into this room before it had been properly ventilated, but remained scarcely a moment, being obliged to retire by a most deadly sickness at the stomach, and violent pain in the head, with which he was suddenly seized. He returned home, and retired to his bed, from which he never rose. In the afternoon of the seventh day following he expired.

**BEATON, or BETHUNE, DAVID.**—This eminent ecclesiastic was cardinal and primate of Scotland early in the sixteenth century. He was born in 1494, and educated at the universities of St. Andrews and Paris. He entered into holy orders, which did not prevent him from being employed in secular capacities under the duke of Albany, and regent during the minority of James V., who appointed him resident at the court of France. Through the interest of his uncle, he obtained the rich abbey of Arbroath, and on his return to Scotland was placed about the person of the young king, who in 1528 promoted him to the office of privy seal. He was a great instrument of keeping up a good understanding with France; and Francis I. found him so useful in his designs that he conferred on him all the privileges of a native of France, together with the rich bishopric of Mirepoix. He negotiated King James II's

marriage with Mary, daughter to the duke of Guise, and was made cardinal by pope Paul III. Not long after the death of his uncle, he succeeded him as archbishop of St. Andrews, and immediately commenced a severe inquisition into heretical doctrines, for which purpose he appears to have been so much exalted. He caused prosecutions to be commenced against men of all ranks, and, it is said, had prepared a black list of 360 of the chief nobility in the kingdom, when the overthrow of James at Solway Moss checked these measures. When the king soon after died, the cardinal was the only person of authority with him at the time of his decease. He was accused of having forged his will, in which, in conjunction with three other nobles, he appointed himself regent during the minority of Mary. This scheme was however defeated; and, the earl of Arran being declared sole regent, Beaton was for some time imprisoned; but such was his ability and influence that he was soon liberated and made high chancellor. Soon after he obtained a legatine commission from the court of Rome, by virtue of which he proceeded with great vigour to extirpate heresy. For this offence several eminent and esteemed protestants were executed, and among the rest Mr. George Wishart was burnt with circumstances of great pomp and cruelty, the cardinal, according to some accounts, being himself a spectator. This execution excited great odium, especially as a report gained ground that the sufferer had denounced the cardinal at the stake, and predicted his violent death. Hume and some other authors believe this story, and attribute the fulfilment of the prophecy to the fact; but upon the whole the weight of evidence is against it, at least in the circumstantial manner described. In less than three months afterwards, however, the cardinal met with a violent death, although religion seems only to have partly caused the deed, which was effected principally by the contrivance of two offended members of the house of Lesley. These, associating a few more in their design, early one morning surprised the castle of St. Andrews, in which the cardinal lodged, and, forcing their way into his chamber, put him to death with their swords. One of the conspirators, James Melville, expressly imputed *his* revenge to the persecution of Wishart. This event took place in May 1646, and proved a decisive blow to the ancient religion of Scotland. Beaton was a man of strong talents for business, but haughty, cruel, overbearing, and intolerant in the extreme.

**BEATSON, ROBERT,** a very industrious writer of historical and other annals. He was born in Scotland in 1742, and early in life entered into the corps of Royal Engineers, in which he appears to have attained no higher rank than that of a lieutenant. His principal work was his "Naval and Military Memoirs of Great Britain," which appeared in 1790. He also published "A Political Index to the Histories of Great Britain and Ireland," containing catalogues of the nobility, state officers, &c., since the conquest; and a work of a similar kind relating to the houses of Parliament. He died in 1818.

**BEATTIE, JAMES.**—This eminent Scottish poet was born in 1736, in the parish of Laurencekirk in Kincardineshire. His father was a man in humble circumstances, having been engaged for many years as a retail shopkeeper. But, fortunately for young Beattie, he lived in that part of our island where



education is cheap, and its value well understood, so that we find him well acquainted with the Greek language before he was twenty years of age. Having taken the degree of master of arts, at the end of four years' attendance at the university, our poet filled the humble situation of schoolmaster in the neighbouring parish of Fordun. His employment there did not preclude him from that slight attendance to the study of divinity which the preparation for holy orders requires in Scotland, nor from occasionally cultivating his muse. Never did poetical talent ripen so slowly as with Beattie.

Till the age of twenty-five, Beattie wrote indifferent verses; and, within ten years from that period, he ranked amongst the most distinguished poets of his own time. Yet his early and indifferent productions, which he transmitted to the Scottish Magazine, gained him a little local celebrity. Mr. Garden, a Scottish lawyer of some taste and ingenuity, afterwards Lord Gardenstone, and at that time sheriff of Kircardineshire, afforded him a sort of patronage, and introduced him to the gentry in that neighbourhood, an honour not often extended to the humble teacher of a parish school. In 1757 a vacancy occurred in the grammar school of Aberdeen, and Beattie stood competitor. He was foiled by a candidate who surpassed him in the minutæ of Latin grammar, but, though unsuccessful, he retired without disgrace; and, a vacancy in the same school soon after occurring, he was appointed successor without a trial. In this new situation his reputation extended with the sphere of his acquaintance; he became known by his conversation and talents, among a discerning community, and at twenty-four years of age we find him obtaining, through the reputation of those abilities, the professorship of moral philosophy in the marischal college of Aberdeen, a place in which he became the associate of such eminent men as Dr. Reid, Dr. Campbell, and Dr. Gregory, who then graced the university. In 1760 he published a small collection of poems, with which he was very dissatisfied, for he actually bought up and destroyed as many copies as he could find of this unhappy volume in the days of his established fame. In 1766 he married a Miss Dunn, a lady of considerable beauty and accomplishments, but with whom his union proved an abundant source of domestic misery. She was seized with hereditary madness, which at last made it necessary to confine her. In 1770 he published his "Essay on Truth," and in the following year the first part of his exquisite poem the "Minstrel." During the summer of the latter year he paid a second visit to London, which he renewed in 1773. During this last visit he was made a doctor of laws by the university of Oxford, and obtained the king's warrant for a pension of 200*l.* a-year. The honours which were paid to him during this year made it, at least in his own opinion, the most distinguishing era of his life. He was courted by peers and bishops as the most able champion of truth. The latter part of Mr. Beattie's life was clouded by domestic calamities. His wife's insanity increased and his children died very suddenly; but he preserved the calm fortitude of a Christian through the whole of his misfortunes. A palsy, which struck him in 1799, ultimately terminated his sufferings in 1803. "His person," says a writer of his life in the 'Annual Register for 1805,' "was of the middle size, of a broad square make, which seemed to indicate a more ro-

bust constitution than he really had. He was all his life subject to headaches, which, on many occasions, interrupted his studies. His features were exceedingly regular; his complexion somewhat dark; his eyes had more expression than those of any person I ever remember to have seen."

BEAUFORT, HENRY, the legitimate brother of Henry IV. of England, who was made bishop of Lincoln, whence he was translated to Winchester. He was also nominated chancellor of the kingdom, and sent ambassador to France. In 1426 he received a cardinal's hat, and was appointed legate in Germany, and in 1431 he crowned Henry VI. in the great church of Paris. He died at Winchester in 1447. He was a haughty turbulent prelate, and Shakspeare is considered as giving a true portrait of him, when he describes his last scene.

BEAUHARNAIS, ALEXANDER, VISCOUNT, born in 1760, in Martinique, and served with considerable distinction as major in the French forces under Rochambeau, which aided the United States in their revolutionary war. At the breaking out of the French revolution he was chosen a member of the national assembly, of which he was for some time president, and which he opened after the king's departure with the following words:—*Messieurs, le roi est parti cette nuit: passons à l'ordre du jour.*

In 1792 he was general of the army of the Rhine, and in 1793 was appointed minister of war. In consequence of the decree removing men of noble birth from the army, he retired to his country seat. He was falsely accused of having promoted the surrender of Mentz, and was sentenced to death July 23rd, 1794, when thirty-four years old. His widow afterwards became the empress of France.

BEAUHARNAIS, FRANCOIS, MARQUIS DE, the brother of Alexander Beauharnais. He was born at La Rochelle, August 12, 1756; and voted with the "right side" in the national assembly. He violently opposed the motion of his younger brother, the viscount Alexander, to take from the king the chief command of the army, and would not listen to any of the amendments proposed, saying, *Il n'y a point d'amendement avec l'honneur.* He was called in consequence of this, *le feal Beauharnais sans amendement.* In 1792, with the Count d'Hervilly, the baron de Viomenil, and others, he formed the project of a new flight of the royal family; but the arrest of his companion, the baron Chambon, prevented the execution of the plan. He was appointed major-general in the army of the prince of Condé, and wrote in 1792 to the president of the national assembly, protesting against their unlawful treatment of the king, and offering to appear himself among his defenders. When Buonaparte became first consul, the marquis sent him a letter, in which he exhorted him, by the glory which he would gain by such a course, to restore the sceptre to the house of Bourbon. The empress Josephine married her niece, the daughter of the marquis, to Lavalette, and effected the recall of the marquis. Being appointed senator, and ambassador to the court of Spain, he united in 1807 with the prince of the Asturias (afterwards Ferdinand VII.) against the prince of peace, and fell into disgrace with Napoleon, who banished him. After the restoration he returned to Paris, where he died January 10, 1819.

BEAUMARCHAIS, PIERRE AUGUSTIN CARON DE, was born at Paris 1732. He early gave



striking proofs of his mechanical and also of his musical talents, and he became teacher on the harp to the daughters of Louis XV., and was admitted into their society. By a rich marriage, he laid the foundation of his immense wealth. His "Eugenie" appeared in 1767; "Les Deux Amis" in 1770. He showed all his talent in his lawsuit against Goesman and La Blache, when he wrote against the former (who belonged to the *parlement Maupeou*, so called, which was engaged in a dispute with the ministry) his celebrated "Memoirs" published at Paris in 1774 which entertained all France. The fame of his Memoirs alarmed even Voltaire, who was jealous of every kind of glory. The "Barber of Seville" and the "Marriage of Figaro," have given him a permanent reputation. In 1792 he wrote "La Mère coupable," but never regained his former fame. He was once more in his true element in his memoir "Mes six Epoques." He relates in that work the dangers to which he was exposed, in a revolution where a celebrated name, talent, and riches, were sufficient causes of proscription. His contract to supply the United States with military stores during their revolutionary war had increased his fortune, of which he always made a noble use; but he lost about a million livres by his celebrated edition of the works of Voltaire, the very imperfect execution of which was not answerable to the immense cost. He lost still more at the end of 1792 by his attempt to provide the French army with 60,000 muskets. Discontented with the present, despairing of the future, wearied with struggling against the revolution and his creditors for the ruins of his wealth, he died at the age of sixty-nine years, without any particular disease, in May, 1799. Beaumarchais was a singular instance of versatility of talent, being at once an artist, politician, projector, merchant, and dramatist. He was passionately attached to celebrity. His "Marriage of Figaro" excited one of those extraordinary sensations for which Paris has always been remarkable. The English modifications and versions of this comedy convey but a slight notion of the mischievous subtlety and deep spirit of intrigue in the original.

BEAUMELLE, LAURENT ANGLIVIEL DE, a French writer possessed of considerable talents, who was born a Valleraugues in the diocese of Alais in 1727. He was very early in life invited to Denmark, in order to undertake the professorship of French Belles Lettres. The climate not agreeing with him, he quitted Denmark with a pension and the title of counsellor, and on his way called at Berlin, with a view of forming an intimacy with Voltaire. The result was sufficiently ludicrous; for, each being petulant and irritable, a quarrel ensued, which lasted in the way of a literary skirmish for the remainder of their lives. On his arrival at Paris, the freedom he had taken in his work entitled "Mes Pensées" produced him the old French literary honour of a temporary seclusion in the Bastille, whence he had scarcely been liberated when his "Memoirs of Madame Maintenon" sent him back again. Again released, he wisely retired into the country, to pursue his literary labours in quiet, and married the daughter of an eminent lawyer of Toulouse. In 1772 he was made king's librarian, a post which, however, he did not long enjoy, being cut off by a pulmonary disorder in November 1773. The principal works of La Beaumelle are, "Defence of the Spirit of Laws," "Mes Pensées, ou le Qu'en dira-t-on?" a spirited

but not very profound production, in which much wit and vivacity are displayed with a freedom very capable of giving offence: it was in this work that Beaumelle compared the king of Prussia's patronage of Voltaire to the taste of the petty German princes in keeping buffoons, which produced the quarrel between them that lasted for life. "Memoirs of Madame Maintenon," 12mo., a work not devoid of force and vivacity, but in no great reputation for its accuracy in regard to facts. "Letters to M. Voltaire," published 1761, which, as they were keen and satirical, induced Voltaire to acknowledge that "the rascal had a great deal of wit;" while, on the other hand, La Beaumelle was in reality a great admirer of Voltaire, and frankly admitted that he was at war because he was sure that his opponent would never conclude a sincere peace, and moreover because his attacks on him sold his books. In addition to these already enumerated, he published "Thoughts of Seneca," Latin and French, and "A Commentary on the Henriade," in 1775, which is an able critique, but too severe and minute. He also left a MS. translation of Tacitus, of whose manner he was a frequent imitator, and another of the odes of Horace, with some miscellaneous pieces.

BEAUMONT, FRANCIS, and FLETCHER, JOHN, two dramatic writers of great celebrity. The former was born in 1585, studied at Oxford, and died in 1616; the latter was born in London 1576, and died there 1625, of the plague. Animated by the same inclination, they both devoted themselves to poetry. Their plays, about fifty in number, appeared under their joint names, and it is impossible now to determine their respective shares in these productions. According to the testimony of some of their contemporaries, Fletcher was the inventing genius, while Beaumont, though the younger, was more distinguished for maturity and correctness of judgment. Shakspeare was their model, and, like him, they intermix pathetic and low comic scenes; but their attempts to surpass their model sometimes lead them to extravagances. The desire also of pandering to the low taste of their own times induced them to deviate from a correct standard of taste, and frequently to outrage the principles of common decency. They succeeded best in comic scenes. Their contemporaries preferred them even to Shakspeare, affirming that the English drama reached its perfection in them. Impartial posterity has reversed this decision, and adjudged the palm to Shakspeare.

BEAUMONT, SIR JOHN, an early English poet, the son of Francis Beaumont, one of the judges of the Common Pleas, in the reign of Elizabeth, and elder brother of Francis, the celebrated colleague of Fletcher. He was born in 1582, at the family seat of Grace-Dieu in Leicestershire, and, after studying at Oxford, became a member of one of the inns of court. In 1626 he was created a baronet by Charles I., but only survived two years, dying in the winter of 1628 at the age of forty-six. He left seven sons and four daughters, of whom Sir John, his son and successor, edited his father's poems, and was himself a minor poet, and a man of great bodily strength, who died fighting on king Charles's side at the siege of Gloucester. The poetical works of Sir John Beaumont form part of the collection of English poets; and of these "Bosworth Field" is the most considerable. As a specimen of the heroic style of that day, it is exceeded by very few of his contemporaries:

and he describes the death of Richard with great spirit. His minor poems, if exhibitiv of no great invention, are very pleasing; and his verses, from their pure form of English poetry, prove him to have been possessed of great taste. His translations from Horace, Virgil, Juvenal, and Persius are also very forcible and correct.

**BEAUMONT, SIR GEORGE HOWLAND.**—This distinguished baronet was born at Dunmow in Essex, in November 1753. After receiving a careful education, Sir George Beaumont in 1782 visited the continent, and travelled over the principal part of France, Italy, and Switzerland. On his return to England he was elected member for Beeralston, but he sat in the House of Commons only one session. In fact it was not in the arena of politics that Sir George Beaumont distinguished himself; but as a patron of art, and as an amateur practitioner of painting, his celebrity is deservedly great, and many admirable specimens of his skill have been exhibited in the Royal Academy. Sir Joshua Reynolds bequeathed him his Return of the Ark, by Sebastian Bourdon, as a memorial of his esteem. This is one of the sixteen pictures which Sir George, a short time previous to his death, presented to the National Gallery in Pall Mall, and they have been justly said to constitute his most appropriate public monument. We need hardly add that these pictures will be shortly removed to the new edifice now in progress at Charing Cross.

In private life Sir George Beaumont was a most able and excellent man, his manner and accomplishments rendering him an ornament of the circles in which he moved. Sir George died of erysipelas, February 7th, 1827.

**BEAUSOBRE, ISAAC DE**, an eminent French divine, whose writings had a material influence on the progress of Calvinism in the beginning of the last century. He was born at Niort in Switzerland, March 8th, 1659, and, after studying divinity at the college of Saumur, he was ordained at the age of twenty-two years, and appointed to the charge of a protestant congregation in some part of France. He had not been above three years in that office when a violent persecution arose against the protestants, and his church was ordered to be shut up. With a zeal natural to his age, but extremely imprudent, he opposed the orders of the court, and broke the royal seal which had been affixed to the door of his church. Being condemned to make *amende honourable* for this offence, he was forced to conceal himself, till he had an opportunity of leaving France.

His first intention was to seek an asylum in this country, but particular circumstances afterwards determined him to go to Holland. There he became known to the princess of Orange, who could well appreciate his merits, and thought herself fortunate in getting him appointed chaplain to her daughter, the princess of Anhalt Dessau. In this capacity he repaired to Dessau in 1686. The happiness which he enjoyed in this retreat made him ample amends for the loss of his country. The princess of Anhalt, a lady of great accomplishments, honoured to him with the fullest confidence, and he was enabled to pursue his studies without disquiet or interruption. It was here he published his first work, entitled "A Defence of the Doctrine of the Reformed," occasioned by the circumstance of a prince of the house of Saxony having changed his religion.

In 1694 Beausobre settled at Berlin, in which city

he continued to reside during the remainder of his life. At first he was enrolled among the number of ordinary pastors, who ministered in the parishes granted by the court to the refugees. But his talents soon raised him to higher employments. He was made chaplain to their majesties, counsellor of the royal consistory, director of the French house, inspector of the French college, and a year before his death was appointed superintendent of the French churches in Berlin, and of the towns comprehended in that diocese. While he discharged, with the highest honour to himself, the duties of these several offices, he at the same time pursued his studies with unwearied assiduity. The first work which he undertook was a "History of the Reformation," which occupied him for upwards of forty years. This work, of which the principal object is to trace the origin and progress of Lutheranism, contains some very curious details relative to the diffusion of protestant principles in France and Switzerland, and the characters and writings of those who were most active in opposing or defending the reformed religion. Beausobre was employed, along with his colleague L'Enfant, by the court of Berlin, in translating the New Testament into French. St. Paul's Epistles fell to the share of Beausobre, and the work, which was published in 1718, with an ample preface and notes, was very favourably received. He was one of the principal members of the Anonymous Society in Berlin, and had the direction of the "Bibliothèque Germanique" till his death. To that journal he contributed several papers. While engaged in composing the "History of the Reformation" he was led into a digression on the "History of Manichæism and Manichæism, which, swelling far beyond the bounds within which he originally intended to confine it, was published as a separate work in two volumes. This is by far the most elaborate of his writings, and has drawn forth the warm commendations of Gibbon and Lardner. Beausobre, after a long and laborious life, died in 1738.

**BECCARIA, CESARE BONESANA.**—This learned philanthropist was born at Milan in 1735. He was early excited by Montesquieu's "Lettres Persanes" to the cultivation of his philosophical talents, and afterwards favourably known by his memorable work, full of a noble philanthropy, "Dei Delitti e delle Pene." With the eloquence of true feeling, and a lively imagination, he opposes capital punishments and the torture. This work led to the establishment of more settled and more correct principles of penal law, and contributed to excite a general horror against inhuman punishments. Beccaria was a true friend, a good son, a tender husband, and a real philanthropist. He is also known in Italy as the author of a philosophical grammar and theory of style, and of several good treatises on style, on rhetorical ornament, &c., contained in the journal "Il Caffè," edited by him, in conjunction with his friends Visconti, Verri, and others. A fit of apoplexy put an end to his useful life in November 1793.

**BECCARIA, GIOVANNI BATTISTA**, a celebrated experimental philosopher, who was born at Mondovì. He went to Rome in 1732, where he studied, and afterwards taught grammar and rhetoric; at the same time he applied himself with success to mathematics. He was appointed professor of philosophy at Palermo, and afterwards at Rome.



Charles Emanuel, king of Sardinia, invited him to Turin in 1748 to fill the professorship of natural philosophy at the university there. Electricity had at that time, through the experiments of Franklin and others, become an object of universal interest. He therefore published his "*Dell' Eletticismo Naturale et Artificiale*." The experiments which this work contains on atmospherical electricity are so numerous and various, that Priestley affirmed, in his "*History of Electricity*," that Beccaria's labours far surpass all that had been done before and after him on this subject. The academies in London and Bologna elected him a member. He wrote many other valuable works on this subject. The most important, "*Dell' Eletticismo Artificiale*," contains all that was then known of Electricity.

Franklin, who esteemed the works of Beccaria, had them translated into English. In 1759 the king employed him to measure a degree of the meridian in Piedmont. He began the measurement in 1760, together with the abbot Canonica, and published the result in 1774. The doubts expressed by Cassini of the exactness of this measurement drew from him his "*Lettere d'un Italiano ad un Parigino*," in which he showed the influence of the proximity of the Alps on the deviation of the pendulum. As his thoughts were entirely absorbed by his studies he often neglected the nicer rules of good breeding, without losing, however, the general esteem of mankind. He died April 27, 1781.

BECCHER, JOHN JOACHIM, author of the first theory of chemistry; born at Spire, in 1635. He finished his restless life at London in 1685, after having resided in many parts of Germany. He had many enemies, and has been accused, not entirely without injustice, of charlatany; yet his influence on the science of chemistry gives him still a claim to remembrance. He brought it into a nearer connection with physics, and sought for the causes of all the phenomena of the inorganic universe in these two departments of science. This is the object of his principal work, "*Physica Subterranea*." At the same time he began to form a theory of chemistry, and conceived the idea of a primitive acid, of which all the others were only modifications. He also made researches into the process of combustion. He maintained that every metal consists of a common earthy matter, of a common combustible principle, and of a peculiar mercurial substance. If we heat a metal so that it changes its form, we disengage the mercurial substance, and nothing remains but the metallic calx. This was the first germ of the phlogistic theory, which was further developed by Stahl, and prevailed until the time of Lavoisier. The numerous works of Beccher are, even now, not without interest.

BECKET, THOMAS, the most celebrated prelate in our annals. He was born in London, 1119. His mother is said to have been a Saracen lady, to whose father Gilbert Becket was a prisoner in Jerusalem, being taken captive in one of the crusades. The lady is said to have fallen in love with the prisoner, and to have followed him to London, where he married her. After studying at Oxford and Paris, Becket was sent, by the favour of Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, to study civil law at Bononia, in Italy, and, on his return, was made archdeacon of Canterbury and provost of Beverley. His claim to the good opinion of Theobald was founded on his skill

in negociation shown in a matter of the highest importance to England—the soliciting from the pope the prohibitory letters against the crowning of Eustace, the son of Stephen, by which that design was defeated. This service not only raised Becket in the esteem of the archbishop, but in that of King Henry II., and was the foundation of his high fortune.

In 1158 Becket was appointed high chancellor and preceptor to Prince Henry, and at this time was a complete courtier, conforming, in every respect, to the humour of the king. He was, in fact, his prime companion, had the same hours of eating and going to bed, held splendid levees, and courted popular applause. In 1159 he made a campaign with the king in Toulouse, having in his own pay 700 knights and 1200 horsemen; and it is said he advised Henry to seize the person of Louis, king of France, shut up in Toulouse without an army. This counsel, however, so indicative of the future martyr, being too bold for the lay counsellors of one of the boldest monarchs of the age, was declined. In the next year, he visited Paris, to treat of an alliance between the eldest daughter of the king of France and prince Henry, and returned with the young princess to England. He had not enjoyed the chancellorship more than four years when his patron Theobald died, and king Henry was so far mistaken as to raise his favourite to the primacy, on the presumption that he would aid him in those political views, in respect to church power, which all the sovereigns of the Norman line embraced, and which, in fact, caused a continual struggle until its termination by Henry VIII. It has been asserted that Becket told the king what he was to expect from him; but, independent of the appointment itself, there is evidence to prove his eagerness to obtain the dignity, and the disgust entertained by Henry at the first symptoms of the real temper of the man whom he had been so anxious to promote.

Becket was consecrated archbishop in 1162, and immediately affected an austerity of character which formed a very natural prelude to the part which he meant to play. Pope Alexander III. held a general council at Tours, in 1163, at which Becket attended, and made a formal complaint of the infringements by the laity on the rights and immunities of the church. On his return to England he began to act in the spirit of this representation, and to prosecute several of the nobility and others holding church possessions, whom he also proceeded to excommunicate. Henry, an able and politic monarch, was anxious to recal certain privileges of the clergy, which withdrew them from the jurisdiction of the civil courts; and it was not without a violent struggle, and the mediation of the pope, that Becket finally acquiesced.

The king soon after summoned a convocation or parliament at Clarendon, to the celebrated constitution of which, although the archbishop swore that he would never assent, he at length subscribed it, and, alleging something like force for his excuse, by way of penance, suspended himself from his archiepiscopal functions until the pope's absolution could arrive. Finding himself the object of the king's displeasure, he soon after attempted to escape to France; but, being intercepted, Henry, in a parliament at Northampton, charged him with a violation of his allegiance, and all his goods were confis-

ated. A suit was also commenced against him for money lent him during his chancellorship, and for the proceeds of the benefices which he had held vacant while in that capacity. In this desperate situation, he, with great difficulty and danger, made his escape to Flanders, and, proceeding to the pope at Sens, humbly resigned his archbishopric, which was, however, restored. He then took up his abode at the abbey of Pontigny, in Normandy, whence he issued expostulatory letters to the king and bishops of England, in which he excommunicated all violators of the prerogatives of the church, and included in the censure the principal officers of the crown. Henry was so exasperated that he banished all his relations, and obliged the Cistercians to send him away from the abbey of Pontigny, from which he removed, on the recommendation of the king of France, to the abbey of Columba, and spent four years there in exile.

After much negotiation, a sort of reconciliation took place in 1170, on the whole to the advantage of Becket, who, being restored to his see, with all its former privileges, acted, on the occasion, with excessive haughtiness. After a triumphant entry into Canterbury, the young king Henry, crowned during the life-time of his father, transmitted him an order to restore the suspended and excommunicated prelates, which he refused to do, on the pretence that the pope alone could grant the favour, although the latter had lodged the instruments of censure in his hands. The prelates immediately appealed to Henry in Normandy, who in a state of extreme exasperation, exclaimed, "What an unhappy prince am I, who have not about me one man of spirit enough to rid me of a single insolent prelate, the perpetual trouble of my life!" These rash and too significant words induced four attendant barons, Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Breto, to resolve to wipe out the king's reproach. Having laid their plans, they forthwith proceeded to Canterbury, and, having formally required the archbishop to restore the suspended prelates, they returned in the evening of the same day, and, placing soldiers in the court-yard, rushed, with their swords drawn, into the cathedral, where the archbishop was at vespers, and, advancing towards him, threatened him with death if he still disobeyed the orders of Henry. Becket, without the least token of fear, replied that he was ready to die for the rights of the church, and magnanimously added, "I charge you, in the name of the Almighty, not to hurt any other person here, for none of them have been concerned in the late transactions." The confederates then strove to drag him out of the church; but, not being able to do so, on account of his resolute deportment, they killed him on the spot with repeated wounds, all which he endured without a groan.

The conduct of Henry, and the consequences of this assassination, form a part of English history wherein the discerning student will perceive the subtle policy of the court of Rome, which eagerly availed itself of this opportunity to advance its general object, with a due regard to the power of Henry and his strength of character. The perpetrators of the deed, on taking a voyage to Rome, were admitted to penance, and allowed to expiate their enormity in the Holy Land. Thus perished Thomas Becket, in his fifty-second year, a martyr to the cause which he espoused, and a

man of unquestionable vigour of intellect. He was canonized two years after his death, and miracles abounded at his tomb. In the reign of Henry III. his body was taken up and placed in a magnificent shrine, erected by Archbishop Stephen Langton; and of the popularity of the pilgrimages to his tomb the Canterbury Tales of Chaucer will prove an enduring testimony.

BECKMANN, JOHN, for almost forty-five years professor of philosophy, economy, policy, finance, and commerce in Gottingen, was born at Hoya in 1739. In 1763 he was appointed, on Busching's recommendation, professor of the Lutheran gymnasium in St. Petersburg. In 1766 he became professor in Gottingen, where he lectured with great success. Beckmann died in 1811, being a member of most of the learned societies of the North of Europe. There are a number of text-books in the different sciences above mentioned by him. Among his other works is a very valuable History of Inventions.

BEDÉ, or BEDA, an eminent ecclesiastic of the eighth century, usually called the *venerable Bede*, was born in the year 672 or 673, in the neighbourhood of Wearmouth, in the bishopric of Durham. From the age of seven to that of nineteen, he pursued his studies in the monastery of St. Peter, at Wearmouth. Being then ordained deacon, he was employed in the task of educating the youth who resorted to the monastery for instruction, and pursued his own studies with unremitting ardour. In his thirtieth year he was ordained priest; and, his fame for zeal and erudition reaching the ears of Pope Sergius, he was invited to Rome, but, in consequence of the death of that pontiff, never went there.

It is not even certain that Bede ever left Northumberland, which, of course, reduces the incidents of his life to his literary pursuits and domestic occupations, as he accepted no benefice, and never seems to have interfered in civil transactions. His church history was published in 731. His last literary labour was a translation of the Gospel of St. John into Saxon, which he completed with difficulty on the very day and hour of his death. The writings of Bede were numerous and important, considering the time in which they were written and the subjects of which they treat, which extended to ecclesiastical affairs, religion, and education only. His English Ecclesiastical History is the greatest and most popular of his works, and has acquired additional celebrity by the translation of "King Alfred." The collections which he made for it were the labour of many years. Besides his own personal investigations, he kept up a correspondence with the monasteries throughout the Heptarchy, to obtain archives and records for his purpose; and thus nearly all the knowledge possessed of the early state of Christianity in this country is due to Bede. There have been several editions of the original Latin, which is easy, although not elegant. The best is that of Dr. Smith, Cambridge, 1722. Bede was also the author of many other works, a catalogue of which he subjoined to his history. Several of these were printed early; but the first general collection of his works was that of Paris, published in 1554. While the number and variety of the writings of Bede show the extent of his erudition, his probity, moderation, and modesty, ensured him general respect; and his disinterestedness is proved by the fact that he was never any thing but an unbeneficed priest. A letter of advice which he



wrote late in life, to Egbert, archbishop of York, proves at once the purity of his morals, the liberality of his sentiments, and the excellence of his discernment, his wish being to curtail the number of monasteries and to increase the efficacy and respectability of the secular clergy. Notwithstanding the veneration with which he was regarded not a single miracle is recorded of him; and, as monks were the great miracle mongers, and his views of monastic reform such as we have mentioned, this is not surprising. The manner of the death of this virtuous ecclesiastic was striking and characteristic. He was dictating a translation of the gospel of St. John to an amanuensis. The young man who wrote for him said, "There is now, master, but one sentence wanting;" upon which he bade him write quickly; and, when the scribe said, "It is now done," the dying sage ejaculated, "It is now done," and a few minutes afterwards expired, in the act of prayer, on the floor of his cell, in the sixty-third year of his age.

BEDDOES, THOMAS, a celebrated English physician, born in 1760 at Shifnal, in Shropshire. He was educated by his grandfather. He made great progress at school in classical studies, and distinguished himself at Oxford by his knowledge of ancient and modern languages and literature. The great discoveries in physics, chemistry, and physiology, irresistibly attracted him. He continued his studies with success in London and Edinburgh. In his twenty-sixth year he took his doctor's degree, afterwards visited Paris, and formed an acquaintance with Lavoisier. On his return he was appointed professor of chemistry at Oxford. There he published some excellent chemical treatises and "Observations on the Calculus, Sea-Scurvy, Consumption, Catarrh, and Fever." But, dazzled by the splendid promises of the French revolution, he offended some of his former admirers, and excited such a clamour against him by the publication of his political opinions that he determined to resign his professorship, and retired to the house of his friend Mr. Reynolds, in Shropshire. There he composed his observations on the nature of demonstrative evidence, in which he endeavours to prove that mathematical reasoning proceeds on the evidence of the senses, and that geometry is founded on experiment. He also published the "History of Isaac Jenkins," which was intended to impress useful moral lessons on the labouring classes in an attractive manner. Above 40,000 copies of this popular work were sold in a short time. After he had married, in 1794, he formed the plan of a pneumatic institution for curing diseases, particularly consumption, by means of factitious airs or gases. He succeeded, with the assistance of the celebrated Wedgewood, in opening this institution in 1798. The chief purpose of the institution, however, was never realized, and Beddoes' zeal gradually relaxed, so that he relinquished it one year before his death, after having published a number of valuable works upon the application of factitious airs.

BEDFORD, DUKES OF.—There have been several highly distinguished noblemen bearing this title; but the most celebrated was John, duke of Bedford, one of the younger sons of King Henry IV., well known in English history both as a statesman and a warrior. Shakspeare, who calls him Prince John of Lancaster, introduces him in his plays of Henry IV. as distinguishing himself by his youthful courage in the battle of Shrewsbury, in

1403, and forming a sort of moral contrast to his more dissipated brother the prince of Wales. During the reign of Henry V. he participated in the fame acquired by the conquest of France; but it was after the death of that king, who by will appointed him regent of France, that his talents became fully developed. He displayed his military skill in the battle of Verneuil in 1424; after which the difficulties which from various causes he experienced in endeavouring to maintain possession of the conquered provinces in France afford the strongest proof of his abilities in surmounting them. The greatest blemish in his character is his cruel and unjustifiable execution of the maid of Orleans in 1431. He survived this event about four years, and, dying in 1435 at Rouen, was buried in the cathedral of that city.

Bedford likewise deserves notice for his patronage of the arts. One curious monument of his taste is still existing: it is the "Bedford Missal," a small thick folio volume highly illuminated, of which the following account is given by Mr. Dibdin, in his *Bibliomania*: "This missal, executed under the eye and for the immediate use of the famous John duke of Bedford and Jane his wife, was at the beginning of the eighteenth century in the magnificent library of Harley earl of Oxford. It afterwards came into the collection of his daughter, the well-known duchess of Portland, at whose sale, in 1786, it was purchased by Mr. Edwards for 215 guineas; and 500 guineas were a few years after offered for this identical volume. Among the pictures in it there is an interesting one of the whole-length portraits of the duke and duchess; the head of the former of which has been enlarged and engraved by Vertue, for his portraits to illustrate the history of England. The missal frequently displays the arms of these noble personages, and also affords a pleasing testimony of the affectionate gallantry of the pair, the motto of the former being 'A vous entier,' that of the latter, 'J'en suis contente.' There is a formal attestation in the volume of its having been given by the duke to his nephew Henry VI. as a most suitable present." This splendid missal contains fifty-nine large and more than 1000 small miniature paintings, among which, besides the portraits above-mentioned, is one of Henry V. At the sale of Mr. Edwards' library it was bought by the marquis of Blandford, now duke of Marlborough, for £687 15s. Gough, the celebrated antiquary, published a work in octavo, describing the Bedford Missal.

Francis Russell, the fifth duke of Bedford, was very distinguished for his love of agriculture and farming pursuits generally. He was born July 22d, 1765, and educated at Oxford. On entering into public life, he became intimately connected with Mr. Fox and the whig party. He retired with them from public life in 1796, and he rarely made his appearance in the House of Lords till after the change in the administration which occurred in 1801. He was actively engaged in the support of his own political views till the following year, when he expired, February 26, 1802. A very beautiful monument to his memory has since been erected in Russell Square. It represents the various attributes of agricultural improvement, and shows that plenty is one of the results of a scientific attention to the various arts with which it is connected. It is elaborately cast in bronze, and the whole is approached by a series of granite steps. It stands opposite the

statue of Charles James Fox, and is represented beneath.



**BEER, MICHAEL**, sometimes called *Michael Berr*, a learned French Jew, born at Nancy, in 1784, and is remarkable from having been the first of his religion who pursued the profession of an advocate in France. His success in this career was brilliant; but he soon gave himself up exclusively to literature, and received the honour, never before conferred on a Jew, of being admitted into the learned academies of France. He was elected a member of the Royal Society of Antiquaries, of the Philotechnic Society, of the academies of Nancy, Strasburg, Nantes, and Göttingen. Napoleon invited him, in 1807, to the assembly of Jews, who were to advise concerning the amelioration of the condition of that people; and the general sanhedrim for France and Italy chose him their secretary. At the erection of the kingdom of Westphalia, on account of his knowledge of the language of the country, he received an appointment in the ministry of the interior, and afterwards was appointed to a corresponding office in the French ministry: he also delivered a course of lectures on German literature in the Athenæum of Paris, shortly after which he died.

**BEERING, VITUS**, a celebrated captain in the Russian navy, who was born at Horsens, in Jutland, and being a skilful seaman was employed by Peter the Great in the navy which he had newly established at Cronstadt. His talents, and the undaunted courage displayed by him in the naval wars against the Swedes, procured him the honour of being chosen to command a voyage of discovery in the sea of Kamtschatka. He set out from Petersburg, in February, 1725, for Siberia. In the year 1728 he examined the northern coasts of Kamtschatka as far as lat.  $67^{\circ} 18' N.$ , and proved that Asia is not united to America. It remained, however, to be determined whether the land opposite to Kamtschatka was, in reality, the coast of the American continent,

or merely islands lying between Asia and America. June 4, 1741, he sailed, with two ships, from Ochotsk, and touched the north-western coast of America, between lat.  $35^{\circ}$  and  $69^{\circ} N.$  Tempests and sickness prevented him from pursuing his discoveries: he was cast on a desolate island, covered with snow and ice, where he grew dangerously sick, and died December 8, 1741. The straits between Asia and America have received the name of *Beering's Straits*, and the island on which he died that of *Beering's Island*.

**BEETHOVEN, LOUIS VON**, a celebrated musician, born at Bonn, in 1772. He was, according to Fayolle's Dictionary of Musicians, a natural son of Frederic William II., king of Prussia. His great talent for music was early cultivated, and he astonished, in his eighth year, all who heard him, by his execution on the violin, on which he was in the habit of performing with great diligence. In his eleventh year he played Bach's "*Wohl Temperirtes Clavier*," and in his thirteenth composed some sonatas. These promising appearances of great talent induced the then reigning elector of Cologne to send him, in 1792, in the character of his organist, and at his expense, to Vienna, that he might accomplish himself there in composition, under the instruction of Haydn. Under Haydn and Albrechtsberger he made rapid progress, and became, likewise, a great player on the piano-forte, astonishing every one by his extempore performances. In 1809 he was invited to the new court of the king of Westphalia, at which several men of distinction, and among them his pupil in music, the archduke Rodolph, now bishop of Olmütz, persuaded him to remain, by the promise of a yearly salary. A few years before his death, a cold, which he had caught by composing in the open air, produced a deafness, which became by degrees very great; and he lived, afterwards, very much retired, in the village of Mödlingen, near Vienna. Beethoven united the humour of Haydn with the melancholy of Mozart, and the character of his music most resembles Cherubini's. Reichhardt, in a comparison of Beethoven with Haydn and Mozart, says, "The Quartett of Haydn was the offspring of his amiable and original character. In naivete and good humour he is unrivalled. The more powerful nature and richer imagination of Mozart embraced a wider field, and many of his compositions express the whole height and depth of his character. He placed more value also on exquisite finish. Beethoven, early acquainted with Mozart's compositions, gave a still bolder cast to his ideas." Besides his great symphonies and overtures, his quintets, quartetts, and trios for stringed instruments, his numerous sonatas, variations, and other pieces for the piano-forte, in which he shows the great richness of his imagination, he also composed vocal music, but with less success. To this department belongs his opera "*Leonore*" (in its altered state called "*Fidelio*"), and the oratorio of "*Christ on the Mount of Olives*." Beethoven died March 26th, 1827, near Vienna, in the greatest poverty.

**BEHAIM, MARTIN**, born at Nuremberg, about 1430, and was distinguished as one of the most learned mathematicians and astronomers of his age. He was engaged in commerce, and travelled, for the purpose of carrying on his business, from 1455 to 1479; but he also devoted himself to the study of the mathematical and nautical sciences, in which



Regiomontanus is said to have been his master. He went from Antwerp to Lisbon, in 1480, where he was received with marks of distinction. He sailed in the fleet of Diego Can, on a voyage of discovery, and explored the islands on the coast of Africa as far as the river Zaire. He is also said to have discovered, or at least to have colonized, the island of Fayal, where he remained for several years, and assisted in the discovery of the other Azores. He was afterwards knighted, and returned to his native country, where he constructed a terrestrial globe in 1492, which bears the marks of the imperfect acquaintance of that age with the true dimensions of the earth. Behaim died, after many voyages, at Lisbon, in 1506. Some ancient Spanish historians assert that he made many discoveries, and that he gave to his friend Columbus the idea of another hemisphere.

**BELGRANO, MANUEL.**—This eminent patriot was born at Buenos Ayres, of wealthy parents, who emigrated from Italy. After completing his education at the university of Salamanca, he was appointed secretary of the *consulado* at Buenos Ayres, and thus came in contact continually with the mercantile classes, the most enlightened and important portion of the population of that city. His polished and amiable manners, and his taste for letters and the fine arts, enabled him to improve the opportunity afforded him by his situation, so as to acquire extensive popularity. When the political troubles in America commenced, Belgrano was at first disposed to favour the princess Carlota, sister of Ferdinand, and establish an independent monarchy in Buenos Ayres. But he soon adopted the plan of erecting a perfectly free government, and entered with zeal and ability into the measures which prepared and followed the deposition of the viceroy Cisneros, in May, 1810. In the new order of things, Belgrano entered on a military career, and was speedily raised to the rank of general, in which capacity he commanded the expedition sent against Paraguay, which, after advancing into the heart of that province, was compelled by the skill of Yedros and Francia, to return to Buenos Ayres, without an engagement, and leave the Paraguayans unmolested.

Belgrano's next enterprise was more successful. September 24, 1812, he gained a complete victory over the royalist general Pio Tristan, at Tucuman, and thus defeated the intended expedition of the latter against Buenos Ayres. On the 13th of February following he obtained another signal victory over Tristan at Salta. But these brilliant advantages were soon followed by equally striking reverses. Belgrano imprudently released Tristan and his troops upon their parole, which the Spaniards, with that profligate disregard of all conventions and engagements which characterized their policy in the contest with the South Americans, dishonourably violated. The consequence was that general Pezuela, with the very same troops, added to others collected in Peru, attacked and defeated Belgrano at Vilcapugio, October 1, 1813, and again at Ayoma, in the same year; and San Martin was appointed to succeed him in command. In 1816 he was however reappointed to the command of the troops in Tucuman, and was making the most judicious arrangements for acting against the Spaniards in Upper Peru when the spirit of anarchy seized upon the army, and he was deposed, and the troops dispersed. Belgrano was liberal, upright, and disinterested to a

degree not exceeded by any of his compatriots, and faithful and exact in the discharge of all his duties. He displayed considerable ardour as an officer, and applied himself closely to the study of tactics, but had neither the experience nor the military capacity necessary to constitute a great general. Regardless of his occasional reverses of fortune, and of the persecution which he underwent from some of the transitory factions of the day, he continued to labour unremittingly for the welfare of his country until his death, in 1820, which was very justly deplored.

**BELIDOR, BERNARD FOREST DE**, an eminent mathematician and engineer, a native of Catalonia, born 1697. He obtained the situation of royal professor at the artillery school of La Fere, and that of provincial commissary of artillery, at an early age. While thus engaged, having ascertained by experiment that a considerable diminution of the powder used in charging cannon might take place without injuring the projectile force, he sent a memorial upon the subject direct to Cardinal Fleury, which rousing the jealousy of the grand master of artillery, the official channel of communication with the minister, his influence was exerted with success to deprive him of both his places. The patronage, however, of the prince of Conti, whom he accompanied to Italy, restored him at length to favour, and, under the ministry of Belleisle, he obtained the inspectorship of artillery, with the cross of St. Louis, and apartments at the arsenal of Paris. He published a variety of works, of which the most esteemed is devoted to an examination of hydraulic architecture. He died at Paris in 1761.

**BELISARIUS**, one of the greatest generals of his time, to whom the emperor Justinian chiefly owed the splendour of his reign. Sprung from an obscure family in Thrace, Belisarius first served in the body guard of the emperor, soon after obtained



the chief command of an army of 25,000 men, stationed on the Persian frontiers, and, in the year 530, gained a complete victory over a Persian army of not less than 40,000 soldiers. The next year,

however, he lost a battle against the same enemy, who had forced his way into Syria—the only battle which he lost during his whole career. He was recalled from the army, and soon became at home the support of his master. In the year 532, civil commotions, proceeding from two rival parties, who called themselves the *green* and the *blue*, and who caused great disorders, in Constantinople, placed the life and reign of Justinian in the utmost peril, and Hypatius was already chosen emperor, when Belisarius with a small body of faithful adherents restored order. Justinian, with a view of conquering the dominions of Gelimer, king of the Vandals, sent this general with an army of 15,000 men to Africa. After two victories, he secured the person and treasures of the Vandal king. Gelimer was led in triumph through the streets of Constantinople, and Justinian ordered a medal to be struck, with the inscription “Belisarius Gloria Romanorum,” which has descended to our times. By the dissensions existing in the royal family of the Ostrogoths in Italy, Justinian was induced to attempt to bring Italy and Rome under his sceptre. Belisarius vanquished Vitiges, king of the Goths, made him prisoner at Ravenna, and conducted him, together with many other Goths, to Constantinople. He afterwards commanded in the war against the Bulgarians, whom he conquered in the year 559. Upon his return to Constantinople, he was accused of having taken part in a conspiracy. But Justinian was convinced of his innocence, and is said to have restored to him his property and dignities, of which he had been deprived. He died in the year 565. His history has been much coloured by the poets, and particularly by Marmontel, in his otherwise admirable politico-philosophical romance. According to his narrative, the emperor caused the eyes of the hero to be struck out, and Belisarius was compelled to beg his bread in the streets of Constantinople. Other writers say that Justinian had him thrown into a prison, which is still shown under the appellation of the tower of Belisarius. From this tower he is reported to have let down a bag fastened to a rope, and to have addressed the passengers in these words:—*Date Belisario obolum, quem virtus exevit, invidia depressit* (Give an obolus to Belisarius, whom virtue exalted, and envy has oppressed). Of this, however, no contemporary writer makes any mention.

BELKNAP, JEREMY, an American clergyman and author of considerable reputation. He was born in June, 1744, graduated at Harvard College in 1762, and ordained pastor of the church in Dover, New Hampshire, in 1767. Here he spent twenty years in the diligent performance of his clerical duties, and the cultivation of literature. It was during this period that he composed his *History of New Hampshire*, a work by which he established himself as an author in the good opinion of his countrymen. In 1787 he took charge of a church in Boston, where he continued to officiate until his death, in 1798. Besides his history, he published two volumes of his unfinished *American Biography*, and a number of political, religious, and literary tracts. Doctor Belknap wrote with ease and correctness, though not with elegance: he was more remarkable for research and extensive information than for brilliancy or originality of talents. The *History of New Hampshire* and the *American Biography* above mentioned are often consulted. As a

public preacher and citizen, he enjoyed the highest estimation. He was one of the founders of the Massachusetts historical society, whose collections are important to the annals of the United States.

BELL, ANDREW.—This eminent philanthropist may be considered as the founder of the National System of Education. He was born at St. Andrew's in Fifeshire, and early in life went out as a chaplain in the service of the East India Company. He was immediately made superintendent of the large boys' school at Madras, where he acquired a knowledge of the Hindoo modes of instruction, and, on his return to England, he published two works illustrative of the Madras system. The excellence of Dr. Bell's views in reference to the general education of the poorer classes is best shown by the progress of his system, which is now so universally established. He died at Cheltenham, January 28, 1832, and bequeathed more than 100,000*l.* for the furtherance of literary and charitable objects. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

BELLAMY, JAMES, a Flemish poet of considerable eminence, born at Flushing in the year 1757, and died in 1796. He was twenty-five years old, and following the trade of a baker, when, in the year 1772, the second secular festival, in commemoration of the foundation of the republic, was celebrated throughout Holland. His genius, suddenly inflamed by the love of his native land, rendered him a poet, and his first productions met with success. He studied Latin, made himself better acquainted with his mother tongue, and composed several pieces of merit sufficient to induce the Society of Arts at the Hague to incorporate them in their collections. He published his patriotic songs under the title “*Vaderlandse-Gezengen*,” which secure him a place among the first poets of his nation. Bellamy sung likewise the praise of love, and the latter works of this poet betray a certain melancholy, which renders them still more interesting. He has been, with justice, placed by the side of Bilderdijk, Helmers, Loots, Feyth, &c., as one of the restorers of modern Dutch poetry.

BELLARMIN, ROBERT, a cardinal, and celebrated controversialist of the Roman church, who was born at Monte Pulciano, in Tuscany, in 1542. At the age of eighteen he entered into the college of Jesuits, where he soon distinguished himself; and his reputation caused him to be sent into the Low Countries, to oppose the progress of the Reformers. He was ordained a priest in 1569, by Jansenius, bishop of Ghent, and placed in the theological chair of the university of Louvain. After a residence of seven years he returned to Italy, and was sent by Sixtus V. to France, as companion to the Legate. He was made a cardinal on account of his learning by Clement VIII., and in 1602 created archbishop of Capua. At the elections of Leo XI. and Paul V. he was thought of for the pontificate, and might have been chosen had he not been a Jesuit. Paul V. recalled him to Rome, on which he resigned his archbishopric without retaining any pension on it, as he might have done. In 1621 he left his apartments in the Vatican, and returned to a house of his order, where he died the same year, at the age of seventy-one. So impressed were the people with the idea of his sanctity that it was necessary to place guards to keep off the crowd, which pressed round to touch his body, or procure some relics of his gar-



ments. Bellarmine had the double merit with the court of Rome of supporting her temporal power and spiritual supremacy to the utmost, and of strenuously opposing the Reformers. The talent he displayed in the latter controversy called forth all the similar ability on the protestant side; and, for a number of years, no eminent divine among the Reformers failed to make his arguments a particular subject of refutation. The great work which he composed in this warfare is entitled "A Body of Controversy," written in Latin, the style of which is perspicuous and precise, without any pretension to purity or elegance. He displays a vast amount of scriptural learning, and is deeply versed in the doctrine and practice of the church in all ages, as becomes one who determines every point by authority. To his credit, he exhibits none of the lax morality of his order, and, in respect to the doctrines of predestination and efficacious grace, is more a follower of St. Augustine than a Jesuit. His maxims on the right of pontiffs to depose princes caused his work on the temporal powers of the popes to be condemned at Paris. On the other hand, it did not satisfy the court of Rome, because it asserted, not a direct, but an indirect, power in the popes in temporal matters, which reservation so offended Sixtus V. that he placed it among the list of prohibited books. These differences among the catholics necessarily gave strength to the protestant side, and produced a work from Mayer in exposition of them. In the rancour of controversy some malignant calumnies were uttered against the morals of Bellarmine; but it is evident that he inclined to superstition in faith and scrupulosity in practice. At his death he bequeathed one-half of his soul to the Virgin and the other to Jesus Christ. His society thought so highly of his sanctity that proofs were collected to entitle him to canonization; but the fear of giving offence to the sovereigns whose rights he opposed has always prevented a compliance with the ardent wishes of the Jesuits. The best edition of his controversial works is that published at Prague in 1721, in four volumes folio.

BELLAY, JOACHIM DU, a celebrated French poet, who was born at Lire in 1524. He received a good education, and early in life studied the works of the Latin, French, and Greek poets, so that the fire of their genius enkindled his own. He produced several works which procured him access to the court, where Francis I., Henry II., and Margaret of Navarre, admired the sweetness, the ease, and the fertility of his genius. He was unanimously called the "Ovid of France." The cardinal John du Bellay, his near relation, having retired to Rome, in 1547, after the death of Francis I., our poet followed him thither within two years afterwards, where he enjoyed both the charms of society and those of study. The cardinal was a man of letters, and the hours they passed together were real parties of pleasure. Du Bellay's stay in Italy lasted but three years, as his illustrious kinsman wanted him in France, where he gave him the management of his affairs; but his zeal, his fidelity, and attachment to his interests, were but poorly repaid, some secret enemies having misrepresented him to his patron. His most innocent actions were turned to his reproach; sinister meanings were given to his verses; and at length he was accused of irreligion. Eustache du Bellay, bishop of Paris, moved at his misfortunes, and sen-

sible of his merits, procured him in 1555 a canonry of his church, which, however, he enjoyed not long; a stroke of apoplexy carried him off in the night of the 1st of January 1560, at the age of thirty-seven. His French poems established his reputation, and are certainly very ingenious; but the author was as certainly neglectful of decorum and the proprieties of his station, and imitated the ancients, not so much in what deserves imitation as in the liberties they sometimes take. Our own poet Spenser thought very highly of Du Bellay's poetry, and the subjoined sonnet, addressed to the lady Olive, might well pass for one of Spenser's.

"Say, canst thou number all the stars that gleam  
Along the silent air in dazzling light,  
And form an everlasting diadem  
For the dark tresses and clear brow of night?  
Know'st thou how many flowers attend the Spring,  
How many fruits fair Autumn's bounties bring?  
Know'st thou each jewelled cave that hidden lies  
Where the bold mariner directs his sail?  
Or canst thou count the vivid sparks that rise  
Where *Ætna* and *Vesuvius*' fires prevail?  
How many billows rush with angry roar  
Against the barrier of the foamy shore?  
If these thou know'st, perchance thy tongue may tell  
Her charms, her virtues, whom I love so well."

BELLENDEN, WILLIAM, a Scottish writer of the seventeenth century, distinguished for the elegance of his Latin style. He was educated at Paris, where he was professor of the *Belles Lettres* in 1602; and, though he was made master of requests by James I., he still continued in the French metropolis. In 1608 he published a work entitled "Ciceronis Princeps," containing a selection from the works of Cicero, of passages relating to the duties of a prince and the rules of government. It was dedicated to Henry prince of Wales, and included a prefatory discourse. He engaged in a very extensive work, entitled "De Tribus Luminibus Romanorum," in which Seneca and Pliny were to be added to Cicero; but this he did not live to complete. The treatise of Bellenden, "De Statu," which had become very scarce, was republished in 1787 by Dr. Samuel Parr, with a very extraordinary Latin preface.

BELLINI, JAMES, and his two sons Gentile and Giovanni, were celebrated painters, who formed a new epoch in the Venetian school. Of James's works nothing has been left; but several of Gentile's have reached our times. In the year 1479 Gentile went to Constantinople, Mohammed II. having sent to Venice for a skilful painter; and he is said to have there copied the bass-reliefs of the column of Theodosius, and to have died at Venice in the year 1501. The most distinguished of the family was Giovanni Bellini, who was born at Venice about 1424, and died about 1516. He studied nature diligently, and he contributed much to make oil painting popular. He has left many excellent pictures, of which one, the "Saviour pronouncing his Benediction," is in the gallery of Dresden. His own reputation was much increased by that of his celebrated disciples Titian and Giorgione. As their instructor he is sometimes called the *Founder of the Venetian School*.

BELLOY, PIERRE LAURENT BUYRETTE DE, the first dramatist who successfully introduced native heroes upon the French stage, instead of those of Greece and Rome, or the great men of other nations. He was born at St. Fluer, in Auvergne, in 1727, and went to Paris when a child, where he was supported by his uncle, a distinguished advocate in

the parliament of Paris, who designed him for the same profession. He applied himself to his profession with reluctance, while he showed much genius for the drama. His uncle opposed this taste, and the young man secretly left his house. He now made his appearance at several northern courts, as an actor, under the name of *Dormont de Belloy*. Every where his character gained him love and esteem. He spent several years in Petersburg, where the empress Elizabeth showed him much kindness. In 1758 he returned to France, with the intention of having his tragedy "Titus" represented. His uncle obtained a warrant of imprisonment against him, in case he should appear on the stage. But Belloy hoped to reconcile his family to him by the success of Titus, but his hope was disappointed by the failure of the piece; and the author went once more to Petersburg. Shortly after, his uncle died, and he returned again to France, where he brought out his tragedy "Zelmire," which was acted with the most complete success. In 1795 followed his "Siege de Calais," a tragedy which produced a great sensation, and is still esteemed, though it owes the applause bestowed upon it rather to its subject than to its poetical merit. He received the medal promised by the king to those poets who should produce three successful pieces and which has been awarded only on this occasion. On account of the great applause with which the "Siege of Calais" was received, it was counted as two, it being, in fact, only the second successful piece of its author. Calais sent him the freedom of the city in a gold box. Belloy wrote various dramatic pieces, of which "Gaston et Bayard" procured his reception into the *Academy Française*. Upon the whole, he was not happy in the expression of tragical pathos. He died in 1775.

**BELOE, WILLIAM.**—This distinguished classical scholar, and amiable man, was a native of Norwich. He received a good education at Cambridge, and in 1773 was engaged as master of the Grammar School of his native place. He soon entered into holy orders, and obtained the vicarage of Earham, to which was afterwards added the living of All-Hallows, London, and a prebendary in St. Paul's Cathedral.

Mr. Beloe was mainly instrumental in establishing the "British Critic," a work which conferred the greatest benefit on literature; and his most important work, "Anecdotes of Literature and Scarce Books," was commenced after he was appointed librarian to the British Museum. Mr. Beloe ended a long and laborious life in 1817, and his son, who is also eminent for his literary endowments, is a minister of the established church, resident at Guildford. After Mr. Beloe's death his memoirs were published under the title of "The Sexagenarian," and acquired a high degree of popularity.

**BELSHAM, THOMAS**, a very distinguished dissenting minister, who was educated at the dissenting college at Daventry. When he embraced Unitarianism, in 1789, he became professor of divinity in the college at Hackney, till the death of Dr. Disney, when he succeeded him at the chapel in Essex Street. He died at Hampstead in 1829. Mr. Belsham was the author of a great many controversial works, but his principal production is a translation of Paul's Epistles, with Notes. It appeared in 1823.

**BELZONI, JOHN BAPTIST.**—This celebrated African traveller was born at Padua, and, after endur-

ing considerable vicissitude in Italy, came over to this country in 1803, where he married. In 1812 he went to the continent, accompanied by his wife; and after visiting Portugal, Spain, and Malta, in 1815, he travelled to Egypt. He continued there till 1819, employing the interval in exploring, with extraordinary activity and success, the dilapidated monuments of antiquity so thickly scattered over that country. Among his most remarkable discoveries are—an entrance into one of the pyramids of Ghizeh, the tombs of the Egyptian kings at Beban-el-Malook, in the vicinity of the ancient city of Thebes, and the temple of Ipsambul, near the second cataract of the Nile. On returning to Europe, and visiting Italy, Belzoni presented to the inhabitants of his native city two lion-headed statues of granite, which the Paduans placed in a conspicuous station in the Palazza della Justizia; and, to show the interest they took in the fame of their fellow-citizen, they caused a medal to be struck, bearing on one side a representation of the statues in question, and on the other an inscription recording Belzoni's principal researches and discoveries.



Belzoni, who had been much indebted to Mr. Salt, the British consul in Egypt, for pecuniary and other assistance in the prosecutions of his undertakings, hastened to England to lay their results before the public. In 1820 he published a "Narrative of the Operations and recent Discoveries within the Pyramids, Temples, Tombs, and Excavations, in Egypt and Nubia; and of a Journey to the coast of the Red Sea, in search of the ancient Berenice; and another to the Oasis of Jupiter Ammon," together with forty-four illustrative plates in a separate folio volume. In 1821 Belzoni exhibited, at the Egyptian Hall in Piccadilly, a model of the tomb which he had explored near Thebes; facsimiles of the paintings on the walls of one or two of the sepulchral apartments; with other curiosities which he had collected in Egypt. This exhibition attracted much public attention, and probably proved very profitable; but, being removed the following season to Paris, it did not there meet with equal success. Belzoni afterwards undertook an expedition of discovery to the central parts of Africa. He reached the mouth of the Benue River, on the coast of Guinea, in the autumn of 1823; and after waiting some time for a gentleman to accompany him to Benin, whose interest with the king



of that place he believed would be advantageous to him, he on the night of the 24th of November set off with that gentleman for Gato. He reached Benin, where he was seized with a disease which terminated in his death, December 3, 1823. He was interred at Gato, and a few palisades were placed round his grave.

The widow of this enterprising and unfortunate traveller has suffered considerably from poverty since the death of her husband, and the following extract of a letter from Lady Morgan will best illustrate her desolate condition:—"Brussels is at this moment the house of refuge for the exiled worth of all nations. Here, at least (in scriptural language) 'the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest.' Here the distant despot looses his hold, and the oppressed patriot breathes freely among a free people, while waiting for his moment of justice and retribution. Among the sterner grievances of national adversity, private wrongs and individual misfortunes find here, too, shelter if not redress, and sympathy if not restitution. The unfortunate widow of the unfortunate and heroic Belzoni is wearing out a penurious existence here, having nearly exhausted the last fraction of the miserable subscription raised for her by a few benevolent persons, some years since. I was much gratified by her calling on me, and went immediately to visit her. I found her occupying a little back room on the second floor of a small house in the dreary suburb of the *glacis*. Her only window commanded a view of the red-tiled roofs of the city of Brussels; and beyond an illimitable prospect of its environs. The disconsolate companion of the most heroic of all modern travellers was still in faded weeds, and intently occupied in reading from a very fine folio bible. A large coffin covered with hieroglyphics stood open and upright before her; it contained the most perfect mummy perhaps in existence. The walls and floor of her little room were covered with fragments, drawings, and objects of Egyptian antiquity; on the table were several relics, deemed holy in holy land, which once would have been purchased by the diadem of royal saints and imperial pilgrims, but which now derived their chief value in the eyes of their *triste* possessor, as memorials of that enterprising mind whose researches extended into the womb of time, and rescued from oblivion evidences of many of the great and successive events which marked its passage to eternity.

"Mrs. Belzoni received me with the grace which always goes with strong feeling, evidently both affected and surprised by my visit. She said she had thought herself beyond the reach of sympathy or notice—that she had only called upon me as a mark of respect, because Belzoni, in their last journey over the Alps, had read part of my 'Italy' to her—and all that was connected with *his* predilections, *his* pursuits, were to her solemn circumstances which she loved to commemorate. As my visit was not one of idle curiosity, I entered at once on the motive of my mission—the hope of being useful to her by raising a subscription, either in Brussels or on my return to England; but I found it difficult to keep her attention fixed to her own destitute position: her mind continually wandered to the unmerited misfortunes and unrequited services of Belzoni. She said she wanted nothing but the means of leaving Europe, and laying herself down in the tomb "under the shade of the *avasma*" at Gato. She wept passionately, and, instead of expatiating on

her own distress, talked only of Belzoni's virtues, his services, and sacrifices."

BEMBO, PETER, a Venetian writer of some celebrity, who was born in 1470. His father was governor of Ravenna, and employed in many important negotiations. When he went ambassador to Florence, he took his son with him, and it was here that Peter Bembo acquired that delicacy and purity of style in the Tuscan language for which he is so much admired in his works. He applied himself likewise to the Grecian language which he studied at Sicily under Constantine Lascaris; and, when his father went to Ferrara, he accompanied him, where he went through a course of philosophy under Nicholas Leonicens. His works were much admired in Italy; but, notwithstanding the elegance of his style, he has been thought sometimes to run into affectation by an improper use of the Latin phrases. He lived a retired life till 1513, when Pope Leo X. made choice of him for his secretary; but his great application to business and study injured his health and obliged him, for a change of air, to remove to Padua, where he resided when he received the news of the pope's death. He then retired to Venice, where he spent his time very agreeably amongst books and men of letters till 1538, when Pope Paul III. created him a cardinal, and soon after gave him the bishopric of Bergamo. He discharged his duties with great fidelity, till 1547, when he died. He was buried in the choir of the church of Minerva, where there is an epitaph to his memory, composed by his son Torquato Bembo; and some time after his death a very elegant marble statue was erected for him at Padua, in the celebrated Church of St. Anthony, by his friend Jerome Quirini. John de la Casa has written the life of this cardinal, and has given us an exact list of his Italian and Latin works.

BENBOW, JOHN, one of the most eminent naval commanders that this country has produced. He was born in 1650, at a small cottage in a village of Shropshire, and early in life showed a strong predilection for the sea. His birth-place is shown in the adjoining cut. In 1686 he commanded a



large merchantman, and was attacked in his passage to Cadiz, by a Saltee rover. Benbow succeeded in beating them off with the loss of thirteen men. After the revolution he was appointed to the command of a large vessel in the service of King William.

In 1697 he sailed from Spithead, with seven third-rates and two fireships, and after some time returned to Portsmouth for provisions, after which he had the good fortune to convey the Virginia and West India fleets safe into port. He then repaired to Dun-

kirk, where he received from Captain Bowman two orders or instructions from the lords of the admiralty, one to pursue M. Du Bart, and to destroy his ships if possible, at any place, except under the forts in Norway and Sweden; the other to obey the king's commands, pursuant to an order from his majesty for that purpose. On the 30th of July rear-admiral Vandergoes joined him with eleven Dutch ships, when he proposed that one of the squadrons should be so placed as that Dunkirk might be south of them, and the other in or near Ostend road, that if Du Bart should attempt to pass they might the better discover him; but the Dutch commander objected, on account of his ships not being in good order. Rear-admiral Benbow, being disappointed in this project, immediately formed another; for, observing in the beginning of August that ten French frigates were hauled into the basin to clean, he judged their design was to put to sea by the next spring tide; and therefore, as his ships were all foul, he wrote to the board, to desire that four of the best vessels might be ordered to Sheerness to clean, and that the others might come to the Downs. But this was not then thought advisable, though he afterwards received orders for it, when it was too late. By this unlucky accident, the French had an opportunity of getting out with five clean ships, which, however, did not prevent the admiral from pursuing them as well as he was able, and some ships of his squadron had the good fortune to take a Dunkirk privateer of ten guns and sixty men, which had done a great deal of mischief. This was one of the last actions of the war, and the rear-admiral soon after received orders to return home with the squadron under his command. Passing by a number of minor engagements, in which Benbow took an active part, we come to that in which he received his death wound. It occurred in the West Indies, towards the close of August 1702. When off the coast of Santa Martha, while cruising about he discovered ten sail of ships steering westward along the shore, under their top-sails, four of them from sixty to seventy guns, one a great Dutch-built ship of about thirty or forty, another full of soldiers, three small vessels, and a sloop. The vice-admiral coming up with them about four, the engagement began. He had disposed his line of battle in the following manner: viz. "The Defiance, Pendennis, Windsor, Breda, Greenwich, Ruby, and Falmouth." But two of these ships, "The Defiance and Windsor," did not stand above two or three broadsides before they hove out of gun-shot, so that the two sternmost ships of the enemy lay on the admiral, and galled him very much; nor did the ships in the rear come up to his assistance with the speed they ought to have exercised. The fight, however, lasted till dark, and, though the firing then ceased, the vice-admiral kept them company all night. The next morning at break of day he was near the French ships, but none of his squadron except the Ruby was with him, the rest being three, four, or five miles a-stern. Notwithstanding this, the French did not fire a gun at the vice admiral, though he was within their reach. At two in the afternoon the French drew into a line, though at the same time they made what sail they could without fighting. However, the vice-admiral and the Ruby kept them company all night, plying their chase-guns. Thus the vice-admiral continued pursuing, and at some times skirmishing with the enemy, for four days

more, but was never duly seconded by several of the ships of his squadron. The twenty-third, about noon, the admiral took from them a small English ship, called the Anne Galley, which they had taken off Lisbon, and, the Ruby being disabled, he ordered her to Port Royal.

About eight at night the whole squadron was up with the vice-admiral, and the enemy not two miles off. There was now a prospect of doing something, and the vice-admiral made the best of his way after them, but his whole squadron, except the Falmouth, fell astern again. At two in the morning, the 24th, the vice-admiral came up with the enemy's sternmost ship, and fired his broadside, which was returned by the French ship very briskly, and about three the vice-admiral's right leg was broken to pieces by a chain-shot. In this condition he was carried down to be dressed, and, while the surgeon was at work one of his lieutenants expressed great sorrow for the loss of his leg, upon which the admiral said to him, "I am sorry for it too, but I had rather have lost them both than have seen this dishonour brought upon the English nation. But, do ye hear? if another shot should take me off, behave like brave men, and fight it out." As soon as it was practicable, he caused himself to be carried up, and placed, with his cradle, upon the quarter-deck, and continued the fight till day. They then discovered the ruins of one of the enemy's ships, that carried seventy guns, her main-yard down and shot to pieces, her fore-top-sail yard shot away, her mizzen-mast shot by the board, all her rigging gone, and her sides torn to pieces. The admiral, soon after, discovered the enemy standing towards him with a strong gale of wind. The Windsor, Pendennis, and Greenwich, a-head of the enemy, came to the leeward of the disabled ship, fired their broadsides, passed her, and stood to the southward. Then came the Defiance, fired part of her broadside, when, the disabled ship returning about twenty guns, the Defiance put her helm a-weather, and ran away right before the wind, lowered both her top-sails, and ran in to the leeward of the Falmouth, without any regard to the signal of battle. The enemy, seeing the other two ships stand to the southward, expected they would have tacked and stood towards them, and therefore they brought their heads to the northward; but, when they saw those ships did not tack, they immediately bore down upon the admiral, and ran between their disabled ship and him, and poured in all their shot, by which they brought down his main-top-sail yard, and shattered his rigging very much, none of the other ships being near him or taking the least notice of his signals, though captain Fogg ordered two guns to be fired at the ship's head, in order to put them in mind of their duty. The French, seeing things in this condition, brought to, and lay by their own disabled ship, remanned, and took her in tow. The Breda's rigging being much shattered, she was forced to lie by till ten o'clock, and, being then refitted, the admiral ordered the captain to pursue the enemy, then about three miles to the leeward, his line of battle signal out all the while; and captain Fogg, by the admiral's orders, sent to the other captains, to order them to keep the line and behave like men. Benbow, having thus prepared for renewing the engagement, was very indignant when he discovered that the captains who should have supported him were determined to remove their vessels from the scene of action, and



he ultimately returned to his station in the West Indies, where he died from the injuries he had received, November 4th 1702.

**BENEDICT, SAINT**, the founder of the celebrated monastic order of Benedictine monks. He was born in Italy about 480, and when a very young man retired to a desert, where he passed three years in a cavern. Being discovered by some neighbouring monks, they, on account of the sanctity attached to his name, selected him as their abbot. But, being displeased with their conduct, he again retired to a solitude, where the fame of his piety drew so many persons around him that in a short time he filled twelve monasteries with his followers. He afterwards removed to Mount Cassino, where he took possession of a temple of Apollo, and converted the surrounding inhabitants to Christianity. Here he laid the foundation of the since celebrated monastery of Mount Cassino, where he established his rule. The object of Benedict was to form an establishment more solid and useful than the other orders, the members of it being enjoined to divide their time between prayer, reading, the education of youth, and other beneficial labours. Possessed of immense riches, great political consequence followed the Benedictine order, and in process of time several reforms were made in it, and various societies branched from it, especially that of St. Maur in France, which commenced in 1621, and which, according to Gibbon, has produced more learned writers than any other establishment in Europe. St. Benedict died in 543.

Among the distinguished ecclesiastics bearing this name who have filled the papal chair, we may mention Pope Benedict XI., who was the son of a shepherd, and he for some years followed the occupation of a schoolmaster. He afterwards became a Dominican, of which order he became general in 1298, and was created a cardinal by Boniface VIII. On the death of the latter he succeeded to the pontificate, but survived only a year, when he died, according to general belief by poison. Benedict was an able and liberal pontiff, whose actions, during his short possession of the holy chair, were wise and conciliating. He wrote comments on the gospel of St. Matthew, besides several sermons, and letters to the king of France and other princes on the reformation of ecclesiastical abuses in their various kingdoms.

Benedict XIII. was the eldest son of the Marquis Gravina, a Neapolitan nobleman possessed of considerable influence. In 1672 this prelate was raised to the dignity of cardinal, but it was with considerable difficulty that he could be prevailed on to accept of the pontificate. His first act was to endeavour to reform his court. With a view to these changes, he held a provincial synod in the Lateran in 1725, but was defeated by the Jesuits. He also expressed a wish for the diffusion of scriptural knowledge, and encouraged the multiplication of copies of the Bible in modern languages. Another great object with him was to unite the four religious communities in Christendom, for which purpose he proposed that four councils should be held in different places, consisting of representatives of the Romish, Greek, Lutheran, and Calvinist churches. It need not be said that this plan entirely failed; but the purity of intention of the pontiff was undeniable. Benedict lived with the utmost frugality, like a hermit in his cell, and has been called more a monk than a pope.

which probably meant that he was more attached to what he conceived to be the spiritual welfare of the church than to its political influence. His greatest fault was his implicit confidence in cardinal Coscia to whom he left the entire management of his government, and who much abused it. He died in February 1731, in the sixth year of his pontificate.

**BENGER, ELIZABETH**, this lady is well known for her contributions to history and biography. Her writings were all of a popular character, and the memoirs of Anne Boleyn and Mary Queen of Scots have been particularly admired. She died January 9th, 1827.

**BENNET, HENRY**, earl of Arlington.—This celebrated statesman was descended from an ancient family who lived at Arlington in Middlesex. He was born in 1618, and sent to Christ Church in Oxford, where he took the degree of master of arts, and distinguished himself by his taste for English poetry. Upon the king's coming to Oxford, after the breaking out of the civil war, he entered himself a volunteer, and was afterwards made choice of by George Lord Digby, secretary of state, to be his under secretary. He was present in the rencounter at Andover, in which he received several wounds. When he could no longer remain in England with safety, he went to France, and became secretary to the duke of York. In 1658 Charles II., who placed great confidence in him, knighted him at Bruges, and sent him as his minister to the court of Madrid. After the king's restoration, he recalled him from Madrid, and in 1662 he was nominated secretary of state, in the place of Sir Edward Nicholas. September 28th, 1663, the university of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of doctor of laws; and the March following he was created baron of Arlington in Middlesex, and almost the sole management of foreign affairs was placed in his hands. He had a great hand in the first Dutch war, but he also appears to have had no small share in the negotiations for peace. A new set of ministers having, under pretence of their influence over the parliament, raised themselves to power, lord Arlington declined in the confidence of the king; but he continued to act as secretary of state under the new administration, and became one of the cabinet council distinguished by the name of the Cabal.

In April 1672 he was raised to the dignity of earl of Arlington, in Middlesex, and Viscount Thetford, in Norfolk; and on the 15th of June following was made a knight of the garter. Soon after he was sent to Utrecht with the duke of Buckingham and the earl of Halifax, to treat of a peace between the allies and the states-general; but this negotiation had no effect. The House of Commons, disliking the war against Holland, determined to call the advisers and promoters of it to an account. They first attacked the duke of Lauderdale, and next the duke of Buckingham, who endeavoured to throw all the odium upon the earl of Arlington; and, this lord's answer not satisfying the Commons, articles of impeachment were drawn up, charging him with having been a constant promoter of catholicism, with having been guilty of many undue practices to promote his own greatness, with having embezzled the treasure of the nation, and having betrayed the important trust reposed in him as a counsellor and principal secretary of state. When he appeared before the House of Commons, he excused himself, but with-

out blaming the king; and this had so good an effect that though he, as secretary of state, was more exposed than any other man, by the many warrants and orders he had signed, yet he was acquitted. In the mean time he continued to press the king to a separate peace with the Dutch, in which he happily succeeded.

Having resigned his post of secretary, he was made lord chamberlain in 1674, with this public reason given, that it was in consideration of his long and faithful service, particularly in the execution of his office of principal secretary of state for the space of twelve years. Soon after, he endeavoured to recover the king's confidence by offering to go over to Holland, with the earl of Ossory: he told the king that he did not doubt but he could bring the prince of Orange into an entire dependence on his uncle, and in particular dispose him to a general peace, on which the king was much set, it being earnestly desired by France. It was likewise believed that he had orders to give the prince hopes of marrying the duke of York's daughter. This journey proved altogether unsuccessful. The king's coldness, or perhaps displeasure, is believed to have proceeded from Arlington's late turning towards the popular stream, and more especially his outward proceedings against the catholics, when the court believed him to be one inwardly himself. Nevertheless, he was continued in his office and the privy council in all the changes it underwent; and, at his majesty's decease, king James confirmed him in his office of chamberlain, which he held to the day of his death, which took place on July 28, 1685. By his lady Isabella, daughter to Lewis de Nassau, he had one daughter, Isabella, who married, August 1, 1672, Henry earl of Euston, son to king Charles II. by the duchess of Cleveland, created afterwards duke of Grafton.

BENTHAM, JEREMY.—This celebrated political writer, and amiable man was born in 1749. He never appeared at the bar, though educated for the profession of the law. Mr. Bentham was left heir to a considerable property, and passed several years in the northern parts of Europe, but during the latter part of his life devoted himself exclusively to his literary pursuits. He published most of his best works in the French language as they were translated by his friend M. Dumont, and printed partly in Paris and partly in London. Among them are "*Traité de Législation, civile et pénale*," &c. and "*Theorie des Peines et des Récompenses*." Mr. Bentham was a warm friend of reform in parliament, and of a thorough correction of civil and criminal legislation. His "*Fragments on Government*," in opposition to "*Blackstone*," appeared anonymously in 1776, and with his name in 1823; but it is a singular fact that his literary labours found a better reception in France than in England or Germany. A small pamphlet on the liberty of the press was addressed by him to the Spanish cortes, during their discussion of this subject; and, in another, he refuted the idea of the necessity of a house of peers in Spain, as well as Montesquieu's proposition, that judicial forms are the defence of innocence. He published an interesting work entitled the "*Art of Packing*," that is of arranging juries so as to obtain any verdict desired. His previous work, "*Essai sur la Tactique des Assemblées Législatives*," edited from the author's papers by Etienne Dumont, and translated into German, contains many useful observations. His "*Intro-*

duction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation" treats of the principal objects of government in a profound and comprehensive manner. Zanobelli has translated "*Bentham's Theory of Legal Evidence*" into Italian. Among the earlier works of Bentham was his "*Defence of Usury*," showing the impolicy of the legal restraints on the terms of pecuniary bargains.

Among his unpublished works he left one on the use of language, for the purpose of giving certainty to the expression of the will of the legislator. In the early part of 1832 Mr. Bentham suffered several severe attacks of bronchitis, from which he so far recovered as to be able to receive the visits of his friends, and it was hoped that he might be able to resume his literary labours: indeed he had begun to devote his attention to the third volume of his unpublished "*Constitutional Code*," when another attack of his disorder finally arrested his labours, and he died at his residence in Queen's Square Place, Westminster, on the 6th of June 1832, in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

In accordance with a resolution which was announced during his life, this celebrated philosopher bequeathed his body to his friend, Dr. Southwood Smith, for the purpose of dissection and anatomical demonstration; and, on the 9th of June, Dr. Smith delivered a preliminary lecture at Webb Street School of Anatomy, Southwark, in the presence of a great number of Mr. Bentham's personal friends, and also of the members of the medical profession, &c. The body was afterwards dissected, and the lectures on the body continued by Mr. Grainger the proprietor of the lecture-room.

BENTICK. See PORTLAND.

BENTIVOGLIO, HERCULES, a celebrated Italian poet, born at Bologna in 1506. He was educated by his father, and was highly accomplished in music, singing, and the sports and exercises of manly youth; and to all this he added a solidity of judgment which procured him employment from the dukes of Ferrara in state-affairs of importance. He was employed on one of these negotiations when he died, November 6, 1573. His works, which were printed at first separately, and inserted in many of the collections, were published together under the title of "*Opere Poetiche del sig. Ercole Bentivoglio*," Paris, 1719.

BENTIVOGLIO, GUY.—This eminent historian was of the same family as the poet, and lived half a century later. He was early in life taken into the service of Pope Paul V., who appointed him apostolic nuncio in Flanders. After remaining there nine years, he was, in 1617, appointed nuncio in France, and acted with so much dexterity with respect to the affairs of both courts that when he was made cardinal, in 1621, Louis XIII. selected him as agent of France at the court of Rome. Here he soon became the confidential friend of Pope Urban VIII., who, in 1641, bestowed on him the bishopric of Palestrina. On the death of this pope, in 1644, it was generally thought that Cardinal Bentivoglio would be his successor: but he had scarcely entered the conclave when the heat overpowered him, and brought on a fever, of which he died shortly after. He was interred in the church of the Theatins of St. Silvester, in a private manner, agreeably to his own desire, owing to his affairs being deranged. He owed large sums at his death, in order to pay part of which he had



been obliged, some time before, to sell his palace at Rome. Bentivoglio was a consummate politician, knew how to reconcile clashing interests, and how to assume every necessary change of character; his historical memoirs partake of this character, being cautious, reserved, yet amusing, and illustrative of the characters and events of the times in which he lived.

BENTLEY, RICHARD, a very eminent classical scholar. He was born at Wakefield in Yorkshire in 1662, and received a collegiate education at the university of Cambridge. His skill and knowledge recommended him to Dr. Edward Stillingfleet, who was educated at the same college, and in 1685 he appointed him private tutor to his son. In 1689 he attended his pupil to Wadham College in Oxford, where he was incorporated master of arts July 4th that year, having taken that degree some time before in his own university. He was then also in holy orders, and his patron, being advanced to the see of Worcester in 1692, collated him to a prebendary in that church, and also made him his domestic chaplain, in which last station he continued till his lordship's death. That learned prelate as well as Dr. William Lloyd, then bishop of Litchfield, had seen many proofs of Mr. Bentley's extraordinary talents: they concurred in recommending him as a fit person to lecture on Mr. Boyle's foundation in defence of natural and revealed religion.

This gave him an excellent opportunity of establishing his celebrity. Sir Isaac Newton's *Principia* had been published but a few years, and the book was little known and less understood; Mr. Bentley therefore determined to spare no pains in displaying to the best advantage the demonstrations which that work furnished in proof of a Deity; and, that nothing might be wanting to complete the design, he applied to Newton, and received from him the solution of several difficulties which had not fallen within the plan of his work. In 1693 he was appointed keeper of the Royal Library at St. James's, a circumstance which incidentally led to his celebrated controversy with the Hon. Charles Boyle, afterwards earl of Orrery, relative to the genuineness of the Greek epistles of Phalaris, an edition of which was published by the latter, then a student at Christ Church, Oxford. In this dispute Bentley was triumphantly victorious, though opposed by the greatest wits and critics of the age, including Pope, Swift, Garth, Atterbury, Aldrich, Dodwell, and Conyers Middleton, who advocated the opinion of Boyle with a degree of warmth and illiberality which appears very extraordinary. But the motives of Bentley's assailants were various. Swift, in his "Battle of the Books," took up the cudgels against him in defence of his friend Sir William Temple; Dr. Garth attacked him probably from mere wantonness in the well-known couplet in his "Dispensary"—

"So diamonds owe a lustre to their foil,  
And to a Bentley 'tis we owe a Boyle."

Some were actuated by personal considerations, among whom was Conyers Middleton, whose persevering hostility to Bentley during a long series of years seems to have originated from the latter having applied to the former, when a young student in the university, the contemptuous epithet of *fidling* Conyers, because he played on the violin.

In 1699 Bentley, who had three years before been created D. D., published his "Dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris," in which he satisfactorily

proved that they were not the compositions of the tyrant of Agrigentum, who lived more than five centuries before the Christian era, but were written by some sophist, under the borrowed name of Phalaris, in the declining age of Greek literature. Soon after this publication Dr. Bentley was presented by the crown to the mastership of Trinity College, Cambridge, worth nearly 1000*l.* a year. He now resigned the prebend of Worcester, and in 1701 was collated to the archdeaconry of Ely. His conduct, as head of the college, gave rise to accusations against him from the vice-master and some of the fellows, who, among various offences, charged him with embezzling the college money. He published a defence, entitled "The present State of Trinity College in Cambridge, in a Letter from Dr. Bentley to the Right Rev. John Lord Bishop of Ely," 1710. In 1711 he published an edition of "Horace" at Cambridge, which was reprinted at Amsterdam; and in 1713 appeared his remarks on "Collin's Discourse on Free-thinking."

Bentley was appointed regius professor of divinity in 1716; and in the same year he issued proposals for a new edition of the Greek Testament, an undertaking for which he was admirably qualified, but which he was prevented from executing in consequence of the animadversions of his determined adversary Middleton. In 1717 George I., visiting the university, nominated by mandate, as is usual on such occasions, several persons for a doctor's degree in divinity. It was the duty of Bentley, as professor, to perform the ceremony called *creation*, previous to which he made a demand of four guineas from each candidate beyond the usual fees, absolutely refusing to create any doctor without payment. Some submitted; but others, among whom was Middleton, withstood the demand, and commenced a prosecution against the professor before the vice-chancellor, who, deciding in favour of the complainants, first suspended Bentley, and subsequently degraded him from the honours, rights, and offices he held in the university. These proceedings were after considerable litigation annulled by the court of King's Bench; and the doctor in 1728 was restored to all his former honours and emoluments.

In 1726 he published an edition of Terence and Phædrus; and his notes on the comedies of the former involved him in a dispute with Bishop Hare on the metres of Terence, which provoked the sarcastic observation of Sir Isaac Newton, that "two dignified clergymen, instead of minding their duty, had fallen out about a play book." The last work of Dr. Bentley was an edition of "Milton's Paradise Lost," with conjectural emendations, which appeared in 1732. This added nothing to his reputation, and may in one word be characterized as a failure. He died in Trinity College, July 14, 1742, and was interred in the college chapel.

BERGHEM, NICHOLAS, a very eminent artist, who was born at Haerlem in 1624. He received the rudiments of his art from his father, but he afterwards studied under the principal artists of his native country. The distinguishing characters of the pictures of Berghem are the breadth and just distribution of the lights, the grandeur of his masses of light and shadow, the natural ease and simplicity in the attitudes of his figures, expressing their several characters, the just arrangement of his distances, the brilliancy and harmony as well as the transpa-



rency of his colouring, the correctness and true perspective of his design, and the elegance of his composition; and, where any of those marks are wanting, no authority ought to be sufficient to ascribe any picture to him. Berghem died of a lingering illness in 1683, aged fifty-nine.

**BERGMAN, SIR TORBERN.**—This eminent Swedish chemist was born in 1735. He was educated at Upsal, and became very intimate with Linnæus, who induced him to devote much of his time to natural history. He afterwards became a candidate for the chemical professorship at Upsal, and ultimately obtained that honourable office. Bergman first introduced into chemistry the process by analysis, which ought to be applied to every science; for there should be but one method of teaching and learning, as there is but one of judging well. These views have been laid down by Mr. Bergman in an excellent discourse, which contains, if we may use the phrase, his profession of faith in what relates to the science. It is here that he displays himself without disguise to his reader, and here it is of importance to study him with attention. The productions of volcanoes had never been analysed when Messrs. Ferber and Troil brought a rich collection of them into Sweden, at the sight of which Mr. Bergman conceived the idea of investigating their nature. He examined first of all the matters least altered by the fire, and the forms of which were still to be discerned; he followed them in their changes progressively; he determined and imitated their more complicated appearances; he knew the effects which would result from the mixture and decomposition of the saline substances which are found abundantly in these productions. He discovered such as were formed in the humid way, and then, in his laboratory, he imitated the process of nature. That combat of flames and explosions—that chaos in which the elements seem to clash and to confound one another—unveiled themselves to his eyes. His continued labours soon weakened a constitution naturally delicate, and he died at Upsal in 1784.

**BERKELEY, GEORGE.**—This eminent philosopher and theologian was born at Kilerin in Ireland in 1684. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and chosen fellow in 1707. Two years afterwards appeared his "Theory of Vision," which is by far the best work he ever produced. The boundary is here traced out between the ideas of sight and touch; and it is shown that, though habit has so connected these two classes of ideas in our minds that they are not without a strong effort to be separated from each other, yet originally they have no such connection; for a person born blind and suddenly made to see would at first be utterly unable to tell how any object that affected his sight would affect his touch, and particularly would not from sight receive any idea of distance, or external space, but would imagine all objects to be in his eye, or rather in his mind. This was surprisingly confirmed in the case of a young man born blind, and couched at fourteen years of age by Mr. Cheselden. "A Vindication of the Theory of Vision" was published by him some years afterwards. In 1710 appeared "The Principles of Human Knowledge," and, in 1713, "Dialogues between Hylas and Philonous;" but to them the same praise has not been given, and to this day their real tendency is a disputed point.

Berkeley shortly afterwards came to London, and

became intimate with Swift, Steele, and Pope, devoting his time to letters as a profession. He afterwards visited the continent as travelling tutor to Mr. Ashe, and did not return to England till 1721. Pope then introduced him to Lord Burlington, and Lord Burlington recommended him to the duke of Grafton, who, being lord lieutenant of Ireland, took him over as one of his chaplains in 1721. The year following he had a very unexpected increase of fortune from Mrs. Vanhomrigh, the celebrated Vanessa, to whom he had been introduced by Swift. She had intended Swift for her heir, but conceived herself slighted by him. She left near 8000*l.* between her two executors, of whom Berkeley was one. Dr. Berkeley, as executor, destroyed as much of Vanessa's correspondence as he could find.

In 1724 Mr. Berkeley was promoted to the deanery of Derry, worth about 1100*l.* per annum. In the following year he published "A proposal for converting the Aborigines of America to Christianity, by a College to be erected in the Islands of Bermuda," a plan which had employed his thoughts for several years, and for which he was disposed to make many personal sacrifices. As what he deemed necessary steps he offered to resign all his preferment, and to dedicate the remainder of his life to instructing the American youth, on a stipend of 100*l.* yearly; he prevailed with three junior fellows of Trinity College, Dublin, to give up all their prospects at home, and to exchange their fellowships for a settlement in the Atlantic Ocean at 40*l.* a year; he procured his plan to be laid before George I., who commanded Sir Robert Walpole to lay it before the commons, and further granted him a charter for erecting a college in Bermuda, to consist of a president and nine fellows, who were obliged to maintain and educate Indian scholars at 10*l.* a year each.

In accordance with this arrangement Mr. Berkeley crossed the Atlantic, and he settled at Rhode Island. The missionaries in the neighbourhood agreed among themselves to hold a sort of synod at Dr. Berkeley's house there, twice in a year, in order to enjoy the advantages of his advice and exhortations. Four of these meetings were accordingly held. One of the principal points which the doctor then pressed upon his fellow labourers was the absolute necessity of conciliating, by all innocent means, the affection of their hearers, and also of their dissenting neighbours. His own example, indeed, very eminently enforced his precepts upon this head; for it is scarcely possible to conceive a conduct more uniformly gentle, beneficent, and liberal than his was. He seemed to have only one wish in his heart, which was to alleviate misery and to diffuse happiness. Finding, at length, that the fear of offending the dissenters at home, and of inclining the colonies to assert their independence, had determined the minister to make any use, rather than the best use, of the money destined for and promised to St. Paul's College, the dean of Derry took a reluctant leave of a country where the name of Berkeley was long and justly revered. At his departure, he gave a farm of 100 acres, which lay round his house, and his house itself, as a benefaction to Yale and Harvard colleges; and the value of that land, then insignificant because uncultivated, has since become considerable. He gave to one of these colleges, and to several missionaries, books, to the amount of 500*l.* To the other college he made a large donation of books purchased by



others, and trusted to his disposal. On his return Berkeley was made bishop of Cloyne.



In 1752 he removed to Oxford, partly to superintend the education of his son, but chiefly to indulge his love for learned retirement, which had ever strongly possessed him, and was one of his motives to form the Bermuda project. But, as none could be more sensible than his lordship of the impropriety of a bishop's non-residence, he previously endeavoured to exchange his high preferment for some canonry or headship at Oxford. Failing of success in this, he actually wrote over to the secretary of state, to request that he might have permission to resign his bishopric, worth at that time at least 1400*l.* per annum. So uncommon a petition excited his majesty's curiosity to enquire who was the extraordinary man that preferred it; being told that it was his old acquaintance Dr. Berkeley, he declared that he should die a bishop in spite of himself, but gave him full liberty to reside where he pleased. The bishop's last act before he left Cloyne was to sign a lease of the demesne lands in that neighbourhood, to be renewed yearly at the rent of 200*l.*, which sum he directed to be distributed every year, until his return, among poor house-keepers of Cloyne, Youghal, and Aghadda. At Oxford he lived highly respected, and collected and printed the same year all his minor works in octavo; but he did not live long; for on Sunday evening, January 14, 1753, as he was in the midst of his family, listening to the lesson in the burial service which his lady was reading to him, he was seized with what was called a palsy in the heart, and instantly expired. The accident was so sudden that his body was cold and his joints stiff before it was discovered, as he lay upon a couch and seemed to be asleep, till his daughter, on presenting him with a cup of tea, first perceived his insensibility. His remains were interred at Christ Church, Oxford, and there is an elegant marble monument over him, with an inscription by Dr. Markham, afterwards archbishop of York.

**BERNARD, ST.**, one of the fathers of the church. He was born in 1091, in the village of Fountaine in Burgundy. In 1115 the monastery of Clairvaux was founded, and Bernard was made the first abbot of this religious house, where many celebrated men were bred up under his tuition: it is said that a pope, six cardinals, and no less than thirty bishops came

out of this house. He acquired so great a degree of esteem amongst the clergy, nobility, and common people, that no ecclesiastical affair or dispute was carried on without having recourse to his advice. It was owing to him that Innocent II. was acknowledged sovereign pontiff; and after the death of Peter Leonis, anti-pope, Victor, who had been named successor, made a voluntary abdication of his dignity. He convicted Abelard at the council of Sens, in 1140. He opposed the monk Raoul; he persecuted the followers of Arnaud de Brescia; and, in 1148, he got Gilbert de la Porvice bishop of Poitiers and Eonde l'Etoile to be condemned in the council of Rheims. He died in 1153, after having founded 160 monasteries, and was considered one of the greatest saints of the Romish church. The best edition of his works is that published in 1690, by Mabillon, in two volumes folio.

**BERNARD, EDWARD**, a learned ecclesiastic, born near Towcester in Northamptonshire, the 2nd of May, 1638. He received some part of his education at Northampton; but, his father dying when he was very young, his mother sent him to an uncle in London, who entered him at Merchant-Taylors-School, in 1648. Here he continued till June, 1655, when he was elected scholar of St. John's College in Oxford, of which he also became afterwards fellow. In the university he applied himself to history, philology, and philosophy; nor was he satisfied with the knowledge of the languages of Greece and Rome, but likewise made himself master of the Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, and Coptic. He took the degree of bachelor of arts in 1658, that of master April 16, 1662, and that of bachelor in divinity June 9, 1668. December following he went to Leyden, to consult several oriental manuscripts left to that university by Joseph Scaliger and Levinus Warnerus, and especially the 5th, 6th, and 7th books of Apollonius Pergæus's conic sections, the Greek text of which is lost, but which are preserved in the Arabic version of that author. On his return to Oxford, he examined and collated the most valuable manuscripts in the Bodleian library, which induced those who published ancient authors to apply to him for observations or emendations; these he readily imparted, and by this means became engaged in a very extensive correspondence with the learned societies of Europe. In 1669 the celebrated Sir Christopher Wren, Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, having been appointed surveyor-general of his majesty's works, obtained leave to name a deputy at Oxford, and selected Mr. Bernard, which engaged the latter in a more particular application to the study of astronomy. In 1672 the master and fellows of his college presented him to the rectory of Cheam in Surrey; and February following, Dr. Peter Mews, the master, being advanced to the bishopric of Bath and Wells, appointed Mr. Bernard one of his chaplains. But the following year he quitted all views of preferment, by accepting the Savilian professorship of astronomy, vacant by the resignation of Sir Christopher Wren; for, by the statutes of the founder, Sir Henry Savile, the professors are not allowed to hold any other office either ecclesiastical or civil.

About this time a plan was set on foot at Oxford of collecting and publishing the ancient mathematicians. Mr. Bernard, who had first formed the project, collected all the old books published on that subject since the invention of printing, and all the

MSS. he could discover in the Bodleian and Savilian libraries, which he arranged in order of time, and according to the matter they contained. Of this he drew up a synopsis or view which he presented to Bishop Fell, a great encourager of the undertaking. As a specimen, he published also a few sheets of Euclid in folio, containing the Greek text and a Latin version, with Proclus's commentary in Greek and Latin, and learned scholia and corollaries. He undertook also an edition of the "*Parva Syntaxis Alexandrina*," in which, besides Euclid, are contained the small treatises of Theodosius, Autolycus Menæus, Aristarchus, and Hipsicles; but it was never published. In 1676 he was sent to France by Charles II. to be tutor to the dukes of Grafton and Northumberland, natural sons of the king, by the duchess of Cleveland, with whom they then lived in Paris; but, the plainness and simplicity of his manners not suiting the gaiety of the duchess's family, he continued with them only for one year, when he returned to Oxford: he reaped however the advantage, during his stay at Paris, of becoming acquainted with most of the learned men of that city. In 1683 he went again to Leyden, to be present at the sale of Nicholas Heinsius's library, where he purchased several of the classical authors that had been either collated with manuscripts or illustrated with the original notes of Joseph Scaliger, Bonaventure Vulcanius, the two Heinsius's, and other celebrated critics and persons of learning.

Towards the latter end of his life, he was much afflicted with stone; yet, notwithstanding this, and other infirmities, he took a third voyage to Holland, to attend the sale of Golius's manuscripts. After six or seven weeks' absence he returned to London, and from thence to Oxford. There he fell into a consumption, which put an end to his life, January 12, 1696. Four days after he was interred in St. John's Chapel, where a monument of white marble was erected to his memory. With regard to this learned man's private character Dr. Smith gives the following estimate of it. "He was," he says, "of a mild disposition, averse to wrangling and disputes; and, if by chance or otherwise he happened to be present where contests ran high, he would deliver his opinion with great candour and modesty, and in few words, but entirely to the purpose. He was a candid judge of other men's performances; not too censorious even on trifling books, if they contained nothing contrary to good manners, virtue, or religion; and to those which display wit, learning, and good sense, none gave more ready and more ample praise. Though he was a true son of the church of England, yet he judged favourably and charitably of dissenters of all denominations. His piety and prudence never suffered him to be hurried away by an immoderate zeal in declaiming against the errors of others. His piety was sincere and unaffected, and his devotions both in public and private very regular and exemplary. Of his great and extensive learning, the works he published, and the manuscripts he has left, are a sufficient evidence."

BERNI, FRANCIS, a celebrated Italian poet, born towards the close of the fifteenth century. Before he had attained his twentieth year, he became secretary to the bishop of Veroni, and became notorious for the profligacy of his general conduct. He died in 1536, and his "*Rime Burlesche*" are to be found in most collections of Italian literature.

BERNIER, FRANCIS, commonly called the Mogul, from his travels and long residence in that prince's territory. He was born at Angers in France, and, after he had taken his degree of doctor of physic at Montpellier, he gratified a strong natural inclination which he had for travelling. He left his own country in 1654, and went first to the Holy Land, and thence into Egypt. He continued a year at Cairo, where he was infected with the plague. He embarked afterwards at Suez for the kingdom of the Mogul, and resided twelve years at the court of that prince, whom he attended in several of his journeys, and acted as his physician for eight years. Upon his return to France, in 1670, he published the history of the countries which he had visited, and several other works, in the composition of which he spent the remainder of his life. He made a voyage to England in 1685, and died three years after at Paris, on the 22d of September 1688.

BERNINI, JOHN LAWRENCE.—This eminent Italian artist was born at Naples, December 7th, 1598. He is praised by his contemporaries as the Michael Angelo of modern times, on account of his success as a painter, a statuary, and an architect. Richly endowed by nature, and favoured by circumstances, he rose superior to the rules of art, creating for himself an easy manner, the faults of which he knew how to disguise by its brilliancy. From his early youth, he manifested a great power to excel in the arts of design, and, at the age of eight years, executed the head of a child in marble, which was considered a remarkable production. That such rare endowments might be suitably cultivated, his father carried him to Rome. One of Bernini's first works was the marble bust of the prelate Montajo, after which he made the bust of the pope and of several cardinals; and he was not eighteen years old when he produced the "*Apollo and Daphne*," in marble, a masterpiece of grace and execution. Looking at this group near the close of his life, he declared that he had made very little progress since the time when that was executed. His manner was indeed more chaste and less affected, in the early part of his career, than at a later period.

After the death of Gregory XV., Cardinal Maffeo Barberini, his successor, employed Bernini to prepare plans for the embellishment of the Basilica of St. Peter, assigning to him a monthly pension of 300 crowns, which was afterwards augmented. Among his numerous works in sculpture were the "*Palace of Barberini*," the "*Belfry of St. Peter*," the "*Model of the Monument of the Countess Matilda*," and the "*Monument of Urban VIII.*" his benefactor. In the year 1644, Cardinal Mazarin, in the name of the king of France, offered Bernini a salary of 12,000 crowns; but he declined the invitation. Urban had scarcely closed his eyes, and Innocent X. ascended the papal throne, when the envy engendered by the merits of the artist and the favour bestowed on him broke forth. His enemies triumphed; but he regained the favour of the pope by a model for a fountain, and at the same time he erected the palace of "*Monte Citorio*." Alexander VII., the successor of Innocent X., displayed much taste for the arts and favour to this artist, and required of him a plan for the embellishment of the "*Piazza di San Pietro*." This admirable colonnade which is so beautifully proportioned to the Basilica was built under the direction of this artist. We may also mention the "*Palace*



Odescalchi," the "Rotunda della Riccia," the house for novices, belonging to the Jesuits, on Monte Cavallo, &c.

Louis XIV. having again invited him in the most flattering terms to Paris, he set out from Rome, in 1665, at the age of sixty-eight, accompanied by one of his sons and a numerous retinue. Never did an artist travel with such pomp, and under such flattering circumstances; and the reception which he met with in Paris was highly honourable. But, notwithstanding the esteem which he enjoyed in Paris, some disagreeable circumstances induced him to return to Rome; and he left Paris loaded with presents, after a short stay.

In his seventieth year, this indefatigable artist executed one of his most beautiful works, the "Tomb of Alexander VII." and he continued to devote himself to works of architecture, as well as of statuary, with such ardour that, exhausted by his labours, he died, November 28, 1680, at the age of eighty-two. He was buried with great magnificence, in the church of St. Maria Maggiore. Bernini's favourite maxim was, "Chi non esce talvolta della regola, non passa mai." Thus he was of opinion that, in order to excel in the arts, the aspirant must rise above all rules, and create a manner peculiar to himself. This Bernini accomplished with a rare good fortune, but the influence of his style was but transient. His most eminent disciples are Pietro Bernini, his brother, a statuary, architect, and mathematician, Mathia Rossi, Francois Duquesnoi, surnamed "The Fleming," and Borromini.

**BERNIS, FRANCOIS JOACHIM DE PIERRES, COMTE DE LYON**, was born at St. Marcel de l'Ardeche, in 1715. He was descended from an ancient family, but little favoured by fortune, for which reason his parents destined him for the clerical profession. Madame de Pompadour presented him to Louis XV., who, being pleased with him, assigned to him an apartment in the Tuileries, with a pension of 1500 livres. His wishes were directed towards raising his income to 6000 livres. Not succeeding, however, in attaining this moderate fortune, he resolved to aim at a larger one. He went as ambassador to Venice, and obtained great respect in this difficult post. After his return, he enjoyed the highest favour at court, and soon became minister of foreign affairs. The political system of Europe was changed at that time. France and Austria, hitherto enemies, united in an offensive and defensive alliance, which was succeeded by the seven years' war, so unfortunate for France. M. Bernis has been designated, by several writers, as the chief author of this alliance. Duclos, however, asserts that it was his intention to maintain the old system, which, since the time of Henry IV., and especially since the time of Richelieu, had made France the protectress of the less powerful states of Germany, and the rival of Austria. Oppressed by the misfortunes of his country, which in part, at least, were ascribed to him, Bernis surrendered his post, and was soon after banished from court. His disgrace lasted till the year 1764, when the king appointed him archbishop of Alby, and five years later ambassador to Rome. Here he remained till his death. In the name of his court, and against his own opinion, he laboured to effect the abolition of the order of the Jesuits. The revolution deprived him of his fortune, and the means of indulging his generous disposition. He

was reduced to a state of great poverty, from which, however, he was relieved by a pension from the Spanish court. M. Bernis died in Rome, November 2, 1794, nearly eighty years old. The easy poetry of his youth had procured him a place in the French academy. His verses have been reproached with affectation, negligence, and an excess of ornament and mythological images. Voltaire called him "Babet-la-Bouquetière," from a fat flower-woman, who sold her nosegays before the Opera House. Nevertheless, Voltaire had a great esteem for his talents, his judgment, his criticisms, and his character, as is evident from their correspondence. After his death, Azara published his poem, "La Religion Vengée" (Religion avenged), which though it contains many beautiful verses and sublime ideas, is deficient in fire and animation. A collection of Bernis's works was published in 1797, by Didot.

**BERNOULLI**.—There are several very distinguished mathematicians bearing this name and belonging to the same family, who flourished towards the close of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth centuries. The most eminent of these is represented in the following portrait.



James Bernoulli was born at Basle in Switzerland, December 27, 1654. He gave very early proofs of his genius for mathematics, and soon became a geometrician, without any assistance from masters and at first almost without books; for he was not allowed to have any books of this kind, and if one fell by chance into his hands he was obliged to conceal it, that he might not incur the displeasure of his father, who designed him for other studies. This severity made him choose for his device, Phaeton driving the chariot of the sun, with these words, "Invito patre sidera verso," "I traverse the stars against my father's inclination;" it had a particular reference to astronomy, the part of mathematics to which he at first applied himself. But these precautions did not avail, for he pursued his favourite study with great application.

In 1676 Bernoulli began his travels. At Bourdeaux he composed universal gnomonic tables, but they were never published. He returned from France to his own country in 1680. About this time there ap-

peared a comet, the return of which he foretold, and wrote a small treatise upon it, which he afterwards translated into Latin. He went soon after to Holland, where he applied himself to the new philosophy, and particularly to that part of the mathematics which consists in resolving problems and demonstrations. After having visited Flanders and Brabant, he went to Calais, and passed over to England. At London he contracted an acquaintance with all the most eminent men in the several sciences, and was frequently present at the philosophical meetings held at the house of Mr. Boyle. He returned to his native country in 1682, and exhibited at Basle a course of experiments in natural philosophy and mechanics, which consisted of a variety of new discoveries. The same year he published his "Essay on a New System of Comets," and the year following his "Dissertation on the Weight of the Air." About this time Leibnitz having published, in the *Acta Eruditorum* at Leipsic, some essays on his new "Calculus Differentialis," but concealing the art and method of it, M. Bernoulli and his brother John discovered, by the little which they saw, the beauty and extent of it. This induced them to endeavour to unravel the secret, which they did with such success, that Leibnitz declared that the invention belonged to them as much as to himself.

In 1687 James Bernoulli succeeded to the professorship of mathematics at Basle, a trust which he discharged with great applause, and his reputation drew a great number of foreigners from all parts to attend his lectures. In 1699 he was admitted a foreign member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris; and in 1701 the same honour was conferred upon him by the Academy of Berlin, in both of which he published several ingenious compositions. He wrote also several pieces in the "*Acta Eruditorum*" of Leipsic, and in the "*Journal des Scavans*." His intense application to study brought upon him the gout, and by degrees a slow fever, which put a period to his life the 16th of August 1705, in the fifty-first year of his age.

**BERNOULLI, JOHN**, brother of the foregoing, and no less celebrated as a mathematician. He received a commercial education, but, prompted by inclination, devoted himself to the study of philosophy, in which he took a doctor's degree at Basle in 1685. He shared with his brother in the great mathematical discovery relating to the differential calculus, in which Leibnitz had been engaged. In 1695 he was chosen professor of mathematics at Groningen, where he distinguished himself by his lectures and scientific researches. On the death of his brother, he succeeded him at Basle, where he continued till his death, which took place January 1, 1748, in the eighty-first year of his age.

**BERNOULLI, DANIEL**, a celebrated professor of physic and natural philosophy in the university of Basle, and member of most of the learned societies in Europe, was the son of the preceding. He was born at Groningen in 1700, and was like his father intended for trade, but was permitted at his own request to study medicine. At the age of twenty-four he visited Italy, where he refused the presidency of an academy about to be established at Genoa. He then went to Petersburg, and continued there till 1733, when he returned to Basle and became medical professor. In 1724 he published his "*Excitationes quædam Mathematicæ*," and in 1738 his

"*Hydrodynamica*." Nine times he obtained the premium given by the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and once, viz. in 1734, divided it with his father, who, instead of being pleased with the honour obtained by his son, never forgave what he termed his undutiful competition. It seems the son's greatest offence was his having adopted the Newtonian philosophy, while the father was a determined Cartesian. In 1740 he divided a prize with Euler and Maclaurin for a paper on the tides. In 1748 he succeeded his father in the Parisian Academy of sciences, and died March 17, 1782.

**BERRI, CHARLES DE BOURBON**.—This unfortunate prince was born at Versailles in 1778. He early in life entered into the army, and distinguished himself in the royalist wars under the prince of Conde. In 1801 he joined his father in England, and was ultimately restored to his rank by the arrival of the allies in Paris. He was stabbed by an enthusiast named Louvel February 13th, 1820. His son was afterwards created duke of Bourdeaux.

**BERTHIER, ALEXANDER**, prince of Neufchatel. This distinguished French officer acted a prominent part in the wars which succeeded the revolution. When General Duphot was killed in a popular tumult at Rome, Berthier was despatched thither by the French Directory, and entering that city on the 10th of February, 1798, he put an end to the papal government, proclaimed the Roman Republic on the 15th of the same month, and sent Pope Pius VI. a prisoner to France, where he died. In January 1798 he received the chief command of the army of Italy, and was ordered by the directory to march against the dominions of the pope. In the beginning of February he made his entrance into Rome, abolished the papal government, and established a consular one. Being much attached to General Buonaparte, he followed him to Egypt as chief of the general staff. He afterwards became general-in-chief of the army of reserve, accompanied Buonaparte to Italy in 1800, and contributed to the passage of St. Bernard and the victory at Marengo. He signed the armistice of Alessandria, formed the provisional government of Piedmont, and went on an extraordinary mission to Spain. He then received again the department of war, which in the mean time had been in the hands of Carnot. Berthier accompanied Napoleon to Milan, June 1805, to be present at his coronation, and in October was appointed chief of the general staff of the grand army in Germany. Having in 1806 accompanied the emperor in his campaign against Prussia, he signed the armistice of Tilsit, June 1807. He afterwards resigned his post as minister of war, and, having been appointed vice-constable of France, married in 1808 Maria Elizabeth Amelia, daughter of Duke William of Bavaria-Birkenfeld, and continued to be the companion of Napoleon in all his expeditions.

In the campaign against Austria in 1809 he distinguished himself at Wagram, and received the title of prince of Wagram. In 1810, as proxy of Napoleon, he received the hand of Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor Francis I., and accompanied her to France. Somewhat later Napoleon made him colonel-general of the Swiss troops.

In 1812 Berthier was with the army in Russia, as chief of the general staff, which post he also held in 1813. After Napoleon's abdication, he lost his principality of Neufchatel, but retained his other ho-



nours, and possessed the favour and confidence of Louis XVIII., whom, after Napoleon's return, he accompanied to the Netherlands, whence he repaired to his family at Bamberg, where he arrived May 30. After his arrival at this place he was observed to be sunk in a profound melancholy; and when, on the afternoon of June 1st, the music of the Russian troops was heard at the gates of the city, he put an end to his life by throwing himself from a window of the third story of his palace.

**BERTHOLLET, CLAUDE LOUIS, COUNT**, a distinguished member of the scientific academies at Paris, London, Turin, Haerlem, &c., and one of the most eminent theoretical chemists of our times. He was born at Talloire in Savoy, December 9, 1748, and studied medicine at Turin; went in 1772 to Paris, where he became connected with Lavoisier, and was admitted in 1780 a member of the academy of sciences in that city; he was made in 1794 professor in the normal school there, and was sent to Italy in 1796 in order to select the monuments that were to be carried to Paris. He afterwards followed Buonaparte to Egypt, and returned with him in 1799. In 1804 Napoleon ap-



pointed him senator for the district of Montpellier. And in 1813 he received the grand cross of the order of the Reunion. April 1, 1814, however he voted for the establishment of a provisional government and the dethronement of Napoleon. Louis XVIII. made him a peer, and after the final restoration of Louis, he took his seat again in the chamber of peers. Among the inventions and new processes with which the sciences and the arts were enriched by him, the most important are those for the charring of vessels to preserve water in ships, for the stiffening and glazing of linen, &c., but principally that for the bleaching of vegetable substances by means of oxymuriatic acid, which since 1786 has been in general use in France. Besides different essays in the collections of the academy and the institute, he has written several larger works, among which his "Essai de Statique Chimique" must be considered as the most important, and as one of the finest productions of our times. The complicated phenomena of chemistry are reduced in this work to the strict and simple laws of mechanics. He had also a large share in the reformation of the chemical nomenclature, as well as in the publication of the work that appeared on this

subject in Paris in 1787. Berthollet died in Paris, November 7, 1822.

**BERTHOUD, FERDINAND**, a celebrated maker of marine chronometers, born at Plancemont, in the county of Neuchâtel, in 1727. His father caused him to be instructed in the art of watchmaking, and, to afford him an opportunity of perfecting his knowledge, sent him to Paris. He resided in that city from 1745, and there made his first marine chronometers, which have been used by French navigators on so many occasions for extending and correcting geographical knowledge. He left several works relating to his art. He died in 1807. His nephew Louis Berthoud, his pupil, and the heir of his talents, has extended his improvements still further. His chronometers are in the hands of almost all navigators, and are even more convenient than those of his uncle.

**BERTOLI, GIOVANNI DOMENICO, COUNT OF**, was born in 1676 at Moreton, in Friuli, a place where many antiquities existed, of which no person had taken notice. The inhabitants had even been in the habit for a long time of building their houses with the ruins and remains of art. To prevent further destruction, Bertoli, in conjunction with other men of learning and taste, bought all the ancient marbles which were excavated. Muratorio and Apostolo Zeno encouraged him in his antiquarian researches and publications. Bertoli died in 1758. His most important work is "Le Antichità de Aquileja Profane e Sacre," published at Venice in 1739. Some of his treatises are to be found in the collection of P. Calogera; others in the memoirs of the "Società Columbaria" at Florence.

**BERTON, HENRY MONTAN**, son of Peter Berton, who, when director of the opera at Paris, induced Gluck and Piccini to come to Paris. Berton was born December 17th, 1767, in Paris, and formed himself under the great masters Gluck, Piccini, Paisiello, and Sacchini. When only nineteen years of age he appeared before the public as a composer in the "Concert Spirituel," and when the conservatory was established he was appointed professor of harmony. In 1807 he was made director of the Italian opera, and afterwards leader of the choir (*chef du chant*) at the great imperial opera. He was afterwards employed in Russia by the emperor, but soon returned to France. His most celebrated opera is "Aline Reine de Golconde."

**BETHUNE, MAXIMILIAN DE.**—This distinguished French nobleman was the son of the Baron de Rosni, and he was educated in the opinions and doctrine of the reformed religion, and continued to the end of his life constant in the profession of it, which appears to have fitted him for the important services to which Providence had designed him. The subject of this memoir took so important a part in the wars of the League, and was himself so nearly sacrificed in the massacre of St. Bartholomew, that it will be necessary to take a general view of the state of political affairs at this period to render our details of his life intelligible. The queen of Navarre, after the death of her husband Antony de Bourbon, returned to Bearn, where she openly professed Calvinism. She sent for her son Henry from the court of France to Pau in 1556, and put him under a preceptor who trained him up in the protestant religion. She declared herself the protectress of the protestant's in 1566, and went to Rochelle, where she devoted her son to the defence of the reformed religion.

In that quality Henry, then prince of Bearn, was declared chief of the party, and followed the army from that time to the peace, which was signed at St. Germain, August 11, 1570. He then returned to Bearn; and, after visiting his estates and his government of Guvenne, he went and settled at Rochelle.

On the death of the queen of Navarre the protestants were threatened with new persecutions, but the court of France pretended to keep aloof from the machinations of the catholics. Still many of the protestants, amongst whom was the father of Bethune, suspected the designs of the court, and the massacre of St. Bartholomew too fatally verified their suspicions; this accounts for the escape of young Bethune during that terrible carnage.

"I was in bed," says he, "and awaked from sleep three hours after midnight by the sound of all the bells and the confused cries of the populace. My governor, St. Julian, with my valet de chambre, went hastily out to know the cause; and I never afterwards heard more of these men, who without doubt were among the first that were sacrificed to the public fury. I continued alone in my chamber dressing myself, when in a few moments I saw my landlord enter, pale, and in the utmost consternation. He was of the reformed religion; and, having learned what the matter was, had consented to go to mass, to preserve his life and his house from being pillaged. He came to persuade me to do the same, and to take me with him. I did not think proper to follow him, but resolved to try if I could gain the college of Burgundy, where I had studied, though the great distance between the house where I then was and the college made the attempt very dangerous. Having disguised myself in a scholar's gown, I put a large prayer-book under my arm and went into the street. I was seized with horror inexpressible at the sight of the furious murderers, who, running from all parts, forced open the houses, and cried aloud, 'Kill! kill! massacre the Huguenots!' The blood which I saw shed before my eyes redoubled my terror. I fell into the midst of a body of guards; they stopped me, questioned me, and were beginning to use me ill, when, happily for me, the book that I carried was perceived, and served me for a passport.

"Twice after this I fell into the same danger, from which I extricated myself by the same good fortune. At last I arrived at the college of Burgundy, where a danger still greater than any I had yet met with awaited me. The porter having twice refused me entrance, I continued standing in the midst of the street at the mercy of the furious murderers, whose numbers increased every moment, and who were evidently seeking for their prey, when it came into my mind to ask for La Faye, the principal of this college, a good man, by whom I was tenderly beloved. The porter, prevailed upon by some small pieces of money which I put into his hand, admitted me; and my friend carried me to his apartment, where two inhuman priests, whom I heard mention the Sicilian vespers, wanted to force me from him, that they might cut me in pieces; saying, the order was not to spare even infants at the breast. All the good man could do was to conduct me privately to a distant chamber, where he locked me up, and here I was confined three days, uncertain of my destiny, seeing no one but a servant of my friend, who came from time to time to bring me provision." The massacre lasted three days, and at the end of that time a prohibition against mur-

dering and pillaging any more of the protestants was published at Paris; and then Sully was suffered to quit his cell in the college of Burgundy. He immediately saw two soldiers of the guard, agents to his father, entering the college, who gave his father a relation of what had happened to him, and eight days after he received a letter from him, advising him to continue in Paris, since the prince he served was not at liberty to leave it, and adding that he should follow the prince's example in going to mass. Though the king of Navarre had saved his life by this submission, yet in other things he was treated very indifferently, and suffered a thousand capricious insults. He was obliged against his will to stay some years at the court of France, during which period he did not neglect such political measures as seemed practicable, and he had a hand in those that were formed to take away the government from Catherine de Medicis, and to expel the Guises from court, which that queen discovering, caused him and the duke of Alençon to be arrested, set guards upon them, and ordered them to be examined upon many allegations. They were set at liberty by Henry III. for Charles IX. died 1574 in the most exquisite torments and horrors, the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day having been always in his mind. Bethune employed his leisure in the most advantageous manner he was able. He found it impracticable in a court to pursue the study of the learned languages, or of any thing called learning; but the king of Navarre ordered him to be taught mathematics and history, and all those exercises which give ease and gracefulness to the person. When Henry IV. ascended the throne of France, Bethune became his constant companion, and was soon appointed to the office of first minister. He attended to every part of the government, prosecuted extortioners, and those who were guilty of embezzling the public money, and, in short, restored the kingdom in a few years from a most desperate to a most flourishing condition, which however he could not have done if the king had not resolutely supported him against favourite mistresses, the cabals of court, and the factions of state, which would otherwise have overwhelmed him.



Bethune was made duke of Sully in 1606, and from that period he is scarcely known in history by



any other name. After the assassination of Henry, Sully retired from court; for a new reign introducing new men and new measures. The life he led in retirement was accompanied with grandeur, and even majesty; yet it was, in some measure, embittered with domestic troubles, arising from the extravagance and ill conduct of his eldest son, the marquis of Rosni. The duke of Sully died Dec. 22, 1641, aged eighty-three, and his duchess caused a statue to be erected over his burying-place, with this inscription: "Here lies the body of the most high, most puissant, and most illustrious lord, Maximilian de Bethune, marquis of Rosni, who shared in all the fortunes of King Henry the Great, among which was that memorable battle which gave the crown to the victor, where, by his valour, he gained the white standard, and took several prisoners of distinction. He was by that great monarch, in reward of his many virtues and distinguished merit, honoured with the dignities of duke, peer, and marshal of France, with the governments of the Upper and Lower Poitou, with the office of grand master of the ordnance, in which, bearing the thunder of his Jupiter, he took the castle of Montmelian, till then believed impregnable, and many other fortresses of Savoy. He was likewise made superintendent of the finances, which office he discharged singly, with a wise and prudent economy, and continued his faithful services till that unfortunate day when the Cæsar of the French nation lost his life by the hand of a parricide. After the lamented death of that great king, he retired from public affairs, and passed the remainder of his life in ease and tranquillity." We cannot conclude the life of this great and good man without briefly adverting to his "Memoirs." This is one of the most interesting works illustrative of French history, and it occupies a period from 1570 to the death of Henry IV. in 1610. There is a good English translation by Mrs. Lennox.

BETTERTON, THOMAS.—This celebrated English actor, who, from his astonishing talents, was called the Roscius of his day, was born in Tothill Street, Westminster, in 1635. He is believed to have made his first appearance in 1656 at the playhouse in Charterhouse Yard, under the direction of Sir William D'Avenant. He continued to act in that theatre till the Restoration, when King Charles granted patents to two companies the one was called the "King's Company" and the other the "Duke's." For several years both companies acted with the highest applause; and the taste for dramatic entertainments was never stronger than whilst these two companies acted. They were, however, at length, united, though the time of their union is not precisely known; but it was in this united company that Betterton first displayed his masterly acting. Some idea of the excellence of this actor's style may be gathered from the following passage in Cibber's Apology:—"Betterton was an actor," says he, "as Shakspeare was an author, both without competitors, formed for the mutual assistance and illustration of each other's genius. How Shakspeare wrote all men who have a taste for nature may read and know; but with what higher rapture would he still be read could they conceive how Betterton played him! Then might they know the one was born alone to speak what the other only knew how to write. Pity it is that the momentary beauties flowing from an harmonious elocution cannot, like those of poetry, be their own record—that the animated graces of

the player can live no longer than the instant that breath and motion present them, or at best can but faintly glimmer through the memory or imperfect attestation of a few surviving spectators. Could *how* Betterton spoke be as easily known as *what* he spoke, then might you see the Muse of Shakspeare in her triumph with all her beauties in her best array, rising into real life, and charming her beholders. But alas! since all this is so far out of the reach of description, how shall I show you Betterton? Should I, therefore, tell you that all the Othellos, Hamlets, Hotspurs, Macbeths, and Brutuses you have seen since his time, have fallen short of him, this still would give you no idea of his particular excellence. Let us see then what a particular comparison may do, whether that may yet draw him nearer to you? You have seen a Hamlet perhaps, who, on the first appearance of his father's spirit, has thrown himself into all the straining vociferation requisite to express rage and fury, and the house has thundered with applause, though the misguided actor was all the while (as Shakspeare terms it) tearing a passion into rags. I am the more bold to offer you this particular instance because the late Mr. Addison, while I sat by him to see this scene acted, made the same observation, asking me, with some surprise, if I thought Hamlet should be in so violent a passion with the ghost, which, though it might have astonished, had not provoked him? For you may observe that in this beautiful speech the passion never rises beyond an almost breathless astonishment, or an impatience, limited by filial reverence, to enquire into the suspected wrongs that may have raised him from his peaceful tomb, and a desire to know what a spirit so seemingly distressed might wish or enjoin a sorrowful son to execute towards his future quiet in the grave. This was the light into which Betterton threw this scene, which he opened with a pause of mute amazement; then, rising slowly to a solemn trembling voice, he made the ghost equally terrible to the spectator as to himself. And, in the descriptive part of the natural emotions which the ghastly vision gave him, the boldness of his expostulation was still governed by decency, manly, but not braving, his voice never rising into that seeming outrage, or wild defiance, of what he naturally revered. But, alas! to preserve this medium between mouthing and meaning too little, to keep the attention more pleasingly awake by a tempered spirit than by mere vehemence of voice, is, of all the master-strokes of an actor, the most difficult to reach. In this, none have equalled Betterton. He that feels not himself the passion he would raise will talk to a sleeping audience. But this was never the fault of Betterton. A further excellence in him was that he could vary his spirit to the different characters he acted. Those wild impatient starts, that fierce and flashing fire, which he threw into Hotspur, never came from the unruffled temper of his Brutus (for I have more than once seen a Brutus as warm as Hotspur); when the Brutus of Betterton was provoked in his dispute with Cassius, his spirits flew out of his eyes; his steady looks alone supplied that terror which he disdained an intemperance in his voice should rise to. Thus, with a settled dignity of contempt, like an unheeding rock, he repelled upon himself the foam of Cassius; not but in some part of this scene, where he reproaches Cassius, his temper is not under this sup-



pression, but opens into that warmth which becomes a man of virtue; yet this is that hasty spark of anger which Brutus himself endeavours to excuse. But, with whatever strength of nature we see the poet show at once the philosopher and the hero, yet the image of the actor's excellence will be still imperfect to you, unless language could put colour in our words to paint the voice with. The most that a Vandyck can arrive at is to make his portraits of great persons seem to think; a Shakspeare goes further yet, and tells you what his pictures thought; a Betterton steps beyond them both, and calls them from the grave to breathe, and be themselves again in feature, speech, and motion, at once united, and gratifies at once your eye, your ear, your understanding. From these various excellences Betterton had so full a possession of the esteem and regard of his auditors that, upon his entrance into every scene, he seemed to seize upon the eyes and ears of the giddy and inadvertent. To have talked or looked another way would have been thought insensibility or ignorance. In all his soliloquies of moment, the strongest intelligence of attitude and aspect drew you into such an impatient gaze and eager expectation that you almost imbibed the sentiment with your eye before the ear could reach it."

Gifted with such astonishing talent, it is not surprising that Betterton attracted the notice of his sovereign, the protection of the upper circles, and the general respect of all ranks of people. The patentees however, as there was now only one theatre, thought only of the means of accumulating wealth to themselves by the labours of others. Betterton endeavoured to convince the managers of the injustice of their proceedings, but to no purpose, and he then procured a patent for building a new theatre in Lincoln's Inn Fields, which was opened in 1695. Mr. Congreve accepted a share in this company, and the first play they acted was his comedy of "Love for Love." The king honoured it with his presence, when Betterton spoke a prologue, and Mrs. Bracegirdle an epilogue, on the occasion. But notwithstanding all the advantages this company enjoyed, and the favourable reception they at first met with, yet they were unable to keep up their run of success above two or three seasons. Vanbrugh and Cibber wrote for the other house, and the frequency of new pieces gave them such an advantage that Betterton's company, with all their merit, must have been ruined had not the "Mourning Bride," and "The Way of the World," come to their relief, and saved them at the last extremity. In a few years, however, it appearing that they could not maintain their independence without some new support from their friends, the patrons of Betterton opened a subscription for building a theatre in the Haymarket, which was opened in 1706. Betterton's health, however, being much impaired by constant application, he declined the management of this house, resigning it entirely to Sir John Vanbrugh and Mr. Congreve.

When Betterton had reached seventy, his circumstances grew daily worse and worse, yet he kept up a remarkable spirit and serenity of mind, and acted when his health would permit. The public, remembering the pleasure he had given them, would not allow so deserving a man, after fifty years' service, to withdraw, without some marks of their bounty. In the spring of 1709 a benefit, which was then a very uncommon favour, was granted to him, and the play

of "Love for Love," was acted for this purpose. Betterton acquired 500*l.* by this benefit, and a promise was given him that the favour should be annually repeated as long as he lived. September the 20th, in the succeeding winter, he performed the part of Hamlet with great vivacity. This activity of his kept off the gout longer than usual, but the fit returned upon him in the spring with greater violence, and it was the more unlucky as this was the time of his benefit. The play he fixed upon was "The Maid's Tragedy," in which he acted the part of Melanthus, and notice was given thereof by his friend the Tatler; but the fit intervening, that he might not disappoint the town, he was obliged to submit to external applications to reduce the swelling of his feet, which enabled him to appear on the stage, though he was obliged to use a slipper. Cibber remarks, "He was observed that day to have a more than ordinary spirit, and met with suitable applause; but the unhappy consequence of tampering with his distemper was that it flew into his head and killed him." He died April 28, 1710, and was interred in Westminster Abbey. Sir Richard Steele attended the ceremony, and two days after published a paper in the "Tatler," eulogising his memory.

BETTINELLI, SAVERIO, a distinguished Italian author. He was born at Mantua, in 1713, and studied there and at Bologna, under the Jesuits; and taught, from 1739 to 1744, belles lettres at Brescia, where he made himself known by some poems composed for the use of schools. In Bologna, where he studied theology, he continued to cultivate his poetical talents, and wrote for the theatre of the college his tragedy of Jonathan. In 1751 he was entrusted with the direction of the college of nobles at Parma. After having remained there eight years he travelled in France and Germany, and returned to Verona, where he remained till 1767, engaged in preaching and instruction. After the suppression of the Jesuits in 1773 he returned to his native city, where he resumed his literary labours with renewed zeal. He published several works, among which some were intended for ladies; as, his "Correspondence between two Ladies," his "Letters to Lesbia on Epigrams," and likewise his "Twenty-four Dialogues on Love." He preserved the cheerfulness and serenity of his spirit to the age of ninety years, and died in 1808, with the composure of a philosopher and the devotion of a Christian. Besides his works already mentioned, we cite his "Dell' Entusiasmo delle belle Arti, Risorgimento negli Studi, nelle Arti e ne' Costumi dopo il Mille," a superficial work, which is however not destitute of new and just views. The "Lettere dieci di Virgilio agli Arcadi" attracted great attention. The ideas expressed in this work of the two great names of Italian poetry, particularly of Dante, involved him in many contests.

BEVERIDGE, WILLIAM, a learned English divine, born at Barrow, in Leicestershire, in 1638. He was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he studied with great industry the oriental languages, and made such proficiency in that department of learning that at eighteen years of age he wrote a "Treatise of the Excellency and Use of the Oriental Tongues, especially the Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac, Arabic, and Samaritan, with a Syriac Grammar." In 1660 he was ordained deacon by Robert, bishop of Lincoln, and, about the same time, was



presented to the vicarage of Ealing, in Middlesex, which he resigned about a year after, upon his being chosen rector of St. Peter's, Cornhill, by the mayor and aldermen of London. He applied himself to the discharge of his ministry with such zeal, and his labours were crowned with such success, that he was styled, "The Great Reviver and Restorer of Primitive Piety." In 1684 he was installed prebendary of Canterbury, and about the same time appointed chaplain to King William and Queen Mary. In 1691 he was offered, but refused to accept of, the see of Bath and Wells, vacant by the deprivation of Dr. Kenn, on his refusing to take the oaths to King William and Queen Mary; but some time after he accepted that of St. Asaph, and was consecrated, July 16, 1704. Upon his advancement to the episcopal chair he wrote to the clergy of his diocese, recommending to them, "The duty of catechising and instructing the people committed to their charge, in the principles of the Christian religion, to the end they might know what they were to believe and do in order to salvation;" and, to enable them to do this the more effectually, he sent them a plain exposition upon the church catechism. This good prelate did not enjoy his episcopal dignity above three years and some months, for he died March the 5th, 1709, in the seventy-first year of his age, and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral. He left the greatest part of his estate to the societies for propagating Christian knowledge. He was also a benefactor to the vicarage of Barrow, where he was born, and to the curacy of Mount Sorrel, in the parish of Barrow.

Bishop Beveridge has had a high character given him by several writers. The author of a letter published in the "Guardian," having made an extract out of the bishops's first sermon, in the second volume, relating to the Deity, states that it may, for acuteness of judgment, ornament of speech, and true sublimity, be compared with any of the choicest writings of the ancient fathers, or doctors of the church who lived nearest to the apostles' times. Dr. Henry Felton, in his dissertation on the classics, tells us that "our learned and venerable bishop hath delivered himself with those ornaments alone which his subject suggested to him, and hath written in that plainness and solemnity of style, that gravity and simplicity, which give authority to the sacred truths he teacheth, and unanswerable evidence to the doctrines he defendeth,—that there is something so great, primitive, and apostolical in his writings, that it creates an awe and veneration in our minds,—that the importance of his subjects is above the decoration of words, and what is great and majestic in itself looketh more like itself the less it is adorned." Mr. Nelson observes that he cannot forbear acknowledging the favourable dispensation of Providence to the present age, in blessing it with so many of those pious discourses which our truly primitive prelate delivered from the pulpit, and that he rather takes the liberty to call it a favourable dispensation of Providence, because the bishop gave no orders himself that they should be printed, but humbly neglected them as not being composed for the press. But that this circumstance is so far from abating the worth of the sermons, or diminishing the character of the author, that Mr. Nelson thinks it raises the excellency of both; because it shows at once the true nature of a popular discourse, and the great talent he had that way. For, to improve the gene-

rality of hearers, they must be taught all the mysteries of Christianity, and the holy institutions belonging to it; since it is upon this true foundation that the practice of Christian virtues must be built, to make them acceptable in the sight of God. And then all this must be delivered to the people in so plain and intelligible a style that they may easily comprehend it; and it must be addressed to them in so affecting and moving a manner that their passions may be winged to a vigorous prosecution of what is taught. Mr. Nelson adds that, "if he is not mistaken, the sermons of our learned bishop answer this character, and that he is confirmed in this opinion "by the judgment of those who are allowed to have the greatest talents for the pulpit, as well as for all other parts of learning."

Bishop Beveridge left many learned works, and there are many still deservedly popular. We may particularly enumerate "The Great Necessity and Advantage of Public Prayer and Frequent Communion. Designed to revive Primitive Piety. With Meditations, Ejaculations, and Prayers, before, at, and after the Sacrament. 1710." "One Hundred and Fifty Sermons and Discourses, on Several Subjects, 1708." "Thesaurus Theologicus: or a Complete System of Divinity, summed up in Brief Notes upon Select Places of the Old and New Testament; wherein the Sacred Text is reduced under Proper Heads, explained and illustrated with the Opinions and Authorities of the Ancient Fathers, Councils, &c. 1711." "A Defence of the book of Psalms, collected into English metre, by Thomas Sternhold, John Hopkins, and Others, with Critical Observations on the New Version compared with the Old." In this book he gives the old version the preference to the new. "Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles."

BEVIN, ELWAY, a musician eminently skilled in the knowledge of practical composition, who flourished towards the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign. He was of Welsh extraction, and had been educated under Tallis, upon whose recommendation in 1589 he was sworn in gentleman extraordinary of the royal chapel, from whence he was expelled in 1637, it being discovered that he adhered to the church of Rome. He was also organist of Bristol cathedral, but forfeited that employment at the same time with his place in the chapel. He composed various services and a few anthems. Before Bevin's time the precepts for the composition of canons were known to few. And Bevin, with a view to the improvement of students, generously communicated the result of many years' study and experience, in a treatise which is highly commended by all who have taken occasion to speak of it. This book was published in 1631, and dedicated to Goodman, bishop of Gloucester, with the following title:—"A Briefe and Short Instruction of the Art of Musicke, to teach how to make Discant of All Proportions that are in Use; very Necessary for all such as are desirous to attain to Knowledge in the Art; and may, by Practice, if they sing, soon be able to compose Three, Four, and Five Parts, and also to compose all Sort of Canons that are usuall by these Directions, of Two or Three Parts in One upon the Plain Song." The rules contained in this book for composition in general are very brief; but for the composition of canons there are in it a variety of examples of almost all the possible forms in which they are capable of being constructed, even to the extent of sixty parts.



**BEWICK.**—The art of engraving on wood is materially indebted to two brothers of this name. John and Thomas Bewick are best known to the naturalist by their illustrations of works on quadrupeds and British birds. John Bewick died of a consumption in 1795, and his brother Thomas of the gout in 1828.

**BEZA, THEODORE.**—This distinguished divine stands next to Calvin among the preachers of the Calvinistic church in the sixteenth century. Born of a noble family at Vezelay, in Burgundy, June 24, 1519, educated in Orleans, under Melchior Volmar, a German philologist devoted to the reformation, and early familiar with the ancient classical literature, he became known, at the age of twenty years, as a Latin poet, by his petulant and witty "*Juvenilia*." In 1539 he was made a licentiate of law, and, in the same year, invited by his family to Paris. He received from his uncle the reversion of his valuable abbey of Froidmont, and lived on the income of two benefices and the property which he had inherited from a brother. His habits, at this time, were dissipated. His handsome figure, his talents, and his connection with the most distinguished families, opened to him the most splendid prospects. But a clandestine marriage, which took place in 1543, recalled him from his excesses, and a dangerous illness confirmed the intention which he had formed at Orleans of devoting himself to the service of the reformed church; so that, after his recovery, he forsook all the advantages of his situation in Paris, and repaired with his wife to Geneva, in 1547. Soon after, he accepted a professorship of the Greek language at Lausanne, and obtained to such a degree the confidence of the Swiss Calvinists that he was sent in 1558 on an embassy to the protestant princes of Germany, to obtain their intercession at the French court for the release of the Huguenots imprisoned in Paris. In the following year, he went to Geneva as a preacher, and soon after became a professor of theology, and the most active assistant of Calvin, to whom he had already recommended himself by several works (on the punishment of heretics by the magistrate, the vindication of the burning of Servetus, and some violent controversial writings on the doctrine of predestination and the communion, against Castalio, Westphal and Hesshuss.)

His talents for negotiation were now often put in requisition by the Calvinists. He was sent to the court of Anthony, king of Navarre, at Nerac, to obtain the toleration of the French Huguenots, and, at his desire, he appeared in 1561 at the religious conference at Poissy, where he spoke in defence of his party with a boldness, presence of mind, and energy, which gained him the esteem of the French court. He often preached in Paris before the queen of Navarre and the prince of Conde, also in the suburbs. At the conference of St. Germain, in 1562, he spoke strongly against the worship of images, and, after the commencement of the civil war, accompanied the prince of Conde as chaplain, and, on the capture of the prince, joined the admiral Coligny. After the restoration of peace, he returned to Geneva in 1563, where, besides discharging the duties of his offices, he continued to engage in theological controversies in support of the Calvinists; and after Calvin's death, in 1564, became his successor, and was considered the first theologian of this church. He presided in the synods of the French Calvinists at La Rochelle, and at Nismes, where he opposed Morel's

proposal for the alteration of clerical discipline; was sent by Conde in 1574 to the court of the elector palatine; and at the religious conference at Montpellier, which took place in 1586, opposed the theologians of Wurtemberg, particularly James Andreas. At the age of sixty-nine years he married his second wife, and still continued to repel, with the power of truth and wit, the attacks and calumnies which his enemies, apostatized Calvinists, Lutherans, and particularly the Jesuits, heaped upon him. They reported in 1597 that he had died, and returned before his death to the Catholic faith. Beza, now seventy-eight years old, met his assailants in a poem full of youthful enthusiasm, and resisted in the same year the attempts of St. Francis de Sales to convert him, and the alluring offers of the pope. In 1600 he visited Henry IV., in the territory of Geneva, who presented him with 500 ducats. After having enjoyed excellent health during almost his whole life, he died of old age, October 13, 1605.

By a rigorous adherence to the principles of Calvin, in whose spirit he presided over the church of Geneva, he had become the chief of his party, and enjoyed for forty years the reputation of a patriarch without whose approbation no important step was taken. In order to preserve the unity and permanency of his church, he sacrificed his own opinions to the established dogmas of Calvin, and rendered the most important services by his various erudition, his constant zeal, his active spirit, his brilliant eloquence, and even by the impression of his personal appearance, which age made still more striking. He defended his doctrines with ability and enthusiasm, and often with merciless severity and obstinacy. Among his many works, his exegetic writings, and an able and correct "*History of Calvinism in France*," from 1521 to 63, are still much esteemed. His correspondence with Calvin is to be found in the ducal library at Saxe-Gotha.

**BIAGIOLI, JOSAPHAT**, a learned Italian linguist who was born at Paris. Before the invasion of Italy, by the joint forces of Austria and Russia, in 1798, he was professor of Greek and Latin literature at the university of Urbino. As Biagioli had shown himself a friend to the cause of liberty, he took refuge in Paris, and was appointed professor of Italian literature at a *prytaneum*, and delivered lectures before a splendid audience. He was also author of a "*Grammaire Raisonnée de la Langue Italienne à l'Usage des François, suivie d'un Traité de la Poésie Italienne*," published at Paris in 1809, which obtained the approbation of the French Institute, and has passed through four editions. He also prepared a "*Grammatica Ragionata della Lingua Francese all' Uso degl' Italiani*." His edition of the "*Divina Commedia del Dante Alighieri*," published at Paris in 1818, for the correctness of the text and the excellence of the commentary, is held in great esteem; but it has also contributed to the propagation of many new errors relating to Dante, partly from the editor's violent spirit of opposition to the Lombard tongue.

**BLANCHINI, FRANCESCO.**—This eminent scholar was born at Verona in 1662, studied mathematics, physics, anatomy, and botany, at first under the Jesuits, afterwards at Padua. He was intended for the clerical profession, and in consequence paid a long visit to Rome, and there applied himself to jurisprudence, but continued at the same time the study of experimental physics, astronomy, &c., as



well as of Greek, Hebrew, &c. Antiquities also became one of his favourite studies. He passed whole days amidst ancient monuments, was present at all the excavations in search of them, visited all the museums, and made drawings of the remains of antiquity with as much taste as skill. At the death of Innocent XI. Cardinal Ottoboni ascended the papal throne under the name of Alexander VIII. and bestowed on Bianchini a rich benefice, with the appointment of tutor and librarian to his nephew, the cardinal Pietro Ottoboni. Pope Clement XI. also patronised him, and appointed him secretary to the commission employed in the correction of the calendar. Bianchini was commissioned to draw a meridian in the church of St. Maria degli Angeli, and to erect a sun-dial. He successfully accomplished this difficult undertaking, with the assistance of Maraldi. Being on a tour through France, Holland, and England, he formed the idea of drawing a meridian in Italy from one sea to the other, in imitation of that which Cassini had drawn through France. He was occupied eight years at his own expense in that work; but other employments withdrew his attention from it, and it remained unfinished.

He concluded his career with two important works, published in 1727, on the planet Venus and on the sepulchre of Augustus. He died in 1729, and an elegant monument was erected to his memory in the cathedral at Verona. He united the most extensive learning with modesty and the most amiable manners.

**BIAS.**—This distinguished Ionian was born at Priene, one of the principal cities of Ionia, about 570 B. C. He was a practical philosopher, studied the laws of his country, and employed his knowledge in the service of his friends, defending them in the courts of justice, or settling their disputes. His advice, that the Ionians should fly before the victorious Cyrus to Sardinia, was not followed, and the victory of the army of Cyrus confirmed the correctness of his opinion. The inhabitants of Priene, when besieged by Mazares, resolved to abandon the city with their property. On this occasion, Bias replied to one of his fellow citizens, who expressed his astonishment that he made no preparations for his departure—"I carry every thing with me." Bias remained in his native country, where he died at a very advanced age. His countrymen buried him with splendour, and honoured his memory. Some of his sayings and precepts are yet preserved, and he was numbered among the seven sages of Greece.

**BIBBIENA, FERNANDO**, a painter and architect of some celebrity, who received his name from his native town in Tuscany. Several beautiful buildings were erected in Austria from his plans. But in his theatrical paintings he continued the vicious style of Borromini. His writings display extent and accuracy of knowledge. When considerably advanced in life, his weak sight prevented him from painting, and he occupied himself with the revision of his works, which he published anew at Bologna in 1725 and 1731, the first under the title "*Direzioni a giovani Studenti nel Disegno dell'Architettura Civile*;" in the second, he treats of perspective. He finally became blind, and died in 1743. His three sons extended their father's art through all Italy and Germany. Antonio succeeded to his father's place at the court of the emperor Charles VI. Giuseppe died at Berlin, and Alessandro in the service of the elector Palatine.

A collection of Bibbiena's decorations has been published at Augsburg.

**BICHENO, JAMES**, a dissenting minister, who was many years resident at Newbury in Berkshire. His last and principal work was entitled "*An Enquiry into the Nature of Benevolence*." It appeared in 1817, and he died in 1831, at the advanced age of eighty.

**BICHAT, XAVIER**, a celebrated French physiologist, who was born at Thoiry in 1771. He was elected professor of medicine at the Hotel Dieu, and his lectures were crowded with students. He continued to devote his talents to the medical school in that establishment till his death, which occurred in 1802. His best work is a "*Treatise on the Application of Anatomical Knowledge to the Elucidation of Physiology*."

**BICKERSTAFF, ISAAC**, a clever dramatic writer who was born in Ireland, and early in life became a subaltern officer in the marines. Among his best pieces are "*Love in a Village*," published in 1762, and "*The Hypocrite*," which was his last, as he died shortly afterwards on the continent.

**BIDDLE, JOHN**, a celebrated theological writer who was born in 1615, and was educated in the free-school at Wootton-under-edge; and, being a promising youth, was noticed by George, Lord Berkeley, who made him an allowance of ten pounds per annum. In 1634 he was sent to Oxford, and entered at Magdalen Hall; and in the following year he took the degree of bachelor of arts, and soon after was invited to be master of the school of his native place, but declined it. In 1691 he took his degree of master of arts; and, the magistrates of Gloucester having chosen him master of the free school of St Mary de Crypt in that city, he settled there. Having however broached some opinions respecting the Trinity different from those commonly received, and having expressed his thoughts with too much freedom, he was accused of heresy; and, being summoned before the magistrates, he exhibited in writing a confession, which not being thought satisfactory, he was obliged to make another more explicit than the former. Shortly after he composed twelve arguments drawn from the scripture, in which the commonly-received opinion respecting the Deity of the Holy Spirit was refuted. An acquaintance who had a copy of them having shown them to the magistrates of Gloucester, and to the parliament committee then residing there, he was committed in December 1, 1645, to the common gaol, to remain in that place till the parliament should take cognizance of the matter. However, he was shortly afterwards released, on giving security for his appearance when the parliament should send for him. Six months after he had been set at liberty he was summoned to appear at Westminster, and the parliament appointed a committee to examine him, before whom he freely confessed that he did not acknowledge the commonly-received notion of the divinity of the Holy Ghost; but, however, was ready to hear what could be opposed to him, and, if he could not make out his opinion to be true, honestly to own his error. But, being wearied with tedious and expensive delays, he wrote a letter to Sir Henry Vane, a member of the committee, requesting him either to procure his discharge or to make a report of his case to the House of Commons. The result of this was his being committed to the custody of one of their officers.

which restraint continued the five years following. He was at length referred to the assembly of divines then sitting at Westminster, before whom he often appeared, and gave them in writing his twelve arguments, which were published the same year. Upon their publication, he was summoned to appear at the bar of the House of Commons; where being asked, "Whether he owned this treatise, and the opinions therein," he answered in the affirmative, upon which he was committed to prison, and the house ordered Sept. 6, 1647, that the book should be called in and burnt by the hangman, and the author be examined by the committee of plundered ministers. But Mr. Biddle drew a greater storm upon himself by two tracts he published in 1648: "A Confession of Faith touching the Holy Trinity according to the Scripture;" and "The Testimonies of Irenæus, Justin Martyr, Tertullian, Novatianus, Theophilus, Origen, also of Arnobius, Lactantius, Eusebius, Hilary, and Brightman, concerning that one God, and the persons of the Holy Trinity, together with Observations on the same." As soon as they were published, the assembly of divines solicited the parliament, and procured an ordinance, inflicting death upon those that held opinions contrary to the received doctrine about the Trinity, and severe penalties upon those who differed in lesser matters. Biddle, however, escaped by a dissension in the parliament, part of which was joined by the army. Biddle had now more liberty allowed him by his keepers, who suffered him, upon security given, to go into Staffordshire, where he lived some time with a justice of peace, who entertained him with great hospitality, and at his death left him a legacy. Serjeant John Bradshaw, president of the council of state, his mortal enemy, having got intelligence of this indulgence granted him, caused him to be recalled, and more strictly confined. In 1654 the parliament published a general act of oblivion, when Biddle was restored to his liberty. The same year he published his "Twofold Scripture Catechism," which coming into the hands of some of the members of Cromwell's parliament, a complaint was made against it in the House of Commons. Upon this, the author being brought to the bar, and asked, "Whether he wrote that book," answered by asking, "Whether it seemed reasonable that one brought before a judgment-seat as a criminal should accuse himself." After some debates and resolutions, he was committed close prisoner to the Gatehouse. A bill likewise was ordered to be brought in for punishing him; but, after about six months' imprisonment, he obtained his liberty at the court of king's bench, by due course of law. About a year after, another no less formidable danger overtook him, by his engaging in a dispute with one Griffin an Anabaptist teacher. Many of Griffin's congregation having embraced Biddle's opinions concerning the Trinity, he thought the best way to stop the spreading of such errors would be openly to confute his tenets. For this purpose he challenged Biddle to a public disputation at his meeting in the Stone Chapel in St. Paul's Cathedral, on this question, "Whether Jesus Christ be the most High, or Almighty God." Biddle would have declined the dispute, but was obliged to accept of it; and the two antagonists having met, amidst a numerous audience, Griffin repeated the question, asking "if any man there did deny that Christ was God most High," to which Biddle reso-

lutely answered, "I do deny it:" and by this open profession gave his adversaries the opportunity of a positive and clear accusation. He was afterwards sent to Newgate, and ordered to be tried for his life the next sessions, on the ordinance against blasphemy. However, the protector not choosing to have him either condemned or absolved, took him out of the hands of the law, and detained him in prison, till at length, being wearied with receiving petitions for and against him, he banished him to St. Mary's Castle in the Isle of Scilly, where he was sent in October, 1655. During this exile he employed himself in studying several intricate matters, particularly the Revelation of St. John, and, after his return to London, published "An Essay" towards explaining it. In 1658 the protector, through the intercession of many friends, suffered a writ of Habeas Corpus to be granted out of the King's Bench, whereby the prisoner was brought back, and, nothing being laid to his charge, was set at liberty. Upon his return to London, he became pastor of an Independent meeting: but did not continue long in town; for Cromwell dying September 3, 1658, his son Richard called a parliament, consisting chiefly of Presbyterians, whom of all men Biddle most dreaded; he therefore retired privately into the country. This parliament being soon dissolved, he returned to his former employment till the Restoration of King Charles II., when the liberty of Dissenters was taken away, and their meetings punished as seditious. Biddle then confined his tenets to more private assemblies; but June the 1st, 1662, he was seized in his lodging, where he and some few of his friends had met for divine worship, and was, with them, carried before a justice of the peace, who committed them all to prison, where they lay till the recorder took security for their answering to the charge brought against them at the next sessions. But, the court not being then able to find a statute on which to form any criminal indictment, they were referred to the sessions following, and proceeded against at common law; each of the hearers was fined twenty pounds, Biddle 100*l.*, and he was ordered to remain in prison until it was paid. But in less than five weeks he was seized with a fatal disease, which put an end to his life, September 22, 1662. He was buried in the cemetery near Old Bethlem, in Moorfields.

BIDLOO, GODFREY, a celebrated anatomical writer, born at Amsterdam in 1649. After he had passed through his academical studies, he applied himself to physic and anatomy, and took his degree of doctor in physic. He soon got into considerable practice, and in 1688 was made professor of anatomy at the Hague, which he quitted in 1684 for the professorship of anatomy and chirurgery at Leyden. Shortly after William III. appointed him his physician, which he accepted on condition of holding his professorship. The king died in 1702, and Bidloo returned to his former employments, which he had been interrupted in the discharge of, by his constant attendance upon that prince. He died at Leyden, April, 1713, being sixty-four years of age. There was published at Leyden in 1719 a miscellaneous collection of Bidloo's poems in Low Dutch.

BIGLAND, JOHN, a very industrious historical and miscellaneous writer. He was born in Yorkshire, and for many years held the office of village schoolmaster. He passed a great part of his life in his



native county, where he wrote his histories of England and Europe. Mr. Bigland died in 1832, aged eighty-two.

**BIGLAND, RALPH**, garter principal king at arms. He was born in 1811, and was the son of Richard Bigland of Kendal, in Westmoreland, the descendant of a family originally seated at Bigland in Lancashire. After going through all the offices in the College of arms, he became the head of it in 1780, but enjoyed his elevation a very short time, dying in James St. Bedford Row, March 27, 1784. He was buried with his parents at Stepney. He was deservedly esteemed and regretted, as a man of much skill in heraldry and other branches of antiquities. Mr. Bigland made great collections for a history of Gloucestershire, which have been published since his death.

**BIGNON, JEROME**, a French writer, born at Paris in 1590. His father took the care of his education upon himself, and taught him the languages, philosophy, mathematics, civil law, and divinity. Henry I. appointed him page of honour to the Dauphin, afterwards Louis XIII. He wrote a "Treatise of the Precedency of the Kings of France," which he dedicated to this king, who ordered him to continue his researches upon the subject; but the death of this prince interrupted his design, and made him leave the court, whither he was soon recalled at the solicitation of Mr. le Fevre, preceptor to Louis XIII., and continued there till the death of his friend. In 1613 he published an edition of the "Formulæ of Marculphus," and the year following took a journey to Italy, where he received several distinguished marks of esteem from Paul V.

Upon his return from his travels, he applied himself to the practice of the bar with great success, and his father procured for him the post of advocate-general in the grand council; the king nominated him some time after counsellor of state, and at last advocate-general in the parliament. In 1641 he resolved to confine himself entirely to his business in the council of state, and therefore resigned his place of advocate-general to M. Briquet his son-in-law.

His son-in-law dying in 1645, he was obliged to resume his post of advocate-general, in order to preserve it for his son. He had also a considerable share in the ordinance of the year 1639; and he discharged with great integrity the commissions of Arrierban, and other posts which he was entrusted with at different times. Queen Anne of Austria, during her regency, sent for him to her council upon the most important occasions. He was appointed in 1651 to regulate the great affair of the succession of Mantua, and in 1654 to conclude the treaty with the Hans Towns. M. Bignon died aged sixty-six, on the 7th of April, 1636, of an asthma, with which he was seized the autumn before.

**BILLINGTON, ELIZABETH**.—This extraordinary singer and musician may be justly said to have laid the foundation of an English school of vocal music; it will therefore be advisable to trace the progress of her professional career somewhat in detail. She was born in England about the year 1770. Her mother, who was a singer of some eminence, died while her offspring (Mr. C. Weichsell, the celebrated violinist, and Mrs. Billington) were young. These children were trained to music at the earliest possible age, and even performed on the piano-forte and violin for the benefit of Mrs. Weichsell, at the Haymarket theatre, at six years old, a

time of life when they might have been well thought incapable of any acquirements deserving public notice. Her first master was Schroeter, an excellent teacher of the pianoforte, and her father superintended her musical education with a degree of severity that could scarcely be justified even by the proficiency of the pupil. Few persons have attained the perfection that Miss Weichsell reached upon this instrument.

At fourteen years of age she came before the public as a singer at Oxford, and at sixteen married Mr. Billington, then a performer on the double bass, who carried her immediately to Dublin, where she commenced her theatrical career in the opera of "*Orpheus and Eurydice*." Here, perhaps, for the only period of her life, she was doomed to suffer mortification, in the greater applause and respect obtained by Miss Wheeler, a singer much inferior to herself, and such was the effect on the ardent mind of Mrs. Billington that it had nearly been the occasion of her leaving the stage in disgust. The reputation of Miss Wheeler procured her an engagement at Covent-garden theatre for three years. Mrs. Billington followed her to London, and no sooner had she arrived than Mr. Harris, the proprietor, and Mr. Lewis, the manager, waited upon her with a proposal to play three nights. So short a trial she positively refused, expressing her desire to substitute twelve nights, under the apprehension that her too anxious solicitude to please her countrymen might defeat her first efforts. She was announced for the part of *Rosetta*, in Arne's opera of "*Love in a Village*." She was announced for the Wednesday night, but the name of Mrs. Billington, late Miss Weichsell, having caught the attention of the king, his majesty commanded her appearance to take place two days sooner, a circumstance highly flattering, as it was a solitary instance, and contrary to the custom generally observed by the sovereign.

It will readily be conceived that Mrs. Billington, whose habits of study and practice had been fixed by the severest exercise of parental authority, omitted no preparatory exertion to ensure her success with the public under such auspices. Indeed she laboured night and day, and nothing could be more complete than her triumph over the esteem of her audience and the rivalry of her former favoured competitor. At the expiration of the twelve nights, the managers again waited on Mrs. Billington to renew her engagement on a permanent footing. They questioned her cautiously respecting her expectations, and she, rather in jest than in earnest, demanded 1000*l.* and a benefit for the remainder of the season, with which, to her utter astonishment, they immediately complied, and they afterwards voluntarily gave her a second night, in return for the extraordinary emolument they had derived from the exercise of her talents.

During this season, although her theatrical duties were unremitted, she never relaxed from the most sedulous general pursuit of the knowledge and practice of her art. She laboured incessantly, and received lessons of Mortellari, an Italian master of celebrity, at that time in England. The theatre had no sooner closed than she availed herself of the interval to fly to Paris, where she enjoyed the instructions of the great Sacchini the composer. Thus she continued from the first to fortify and enrich her natural gifts with the strength and ornaments of



high science, an example to be followed by every student who aspires to the character of a polished and expressive singer.

At this time, Madame Mara arrived in England, unequalled in the eminence she had attained. In 1785 the subject of our memoir made her *débüt* at the concert of ancient music. Mara herself is said not to have beheld her reception quite unmoved, and some disputes even arose respecting place and pre-eminence in the seats of the orchestra, a species of contention very unworthy the transcendent abilities of these gifted individuals. Mrs. Billington's fame continued to spread, while her never-ceasing ardour and assiduity were day by day enlarging her stock of knowledge, acquirement, and facility. She was a constant performer at the concerts of the metropolis, and she sung at the memorable Westminster-abbey performances. Mrs. Billington remained at Covent Garden until 1793, when she adopted the resolution to retire from public life, which she vainly imagined she had firmness enough to adhere to. At the instigation of her husband and her brother, she was induced to make a continental tour, with a view solely to amusement, and to this intent she declined all letters of introduction, intending to travel *incognito*. For some time they succeeded, and passed along without notice; but at Naples, the English ambassador, Sir W. Hamilton, penetrated their secret, and persuaded Mrs. Billington and Mr. Weichsell to perform in private before the king and queen, at Caserto, a country residence. The gratification they received induced their majesties to request Mrs. Billington to perform at the great theatre of St. Carlo, then thought to be the finest opera-establishment in the world. She accordingly, in May, 1794, made her *débüt* in "*Inez di Castro*," which was composed expressly for her by the maestro, Francesco Bianchi, who wrote an opera worthy the supereminent ability of this *prima donna*. Her success was complete, for indeed her celebrity made her name known in Italy, and previous to her quitting England the Venetian ambassador had been in treaty with her to accept an engagement, which however she broke.

Her performance at Naples was interrupted by a sudden and affecting event. On the second night, as Mr. Billington was seeking his hat to accompany his wife to the theatre, he fell down in a fit of apoplexy, and died in the arms of Bianchi, at the residence of the bishop of Winchester. Nor was this the only circumstance that impeded her progress. About this time, an eruption of Mount Vesuvius took place, and the superstitious bigotry of the Neapolitans attributed the visitation to the permission granted to a heretic to perform at St. Carlo. Serious apprehensions were entertained by Mrs. Billington's friends for the consequences of such an impression. Her talents, however, triumphed, she renewed her performance, and no *prima donna* was ever more rapturously received in that country, where the opera is best cultivated and understood.

In 1796 she went to Venice, where, after the first performance, she was taken so ill that she could sing no more during the season; and it is among the records honourable to human nature that the manager generously brought her the whole of her salary, which she compensated by playing the succeeding season without any other reward than the pleasure of reciprocating the liberality of her employer. Conceiving that the air of Venice did not

agree with her, she quitted the place. On her journey from Venice to Rome, she was earnestly requested to give a concert at the latter city, which she at first declined; but a society of *Cavalieri* undertook the whole of the arrangement, and she and Mr. Weichsell performed to a very crowded audience. Between this period and the year 1798 she visited all the principal theatres in Italy, and in this year married Mr. Felissent, and appeared only twice subsequently at Milan.

In 1801, still retaining the name of Billington, she returned to her native country. No sooner was her arrival known than all the conductors of the public amusements were alike eager to engage her. The managers of Covent Garden and Drury Lane theatres evinced equal anxiety to secure her talents, and the disposal of her services were at length referred to arbitrators, who awarded that she should appear at the two theatres alternately. Mandane, in Arne's "*Artaxerxes*," was the character selected for her *débüt*, and the audience were struck with rapture and astonishment at her amazing powers, which were then in their full meridian. On this occasion she introduced a song from Bianchi's "*Inez di Castro*," to the English words, "*Lost in anxious doubts*," which, being composed expressly for her, exhibited at one view her prodigious qualities, heightened by the delightful execution of her brother's obligato violin accompaniment. Perhaps no other singer could have sung this song; very certain it is, no one has succeeded so well since. Engagements now multiplied upon her. She sung at the Italian opera in 1803, at the king's concert, at the Hanover Square vocal concerts, and at a round of provincial meetings, from this time till 1809, when she finally retired. Two remarkable circumstances attended her during this period of her public life. On her reappearance at the opera, Banti, then in the zenith of her excellence, played the character of Polifonte to Mrs. Billington's Merope, in Nasonini's opera of that name. Never was the house so crowded as on this occasion. The stage was so covered with ladies and gentlemen that the performers had scarcely room to move. The second occurrence was her performance with Mara on the 3d of June, 1802, the last night of that most distinguished singer's appearing in this country. They sung a duet together, composed to display their mutual accomplishments, and the contest excited both to the utmost pitch of scientific expression. Never, certainly, was such a transcendent exercise of vocal ability.

Mrs. Billington, having gained a competency, and feeling her health very sensibly affected by her efforts in the service of the public, resolved to retire from exertions which, with a mind so keenly alive to the approbation of her auditors and so devoted to the strictest execution of her professional duties, could not have failed to have shortened her prospects of repose, and even of existence. No entreaties were spared on the part of the noble directors of the ancient music, and of every public theatre or concert at which she had assisted; but her resolution was finally taken, and in 1809 she retired from all public performances, and was never afterwards induced to forego it except on one occasion, when she sung for the benefit of a charity at Whitehall, in the presence of the queen, the prince regent, and other branches of the royal family. Mrs. Billington finally quitted



England with her husband in 1817, and died, after an illness of a very few days, at her estate of St. Artien, near Venice.

**BILSON, THOMAS**, a learned bishop, born at Winchester, and educated in William of Wikeham's school. In 1565 he was admitted fellow of New College, Oxford, and in due course took the degrees of bachelor and master of arts, of bachelor and doctor of divinity : the last in 1580. In his younger years he had a great passion for poetry, but, after he entered into holy orders, he applied himself wholly to divinity, and became an excellent preacher. The first preferment he had was the mastership of Winchester school. He was next made prebendary of Winchester, and afterwards warden of the college. Whilst he held this office he was of great service to the college in 1584, in saving the revenues, which were seized by a forged document. Of this he himself gives an account in the following words:—"There happened an injury to be offered to the inheritance of the college where I am, from a false title derived from before the foundation of the house, and so strengthened on every side with ancient deeds and evidences that the forgery was hard to be discerned, and harder to be convinced, but by infinite searching in the monuments of many churches and bishoprics, as well as in our own, and re-examining sundrie large and laborious commissions which they had taken out before my time, to testify the keeping, and justify the delivering, of those suspected deeds and ligiers. To the detecting and impugning of this, no person was, or would be used, but myself; the cause was so huge, the comparing of the circumstances, and contrarieties both of deeds and witnesses, so tedious; the proofs so perplexed and intricate; and the danger so nearly touched the whole state of the house: I was forced for two years to lay all studies aside, and addict myself wholly, first to the deprebending and then to the pursuing of this falsehood."

In 1585 he published his book, "Of the True Difference between Christian Subjection and Unchristian Rebellion, wherein the Prince's Lawful Power to Command for Truth, and Indispensable Right to bear the Sword, are defended against the Pope's Censures and the Jesuits' Sophisms, uttered in their Apology and Defence of English Catholics: with a Demonstration that the Things reformed in the Church of England, by the Laws of this Realm, are Truly Catholic, notwithstanding the Vain Show made to the contrary in their late Rhemish Testament." He dedicated it to Queen Elizabeth. In June, 1596, he was consecrated bishop of Worcester, translated May following to the bishopric of Winchester, and then made a privy counsellor. In 1599 he published, "The Effect of Certain Sermons touching the Full Redemption of Mankind by the Death and Blood of Jesus Christ," &c., in which he shows that the church of God hath always been governed by an inequality and superiority of pastors among themselves. These sermons greatly alarmed the puritans, because they contradicted some of their tenets. The queen, who was at Farnham Castle, which belonged to the bishop of Winchester, directly commanded him "neither to desert the doctrine nor to let the calling which he bore in the church of God to be trampled under foot by such unquiet refusers of truth and authority." Upon which he wrote that learned treatise which was published in 1604, under the title of "The Survey of Christ's Sufferings for Man's Redemption, and of his Descent

to Hades or Hell for our Deliverance." It was this prelate who preached at Westminster before King James I. and his queen, at their coronation on St. James's day, 28th July 1603, and his sermon was published in 1603. The care of revising and putting the last hand to the "New Translation of 'the English Bible,'" was committed to Bishop Bilson and Dr. Miles Smith, afterwards bishop of Gloucester. The last public affair in which he was seen was being one of the delegates that pronounced and signed the sentence of divorce between Robert Devereux, earl of Essex, and the lady Frances Howard, in 1613. This learned prelate died the 18th of June 1616, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

**BINGLEY, WILLIAM**, an ingenious naturalist and writer on miscellaneous subjects. He was left an orphan at a very early age, and graduated at Peterhouse College in 1795. He afterwards made an excursion through Wales, which furnished the materials for his "Tour" through that delightful principality. Mr. Bingley's next production was entitled "Animal Biography," and it was followed by several other useful compilations. He died in 1823.

**BION**.—This celebrated Greek poet flourished about 200 years before the Christian era. He was intimately acquainted with Moschus, whose *Idyllium* on the death of Bion is a most masterly production. We know but little of the history of this poet, but it appears that he was for some time in Sicily, and that he was afterwards poisoned by some insidious enemy. Fawkes has translated several of his *Idylliums*, and we select one as a specimen, which is undoubtedly authentic. It is on the enjoyment of life—

"If merit only stamps my former lays,  
And those alone shall give me deathless praise;  
But, if even those have lost their bright applause,  
Why should I labour thus without a cause?  
For if great Jove or Fate would stretch our span,  
And give of life a double share to man,  
One part to pleasures and to joy ordain,  
And vex the other with hard toil and pain,  
With sweet complacence we might then employ  
Our hours, for labour still enhances joy;  
But since of life we have but one small share,  
A pittance scant, which daily toils impair,  
Why should we waste it in pursuit of care?  
Why do we labour to augment our store,  
The more we gain still coveting the more?  
Alas! alas! we quite forget that man  
Is a mere mortal, and his life a span."

**BIRCH, THOMAS**, a distinguished historical and biographical writer, who was born in the parish of St. John, Clerkenwell, Nov. 23, 1705, and his parents belonged to the Society of Friends, called Quakers. The first school he went to was at Hemel-Hempsted in Hertfordshire, where he afterwards officiated as usher. He was usher in two schools afterwards, which, as well as the first, belonged to the Friends' Society. In 1728, he married, and was singularly happy in his wife: but his felicity was of a short duration, as she soon died of a consumption.

When he quitted the Society of Friends does not appear; but he was ordained deacon by the bishop of Salisbury, at King's Street Chapel, London, Jan. 17, 1730, and priest by the same bishop in the following year. He was at the same time presented to the rectory of Liddington, St. Mary, and the vicarage of Siddington, St. Peter, Gloucestershire. He had some time before been recommended to Lord

Hardwicke, then attorney-general, to whom and the present Lord Hardwicke he was indebted for all his preferments. In May, 1731, he was instituted to the living of Ulting in Essex. In 1734 he was appointed a domestic chaplain to Lord Kilmarnock, afterwards executed for rebellion in 1746, who however must then have been reputed a whig, since under no other character could Mr. Birch have been recommended to him. In 1735 he was chosen a member of the Royal Society; and, the same year, of the Antiquarian Society: just before which he had a master of arts degree conferred on him by diploma, from the Marischal College of Aberdeen. In 1753 the Marischal College of Aberdeen created him doctor of divinity, and in that year the same honour was conferred upon him by Herring, archbishop of Canterbury. The last preferment given to him was the rectory of Depden in Essex, 1761; and he continued possessed of this, together with that of St. Margaret, Pattens, till his death. This happened the 9th of January, 1766, and was occasioned by a fall from his horse, betwixt London and Hampstead.

The following are his principal publications:—"The General Dictionary, Historical and Critical," in ten volumes folio, the first of which was published in 1734, the last in 1741. This work he executed in conjunction with the Rev. Mr. Bernard and Mr. Lockman; and Mr. Sale drew up the articles relating to Oriental History. "Heads of illustrious persons of Great Britain, engraved by Houbraken and Vertue, with Lives and Characters, by Dr. Birch," "Memoirs of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, from 1581, till her death," "History of the Royal Society, from its First Rise, in which the Most Considerable of those Papers which have hitherto not been Published are inserted in their Proper Order, as a Supplement to the Philosophical Transactions," four volumes quarto.

Dr. Birch was not a man of learning, properly so called: he understood the Latin and French languages, not critically, but very well; of the Greek he knew very little. He was however a man of very general knowledge, and excelled particularly in modern history. As a collector and compiler, he was in the main judicious in the choice of his materials; but was sometimes too minute in uninteresting details, and "did not always exercise with due severity the power of selection." He had a favourite position, that "we could not be possessed of too many facts;" and he never departed from it, though it was often urged to him that facts which admit of no reasoning, and tend to no edification, which can only serve to encumber and as it were smother useful intelligence, had better be consigned to oblivion than recorded.

**BIRKBECK, MORRIS.**—This adventurer is well known for his emigration speculation to Illinois in the United States of America. We notice him in the present place from his having written two or three books of "Notes," of which the last excited considerable attention. It appears that Mr. Birkbeck having made an unsuccessful speculation in the purchase of land in Illinois, endeavoured to procure purchasers for it by the most illusory descriptions of its richness and agricultural value. He was generally called the "Emperor of the Prairies," and like his co-sovereign, the "Cacique Macgregor," he would fain have formed a joint-stock company as the first-fruits of his sovereignty. Mr. Birkbeck was drowned

in returning home from a visit to Mr. Owen's settlement of New Harmony in 1825.

**BIRKENHEAD, or BERKENHEAD, SIR JOHN**, a celebrated political writer. He was born about 1615. After a school education, he went to Oxford, and was entered in 1632 a servitor of Oriel College, under the learned Dr. Humphry Lloyd, afterwards bishop of Bangor, by whom being recommended to Dr. William Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, he became his secretary. In this office he showed such capacity and diligence that the archbishop, by his diploma, created him master of arts in 1639, and the year following, by letter commendatory from the same prelate, he was chosen probationer fellow of All Soul's College. This obliged him to reside constantly at Oxford; and, on King Charles' making that city his head quarters, Sir John Birkenhead was selected to write a journal, in defence of the royal cause. By his majesty's recommendation he was chosen reader in moral philosophy, which employment he enjoyed till 1648, when he was expelled by the parliamentary visitors. He retired afterwards to London, where he wrote several poetical pieces; and, having adhered steadily to his principles, he acquired the title of the loyal poet, and suffered several imprisonments. He published, while he thus lived in obscurity, some very satirical compositions, mostly levelled against the republicans, and written with great poignancy. Upon the restoration of Charles II. he was rewarded for his loyalty. He was created, April 6, 1661, on the king's letter sent for that purpose, doctor of the civil law by the university of Oxford, and in that quality, as an eminent civilian, was consulted by the convocation on the question, "Whether bishops ought to be present in capital cases." He was about the same time elected to serve in parliament for Wilton, in the county of Wilts. He was knighted in 1662; and, upon Sir Richard Fanshawe's going in a public character to the court of Madrid, appointed to succeed him as master of requests. He afterwards received various favours from the court, which, however, drew upon him some very severe attacks from those who opposed it. Wood has treated him with great severity; but his memory has been transmitted with honour to posterity by others, particularly by Dryden, Langbaine, and Winstanly. He died in Westminster, December, 4, 1679, and was interred in St. Martin's in the Fields.

**BIRON, CHARLES DE GONTAUT, DUKE OF.** This celebrated French marshal was born about 1562. Educated as a Calvinist, he had twice changed his religion before he reached the sixteenth year of his age. In his fourteenth year, Biron was made colonel of the Swiss guards, and served Henry IV. with much zeal and courage. By the king's favour, he was, in 1592, raised to the rank of admiral of France. And though distinguished at court as well as in the field, always feared and praised, he was violent, obstinate, and presumptuous. At the retaking of Amiens, in 1598, Biron served under Henry IV., and, in the same year, was made a peer and duke. He thought himself, however, not sufficiently rewarded, and the Spanish party, which, after the peace of Vervins, could injure Henry only by secret intrigues, took advantage of the duke's discontent. Henry appointed him his ambassador at the court of Brussels to receive the oath of the archduke to the peace of Vervins. The Spanish court seized this op-



portunity to dazzle him with festivals, spectacles, and honours; the female arts of seduction were put in practice, and the weak Biron promised to join the catholics, whenever they should rise again. In 1599 he concluded an agreement with the duke of Savoy and the count of Fuentes, by which he pledged himself to take up arms against his benefactor. Meanwhile, war being declared against the duke of Savoy, Biron saw himself reduced to the necessity of attacking him. For fear that his understanding with the duke should become visible, he possessed himself of almost all the towns in the duchy, which was the easier because Emanuel had expected some forbearance on his part. Fuentes and the duke ventured to propose to Biron that he should deliver the person of the king into their hands; but he refused. Their suggestions, however, were not without effect upon him, and, while engaged in the siege of the fort St. Catherine, in the vicinity of Genoa, having reason to believe that the king would come to inspect the trenches, he sent word to the governor to dispose of his harquebussiers so as to fire on him at a certain signal. At the decisive moment, however, he prevented the king from going to the fatal spot. In 1601 peace was made with Savoy. So many negotiations had not, however, escaped the eye of the king, nor could he remain ignorant of their object. He therefore interrogated the marshal as to his designs, with promises of pardon. Biron made a partial confession, but continued his intrigues as before. Notwithstanding this, Henry sent him, in the same year, to Queen Elizabeth of England, to inform her of his marriage with Maria of Medici. In the mean time, Biron's confidant Lafin, having become suspected by the count of Fuentes, and beginning to fear for himself, discovered the whole plot. A frank confession and repentance would have saved Biron, as Henry was inclined to forgive him. But he persevered in his denial, rejected the offers of pardon, and was, therefore, at the urgent entreaties of the queen, at last surrendered to the rigour of the laws. Upon leaving the king's room, he was arrested, carried to the Bastille, tried before the parliament, and beheaded, July 31, 1602.

**BISCHOFSWERDER, JOHN RUDOLPH VON**, a Prussian general and minister, who was born in Saxony in 1756, and was admitted into the Prussian service in 1760, and appointed major in 1779. Under Frederic William II. he exercised an unlimited influence at the court of Berlin. Indeed the attachment which he had shown Frederic William, while yet crown-prince, procured him the lasting affection of that monarch. As plenipotentiary, he took a great part in the congress at Sistova. He afterwards effected the interview with Lord Elgin, at Pilnitz. After the king's death, he was dismissed, and died at his country seat, in the neighbourhood of Berlin, in 1803.

**BISSET, ROBERT**, a Scottish writer of some celebrity who took the degree of LL.D., and became a schoolmaster at Chelsea. But, not succeeding in that occupation, he employed himself in writing for the press. His principal works are—a "History of the Reign of George III." in six vols. 8vo., "The Life of Edmund Burke," in two volumes, and an edition of the spectators with Lives of the authors, in six volumes. He died in 1805 in the forty-sixth year of his age.

**BITAUBE, PAUL JEREMIAH**.—This distinguished scholar was born at Königsberg, in Prussia,

in 1732, of French parents. One of his first efforts was the translation of Homer into French. In consequence of this translation, and the recommendation of d'Alembert, he was elected a member of the Academy at Berlin. Frederic II., king of Prussia, favoured him much, and allowed him to stay a long time in France, to finish several translations from the German into French. Napoleon conferred marks of favour on him. He died in 1808. His works afterwards appeared at Paris, in 1814.

**BLACK, JOSEPH**.—This eminent chemist was born on the banks of the Garonne in France. He was educated at Glasgow, where he acquired a knowledge of chemistry under Dr. Cullen. In 1754 he was made doctor of medicine at Edinburgh, and delivered an inaugural dissertation on magnesia, which exhibits the outline of his discoveries relative to carbonic acid and the alkalies.

In 1756 he published his "Experiments on Quicklime, and several other Alkaline Substances," in the second volume of the Essays, Physical and Literary, of the Edinburgh Society. He demonstrates the existence of an aerial fluid in these substances, which he calls *fixed air*, the presence of which diminishes the corrosive power of the alkalies and the calcareous earths. This discovery may be considered as the basis of all those which have immortalized the names of Cavendish, Priestley, Lavoisier, &c., and given a new form to chemistry. In 1757 he enriched this science with his doctrine of latent heat, which has led to such important results.

Dr. Black continued in the university of Glasgow from 1756 to 1766, much respected as an eminent professor, much employed as an able and most attentive physician, and much beloved as an amiable and accomplished gentleman, and happy in the enjoyment of a small but select society of friends. Often, however, says Dr. Robinson, have I seen how oppressive his medical duties were on his spirits, when he saw that all his efforts did not alleviate the sufferings of the distressed. When his dear friend Dr. Dick, professor of natural philosophy, was carried off, Dr. Black's distress indeed was exceedingly great, particularly as he thought that another mode of treatment might have been more successful.

In 1766 Dr. Cullen was appointed professor of medicine in the university of Edinburgh, and thus a vacancy was made in the chemical chair of that university. Dr. Black was with universal consent appointed his successor. In this new scene his talents were more conspicuous, and more extensively useful. He saw this, and, while he could not but be highly gratified by the great concourse of pupils which the high reputation of the medical school of Edinburgh brought to his lectures, his mind was forcibly impressed by the importance of his duties as a teacher. This had an effect which, perhaps, was on the whole rather unfortunate. He directed his whole attention to his lectures, and his object was to make them so plain that they should be adapted to the capacity of the most illiterate of his hearers. The improvement of the science seems to have been laid aside by him altogether in his lectures. Never did any man succeed more completely. His pupils were not only instructed, but delighted, and many became his pupils merely in order to be pleased.

The death of Dr. Black was as calm as his life had been temperate and abstemious. On the 26th of November 1799, and in the seventy-first year of



his age, he expired without any convulsions, shock, or stupor, to announce or retard the approach of death. Being at table with his usual fare, some bread, a few prunes, and a measured quantity of milk diluted with water, and having the cup in his hand, when the last stroke of the pulse was given, he set it down on his knees, which were joined together, and keep it steady with his hand in the manner of a person perfectly at ease, and in this attitude expired without spilling a drop, and without a writhe in his countenance, as if an experiment had been required to show to his friends the facility with which he departed. His servant opened the door to tell him that some one had left his name, but, receiving no answer, stepped about half way towards him, and seeing him in that easy posture, supporting his basin of milk with one hand, he thought that he had dropped asleep which sometimes happened after his meals. He went back and shut the door, but, before he went down-stairs, some anxiety which he could not account for made him return again and look at his master. Even then he was satisfied after coming pretty near him, and turned to go away, but returning again and coming up close to him he found him without life. Dr. Black's lectures were published in 1803.

**BLACKLOCK, THOMAS**, a very eminent Scottish poet, remarkable for his literary attainments under the misfortunes of a deprivation of sight. He was born at Annon, in the county of Dumfries, in 1721. His parents who were natives of Cumberland, although poor, were industrious and well-informed. At the age of six months he lost his sight by the small-pox, and, as he grew up, his father with exemplary industry and affection endeavoured to lessen his calamity by reading to him such books as instructed or entertained him, when he always appeared to be particularly pleased with the works of Spenser, Milton, Prior, Pope and Addison. Such was the kindness his peculiar situation and gentle temper excited that he was seldom without some companion, who aided in his singular course of education until he had even acquired some knowledge of the Latin tongue.

At the age of twelve young Blacklock began to versify, and his performances at length became the subject of discourse in his neighbourhood. At the age of twenty, he lost his father, on which he was invited by Doctor Stephenson, a physician in Edinburgh, to visit that metropolis in order to pursue his studies at the university. He soon became a proficient in Latin, as also in French, which he chiefly acquired by conversation with a French lady, the wife of Provost Alexander. He also, in the course of nearly ten years' study at the university, made a considerable progress in the sciences. In 1754 he published a second edition of his poems, which gained him the patronage of Mr. Spence, who published an account of his life, character, and productions, which brought him into general notice; and, a quarto edition of his poems being soon afterwards published by subscription, a considerable sum was thereby raised for his benefit.

He now devoted himself to the study of theology, and having passed through the usual course was licensed in 1759 by the presbytery of Dumfries. In 1762 he married the daughter of Mr. Johnson, surgeon of Dumfries, a connection which proved to him a source of comfort and felicity for the remainder

of his life. He was soon after appointed minister of Kirkcudbright, on the presentation of the earl of Selkirk; but, being opposed by his parishioners, after two years' contention he resigned his living upon a moderate annuity, and retired to Edinburgh, where he adopted the plan of receiving a few students of the university as boarders, and of assisting them in their studies when desirable. In 1766 he was created doctor in divinity, and, having now taken a respectable station among the literati of Scotland, he maintained it by various publications until his death, which occurred in July, 1791. His private character, according to the testimony of Hume and others, was singularly amiable. Letters and conversation were his solace, to which he joined the practice of music. His poetry is easy, polished, and harmonious; and he composed with considerable rapidity. The number of his images from visual objects will surprise those who are not aware of the uniform strain of imitation common in the best poetry. Blacklock wrote besides several prose works.

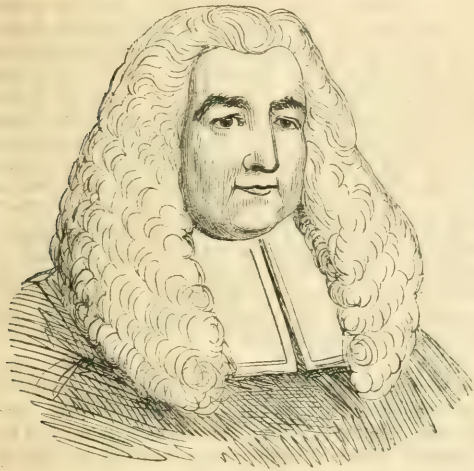
**BLACKMORE, SIR RICHARD**, an English physician of eminence. He was the son of an attorney in the county of Wiltshire, and in 1668 entered the university of Oxford. There he remained thirteen years, and, for some time afterwards, appears to have followed the profession of a schoolmaster. At length he turned his attention to physic. In 1697 he had risen to so much eminence in his profession as to be appointed physician to King William, who knighted him. The preceding year he had made himself known as a poet, by the publication of his heroic poem of Prince Arthur, which was soon followed by King Arthur; and in 1700 he published a paraphrase of the book of Job in folio; as also a poem entitled a "Satire on Wit," being an attempt to retort on the wits by whom he had been very successfully assailed. By the strictness of his whiggish principles, he had incurred the resentment of the tory junto, composed of Swift, Pope, Arbuthnot and others; while something pedantically solemn in the complexion of his religion and morality ensured the raillery of all those to whom his gravity afforded so much subject for ridicule.

This worthy man and middling poet became the common butt of his day, and for almost two generations, for Pope took up the quarrel which Dryden began. The work which produced him the greatest reputation was the "Creation," a poem in seven books which went through several editions, and was greatly applauded, but is, generally speaking, very tamely elaborate. In 1721 Blackmore published a "New Version of the Psalms of David," which, although recommended by authority, has never been adopted. He died at an advanced in 1729, leaving behind him the name of a pious, well-meaning, and respectable man of limited genius and little taste. Besides the epics already mentioned, he wrote "Eliza," in ten books; the "Redeemer," in six books; "King Alfred," twelve books, &c. He also composed a "History of King William III," and several medical and theological treatises, especially against the Arians, all of which have quietly reached oblivion.

**BLACKSTONE, SIR WILLIAM.**—This celebrated English lawyer may be justly considered as the most popular writer on the laws and constitution of this country. He was born in London in 1723, and was educated on the foundation of the charter-house, whence in



1738 he was removed to Pembroke College, Oxford. He was much distinguished both at school and at the university, and at an early age compiled a work for his own use, entitled the "Elements of Architecture," which has been much praised. Having chosen the profession of the law, he was in due time entered at the Middle Temple, and on this occasion published the admired verses called the "Lawyer's Farewell to his Muse," which appeared in "Doddley's Miscellany."



In 1743 he was elected fellow of All Soul's College, Oxford, and in 1746 was called to the bar, and commenced the practice of law. Being deficient in elocution, and not possessed of the popular talents of an advocate, his progress was slow. Having attended the courts of law at Westminster for seven years, without success, he determined to quit the practice of his profession and retire to his fellowship at Oxford. The system of education in the English universities supplying no provision for teaching the laws and constitution of the country, Blackstone undertook to remedy this defect by a course of lectures on that important subject; and the manner in which he executed the task has conferred a lasting distinction on Oxford. His first course was delivered in 1753, and was repeated for a series of years with increasing effect and reputation. These lectures doubtless suggested to Mr. Viner the idea of founding, by his will, a liberal establishment in the university of Oxford for the study of the common law; and Blackstone was with great propriety chosen the first Vinerian professor. His engagements at Oxford did not prevent his occasional practice as a provincial barrister; and in 1754, being engaged as counsel in a contested election for the county of Oxford, he was led into a consideration of the elective franchise, which produced his work entitled "Considerations on Copyholds." In this treatise he denied the right of copyholders to vote as freeholders, which led to a declaratory act of parliament in establishment of that narrow doctrine. In 1759 he published a new edition of the "Great Charter and Charter of the Forest," with a historical preface; and, during the same year, the reputation which he had obtained by his lectures induced him to resume his attendance at

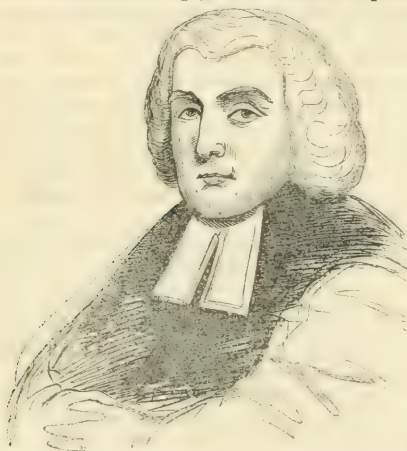
Westminster Hall, when business and the honours of his profession soon crowded in upon him. In 1761 he was elected M.P. for Hindon, and made king's counsel and solicitor-general to the queen. About this time he also married, and, thereby losing his fellowship, was appointed principal of New Inn Hall, which office, with the Vinerian professorship, he resigned the next year.

In 1765 Blackstone published the first volume of his "Commentaries on the Laws of England," a work of greater merit than any which had yet appeared on this subject. In this celebrated production, the author does not confine himself to the humble duty of an expositor, but aspires to the higher character of a philosophical writer on jurisprudence; and, having been preceded by no authors in the same walk, his manner of accomplishing his task is entitled to great praise. It must not, however, be regarded as a philosophical investigation into the grounds and merits of the English laws and constitution, so much as an elegant exposition and defence of an existing system. Whatever he found instituted, it was his purpose to support and eulogize; and consequently we are rather made acquainted with the "Legal Reasons" of what is established than instructed in the general principles of national legislation. This mode of treating the subject may be, in some degree, useful, by conveying a due notion of the grounds on which government and usage have proceeded, but of course will do little to advance the mind of a nation, and often a great deal to nurture prejudices and impede amelioration.

Notwithstanding some passages against standing armies, and an exposition of the progress of the influence of the crown, Blackstone is uniformly the advocate of prerogative, and very confined in his notions of toleration. On the latter ground he was involved, on the publication of his Commentaries, in a controversy with Priestley; and, some years afterwards, his political principles were assailed with much acuteness in a publication entitled a "Fragment on Government," now known to be the work of Mr. Jeremy Bentham. In the debates which took place on the Middlesex election, in relation to the re-eligibility of an expelled member, he was led to language in parliament, against the tenour of which Mr. James Grenville with great adroitness quoted his own book, and he was also warmly attacked for the same inconsistency by Junius. The real merit and talents of Blackstone, backed by political tendencies, which are generally favourable to advancement, now made him an object of ministerial favour, and he was offered the post of solicitor-general, in 1770, and, declining it, was made one of the justices of common pleas, which station he held until his death in February 1780, in his fifty-seventh year. The private character of Blackstone was exceedingly mild, benevolent, and amiable; and he was a most active and intelligent man of business, in which indeed he all his life delighted. He left in MS. two volumes of reports, which have been published since his death, and in 1784 a monument was erected to his memory, in the College of All-Souls, Oxford. The arms of Blackstone were also placed in one of the windows of the chapel. There is a voluminous and well-written life of this eminent lawyer, from the pen of his brother-in-law, Mr. Clitherow, which was originally annexed to his "Reports."

**BLACKWELL, THOMAS.**—This learned divine was educated in the university of Aberdeen, and chosen Greek professor in 1723. His chief work is entitled an "Enquiry into the Life and Writings of Homer." He died at Edinburgh 1757.

**BLAIR, HUGH,** a pulpit orator and author. He was a grandson of Robert Blair, who, under Charles I., boldly defended the rights of the Presbyterian church, was born at Edinburgh in 1718, and prepared himself for the ministry in the university of that city. His teachers, struck by an essay on the "Beautiful," encouraged his inclination for belles-lettres. He was made preacher of the High Church of Edinburgh in 1758. The office was regarded as the highest dignity of the Presbyterian church of Scotland. About the same time his literary reputation also commenced. In 1759 he began a course of public lectures on composition, which he delivered with so much reputation, that in 1762 the king founded a professorship of rhetoric and belles-lettres, which was committed to his charge. The credit of Macpherson's Ossian was zealously supported by Blair, in a dissertation which gained him much reputation.



His sermons were considered as models of English pulpit eloquence. Careful and scrupulous as he was in writing them, he only published the best. They are distinguished by a polished style, and a clear, easy, and methodical exposition. The first volume of his sermons was not published until his sixtieth year, and the tenth edition was called for in the following year. He subsequently published another collection, which was also often reprinted. Dr. Blair gave weight to his doctrines by his own example. He laboured for the welfare of his church, and was always ready to give counsel and assistance. He was a kind father, an affectionate friend and husband, and by his tranquil and contented temper, as well as by his simple and regular manner of living, enjoyed the highest degree of human happiness to a great age.

*Hugh Blair*

His health was good to the time of his decease, and the above fac-simile will show the character of his hand-writing in his eighty-second year. He died in 1800.

**BLAIR, JOHN,** an eminent chronologist and geographer, a native of Scotland, which country he quitted for London about the middle of the last century. Though he had received a good classical education at Edinburgh, he thought himself fortunate in obtaining the situation of usher in a small school in London. In 1754 the publication of a work in folio, entitled the "Chronology and History of the World, from the Creation to A. D. 1753," gained him great reputation. In the composition of this book, he is said to have been materially assisted by his relation Doctor Hugh Blair. In it he illustrates his subject by fifty-six tables, four of which are introductory, containing the centuries which precede the first Olympiad. He dedicated his work to the Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, and in 1757 was appointed chaplain to the princess dowager of Wales, and mathematical tutor to the duke of York, whom he accompanied in 1763 on a tour to the continent, having already received several ecclesiastical preferments. On his return to England he published in 1768 a new edition of his "Chronological Tables," with fourteen maps of ancient and modern geography annexed. He died June 24, 1782, of an attack of influenza. After his death were published his "Course of Lectures on the Canon of the Old Testament," and a duodecimo volume, entitled the "History of Geography."

**BLAIR, ROBERT,** a celebrated Scottish poet. He was born at Edinburgh in 1699 and received a classical education in the university of that city. He was a good botanist as well as a poet, and his "Grave" forms a lasting monument of his skill in the latter capacity. He died in 1746.

**BLAKE, ROBERT,** a celebrated British admiral, was the eldest son of a merchant in the Spanish trade, settled at Bridgewater, where Robert Blake was born in 1599. After attending the grammar-school of his native place he was sent to Wadham College, Oxford, where he took the degree of B. A. in 1617. On his return to Bridgewater he lived for some time in a private manner on the fortune left him by his father, and was led by the gravity of his own disposition and by his family connections to embrace the principles of the Puritans, by whose interest he was elected member for Bridgewater in the parliament of 1640. This being soon dissolved he lost his election for the next, and immediately sought to advance the cause in a military capacity in the war which then broke out between the king and parliament.

Blake soon distinguished himself by his activity. In 1649, in the manner of those times, when military men often served on shipboard, he was sent to command the fleet in conjunction with colonels Deane and Popham, and thus commenced the naval career which has given him so distinguished a place in British history. He immediately sailed to Kinsale in quest of Prince Rupert, whom he attempted to block up in that port. The prince, contriving to get his fleet out, escaped to Lisbon, where Blake followed him; and, being refused permission to attack him in the Tagus by the king of Portugal, he took several rich prizes from the Portuguese (against whom the parliament declared war), and followed Rupert to Malaga, where, without asking permission of Spain, he attacked him and nearly destroyed the whole of his fleet. On his return to England he was made warden of the Cinque Ports, and soon after reduced the islands of Scilly and Guernsey



In 1659, on the prospect of a Dutch war, he was made sole admiral, and, on the 19th of May, was attacked in the Downs by Van Tromp, with a fleet of forty-five sail, the force of Blake amounting only to twenty-three. He, however, fought so bravely that Van Tromp was obliged to retreat. He then continued his cruise, took a number of Dutch merchantmen, and, after several partial actions, drove the enemy into their harbour, and returned to the Downs. May 29, he was again attacked by Van Tromp, whose fleet was now increased to eighty sail. Blake, who could not bear the thought of a retreat, engaged this vast force with a very inferior number, and an unfavourable wind; but, after every possible exertion, was obliged to retreat into the Thames, on which Van Tromp was so much elated that he sailed through the channel with a broom at his mast head, to signify that he had swept the sea of British ships.

In the February following, Blake, having with great diligence repaired his fleet, put to sea with sixty sail, and soon after met the Dutch admiral, who had seventy sail, and 300 merchantmen under convoy. During three days, a furious running fight up the channel was maintained with obstinate valour on both sides, the result of which was the loss of eleven men-of-war and thirty merchant-ships by the Dutch, while that of the English was only one man-of-war. It was in April, this year, that Cromwell assumed the protectorship, on which occasion Blake and his brother admirals issued a declaration that, notwithstanding this change, they resolved to persist in faithfully performing their duty to the nation. "It is not for us (said Blake to his officers) to mind state affairs, but to keep the foreigners from fooling us." June 3rd, he again engaged Van Tromp with dubious success; but, renewing the action the next day, he forced the Dutch to retire, with a considerable loss in ships and men, into their own harbours. On his return, he was received by Cromwell with great respect, and returned member in the new parliament for Bridgewater. Aware of his affection for a republican government, the protector was not displeased at having occasion to send him, with a strong fleet, to enforce a due respect to the English flag in the Mediterranean. He sailed first to Algiers, which submitted, and then demolished the castles of Goletta and Porto Ferino, at Tunis, because the dey refused to deliver up the English captives. A squadron of his ships also blocked up Cadiz, and intercepted a Spanish plate fleet. Blake, being now in a state of great debility, resolved to do one more service to his country before his death, and sailed, with twenty-four ships, to Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe; and, notwithstanding the strength of the place, burnt the ships of another Spanish fleet, which had taken shelter there, and, by a fortunate change of wind, came out without loss. His brother having failed in some part of duty during this service, he immediately removed him from his command. Finding his disorder making rapid progress, he then sailed for England, and, amidst his frequent enquiries for the sight of the English coast, expired while the fleet was entering Plymouth Sound, August 27, 1657. His body was honoured with a magnificent public funeral, and interred in Henry VII.'s chapel, whence it was removed at the restoration, and buried in St. Margaret's church-yard.

The foregoing brief details sufficiently evince the

bravery and talents of this able commander, who first deviated from the old practice of keeping ships and men as much out of danger as possible, and gave the example of bold and spirited achievement. So disinterested was he that, after all his rich captures and high posts, he scarcely left behind him 500*l.* of acquired property, freely sharing all with his friends and seamen, into whom he infused that intrepidity and spirit of enterprise by which the British navy has been ever since so highly distinguished.

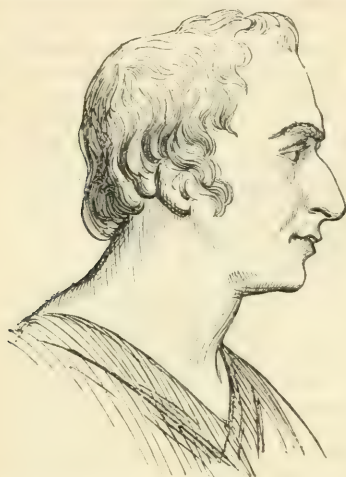
BLANCHARD, FRANCOIS.—This eminent French *aéronaut* was born at Andelys, in the department of the Eure, in 1738. He was fond of mechanics from his youth, and, in his sixteenth year, invented a self-moving carriage, in which he rode a distance of eighteen miles. This invention, which he improved in 1778, recommended him to the court of Versailles. He displayed equal ingenuity by the invention of a hydraulic machine, in the nineteenth year of his age, and afterwards in the construction of a flying ship, which, by means of a counterpoise of six pounds, was raised to more than twenty feet from the ground. He eagerly availed himself of the discoveries of the brothers Montgolfier, and made his first *aérostatic* voyage, March 4, 1784. He crossed the channel from Dover to Calais, in 1785. He was accompanied by Doctor Jeffries, a gentleman of Boston, in the United States of America. For this exploit, he was rewarded, by the king of France, with a present of 12,000 francs, and a pension of 1200. In the same year he first made use of a parachute, invented by him, or, according to others, by Etienne Montgolfier. After having performed many *aérostatic* voyages in foreign countries also, he was accused of propagating revolutionary principles, and imprisoned in 1793, in the fortress of Kufstein, in the Tyrol. Having obtained his liberty, he made his forty-sixth ascent in the city of New York, in 1796. In 1798 he ascended, with sixteen persons, in a large balloon, at Rouen, and descended at a place fifteen miles distant. In 1807 his *aérostatic* voyages amounted to more than sixty-six, and he died in 1809. Madame Blanchard continued to make *aërial* voyages. In 1811 she ascended in Rome, and, after going a distance of sixty miles, she rose again to proceed to Naples. In June, 1819, having ascended from Tivoli, in Paris, her balloon took fire, at a considerable height, owing to some fire-works which she carried with her. The car fell down in the rue de Provence, and the hapless *aéronaut* was dashed to pieces.

BLAKE, WILLIAM, a very talented English artist, who but for his strange eccentricity of character might have equalled Fuseli in the power and originality of his delineations. His most extraordinary work is a series of designs for Blair's "Grave." Notwithstanding his great talents, he lived in a state of the greatest penury, and died in absolute want, August 13th 1827, aged sixty-eight. He was a man of amiable disposition, and much attached to his wife, who herself possessed considerable talents as a colourist.

BLAYNEY, DR. BENJAMIN, a learned theologian and biblical critic. He was educated at Oxford, where he held the chair of Hebrew professor. Dr. Blayney's translations of the prophetic books of the Bible have considerable merit, but he is best known as the editor of the Oxford Bible, printed in 1769.

BLIZARD, SIR WILLIAM.—This eminent sur-

geon and philanthropist deserves a more extensive notice than the nature of our biographical articles usually permit. He was emphatically termed the "head of his profession;" and if unwearied attention to its scientific details, and a life longer than usually falls to the lot of man devoted to the benefit of his fellow creatures, entitle any one to that high honour, assuredly Sir William Blizard deserved the proud distinction. He was born at Barnes Elms, in Surrey, in the year 1743, and he commenced his professional studies under a medical gentleman who practised at Mortlake. We soon find him pursuing his labours under the most eminent lecturers in London, and, after having been elected surgeon to the Magdalen, he was in 1780 appointed to the same office in the London Hospital. Of this establishment Sir William at once became the effective head and prime mover. He founded within its walls a medical school, which had produced many very eminent surgeons, and which is peculiarly well fitted for the diffusion of useful knowledge. It may be proper to add that the funds for the erection of the necessary buildings were in a great measure supplied by himself.



Among the numerous pupils who were mainly indebted to Sir William for their professional knowledge and subsequent advancement in life, we may especially notice Mr. Abernethy, who thus expresses his grateful sense of the obligation. "In succeeding Sir William Blizard in the honourable office of Professor of Anatomy and Surgery, I think it right to inform my audience that he was my earliest instructor in those sciences, and that I am indebted to him for much and most valuable information respecting them. My warmest thanks are due to him for the interest he excited in my mind towards those studies, and for the excellent advice he gave me, in common with other students, to direct me in the attainment of knowledge."

With regard to Sir William's professional skill, we have the best authority for saying that "as a practitioner he was discriminating and decided in forming his opinions, energetic and skilful in the application of his means, and studious of as much simplicity as possible." But it was in the still higher offices of charity that Sir William stood out as a "bright and shining light" in his profession. "When called

into scenes of suffering, or to the infliction of pain in operative surgery, he was never insensible to the sympathy and kindness of the man. He had often the satisfaction to notice how the kind and sympathizing word appeared to mitigate anguish, and to inspire with fresh courage under the required incision,—and the gratitude subsequently felt for the kindness of the manner was sometimes more prominent, in the acknowledgments of the patient, than for the dexterity and success of the operation."

The "Samaritan Society," a most important appendage to the London Hospital, was founded by Sir William Blizard, who with his amiable lady were unceasing in their exertions for its extension and usefulness. By the aid of this establishment, the convalescent but poor and destitute patient is at once provided with those means of support which the late denizen of a sick-bed so peculiarly needs; and the labour of love which had thus commenced in the exercise of his profession was not ended till it had assisted in placing the patient within the reach of comfortable support.

Sir William was professor of anatomy to the old Corporation of Surgeons, an office that he also held in the present Royal College, of which he was twice president. He also enriched the museum in Lincoln's Inn Fields by the voluntary gift of about 900 anatomical preparations.

As a poet and prose writer, Sir William Blizard attained considerable eminence; but religion and charity were the usual subjects of his pen, and his professional labours in a literary point of view are not of a very important character. His autograph, as it appeared in his ninetieth year, is carefully copied in the subjoined sketch.

*William Blizard*

Sir William Blizard resided for many years in Devonshire Square, but he afterwards carried on his professional duties at the house of his nephew and successor, Mr. Blizard Curling, a gentleman of great promise as a surgeon and anatomist. Soon after Sir William had attained his ninetieth year, his sight began to fail him, and it was found necessary, towards the close of 1834, to extract the lens of the right eye. This operation was performed by Mr. Lawrence with the most perfect success, and he was afterwards enabled to read with perfect ease. The warm feelings of the veteran poet sufficiently attest his gratitude for this signal blessing. We can only select two passages from the poem.

"Hush! blessed impress! 'sight suddenly restored!  
Prostrate, I breathe thanksgiving, gracious Lord!  
The face of nature, sun-gilt world, to see,  
Revives each fibrous sense of function free.

Science, and art, thus point th' adapted way,  
Which their true vot'ries faithfully obey.  
Whence this memorial—whence my grateful soul,  
Would raise its faculties without control!  
Thy mercy, God! beams through my lengthen'd days!  
Receive my fervent homage! thanks! and praise!"

But the end of this great and good man was now fast approaching, and, though the spirit that animated the bodily machine remained perfect, the machine itself was speedily to return to its native dust. He had for some time experienced a difficulty of breath-



ing whenever any great effort was required, and this difficulty of respiration gradually increased. Sir William attended the court of examiners at the Royal College a week before his death, and from that time the symptoms became more urgent, but a strong sense of public duty actuated him to the last, and he dictated a letter to the president of the college a few hours before his death.

Sir William breathed his last on Friday August 28th, 1835, and his last hour afforded a powerful moral lesson on the utility of a well-spent life. Calm and collected to the moment of dissolution, the death-bed of the enlightened Christian philosopher was marked by the most exemplary resignation to the fiat of that power which had so long surrounded him by domestic blessings of no ordinary kind. Most of the public bodies with which Sir William Blizard was connected expressed their regret for his loss, but our space will only permit us to put on record the following unanimous resolution of the Council of the Royal College of Surgeons. After describing the length and value of his services, the resolution goes on to say that "during this protracted period he filled all the important offices of the college, as member of the council, of the Court of Examiners, of the Board of Curators, and of the various committees of the college of which he was twice president. In all these public duties his assiduity and zeal were ever conspicuous, and perhaps never surpassed. The members of the council, deeply impressed with the sense of these services, thus record their homage to the memory of their highly valued colleague."

They further resolved, "That such report be approved, and that a copy be transmitted to Lady Blizard, with the condolence of the members of this Council." The remains of Sir William were interred in the new church at Brixton, and his highly intellectual and amiable widow purposes erecting a lasting monument to his memory; but we may with truth add that his own works of charity and scientific skill form the best and most imperishable memento of his worth. Sir William Blizard's funeral was attended by the President of the Royal College of Surgeons, and a long list of the most eminent men in the profession.

**BLOCH.**—There have been several eminent persons of this name, but the most distinguished was a German naturalist, who published a treatise on fishes. It was published in 1785, and contains a vast fund of information.

**BLOEMART, ABRAHAM**, a celebrated Dutch painter. This artist as well as his son Cornelius were well skilled in engraving. Their works are much admired but have now become scarce. Abraham Bloemart was born in 1564, and his son in 1603.

**BLOMEFIELD, FRANCIS** an English topographical writer of some celebrity. His "History of Norfolk" is a voluminous and valuable book, but it partakes of many of the faults of that class of writers whose works appeared prior to the sterling productions of Messrs. Britton and Brayley, who may be said to have formed a new era in topographical writing.

**BLOMFIELD, EDWARD VALENTINE**, brother to Dr. Blomfield the present bishop of London, was born in 1788, studied in Caius College, at Cambridge, and excited the highest expectations. Among several prizes which he received, we may mention the medal assigned him, in 1809, for his beautiful

ode, "in Desiderium Porsoni. In 1812 a fellowship in Emmanuel College was conferred on him. In 1813 he visited Germany, where he acquired a good knowledge of the German language, and became acquainted with Wolf in Berlin, and Schneider in Breslau. After his return, he wrote in the "Museum Criticum, or Cambridge Classical Researches," remarks on German literature, which were received with high approbation. The university of Cambridge appointed him one of the preachers at St. Mary's Church. He began a translation of Schneider's "Griechisch-deutsches Lexicon," but did not live to finish it. Matthiæ's "Griechische Grammatik," however, he translated completely. His translation was published by his brother, and every where well received. He was in Switzerland, in 1816, with his pupil, a young nobleman, and in his haste to return to Cambridge, on hearing that he was appointed proctor for the following year, the fatigue of rapid travelling occasioned a sickness, of which he died in October, 1816.

**BLOOD, THOMAS.**—This notorious individual was a disbanded officer in Cromwell's army, and became celebrated for his crimes and his good fortune. His first known act of importance was an endeavour to surprise the castle of Dublin, which he was prevented from executing by the vigilance of the duke of Ormond. He afterwards made an attempt on the life of the duke, but was prevented by the timely arrival of the duke's servants. The assassin was not then discovered, but shortly after he tried to steal the jewels of the crown, but was foiled by the officers in attendance. When questioned, he frankly avowed the enterprize; but refused to discover his accomplices. "The fear of death (he said) should never induce him either to deny a guilt or betray a friend." All these extraordinary circumstances made him the general subject of conversation: and the king was moved with an idle curiosity to see and speak with a person so noted for his courage and his crimes. Blood might now esteem himself secure of pardon; and he wanted not address to improve the opportunity. He told Charles that he had been engaged with others in a design to kill him with a carabine above Battersea, where his majesty often went to bathe,—that the cause of this resolution was the severity exercised over the consciences of the godly, in restraining the liberty of their religious assemblies,—that when he had taken his stand among the reeds, full of these bloody resolutions, he found his heart checked with an awe of majesty, and he not only relented himself, but diverted his associates from their purpose,—that he had long ago brought himself to an entire indifference about life, which he now gave up for lost, yet he could not forbear warning the king of the danger which might attend his execution,—that his associates had bound themselves, by the strictest oaths, to revenge the death of any of their confederacy, and that no precaution nor power could secure any one from the effects of their desperate resolutions. Whether these considerations excited fear or admiration in the king, they confirmed his resolution of granting a pardon to Blood: and, what is yet more extraordinary, Charles carried his kindness so far as to grant him an estate of 500*l.* a-year. He also showed him great countenance; and while Edwards the warder, who had been wounded in defending the crown and regalia, was neglected, this man, who deserved only to be detested as a monster, became a kind of favourite.—Blood enjoyed his pen-

sion about ten years, till, being charged with fixing an imputation of a scandalous nature on the duke of Buckingham, he was thrown into prison, where he died August 24, 1680.

**BLOOMFIELD, ROBERT.**—This peculiarly English poet was born at Honington in 1766. He was the son of a tailor, who died when Robert was only six months old. In 1781 he was sent to London, to learn the art of shoemaking from his brother, and his personal appearance at this period is thus affectionately described by that kind relative:—"I have him in my mind's eye, a little boy not bigger than boys generally are at twelve years old. When I met him and his mother at the inn (in Bishopsgate Street), he strutted before us, dressed just as he came from keeping sheep, hogs, &c.; his shoes filled full of stumps in the heels. He, looking about him, slipped up: his nails were unused to a flat pavement. I remember viewing him as he scampered up—how small he was! Little I thought that that fatherless boy would be one day known and esteemed by the most learned, the most respected, the wisest, and the best men of the kingdom." Young Bloomfield became almost unconsciously a poet. Hearing him one day repeat a song which he had composed, his astonished brother prevailed on him to offer it to the London Magazine: he did so, and the verses were accepted. This little poem was called "The Milk Maid." Emboldened by his success, he soon produced another piece entitled "The Sailor's Return." In December 1790, Robert Bloomfield married, and soon after went to reside in Bell Alley, Coleman Street. The landlord of the house kindly permitted him to work in an unoccupied garret in the house, and it was there that he composed his "Farmer's Boy."



The manner in which this beautiful poem was composed affords an instance of disregard of difficulty, and of extraordinary powers of arrangement and retention, not to be surpassed in the history of genius. Either from the contracted state of his finances, or for some other reason, Robert Bloomfield actually composed the latter part of his "Autumn," and the whole of his "Winter" in his head, without committing a single line to paper. But that was not all: he went a step further. He not only composed and committed that part of his work to his memory, but

he corrected it all in his head; so that, as he himself said, when it was thus prepared, "he had nothing to do but to write it down."

When completely transferred to paper, which was in the year 1798, Robert felt a strong anxiety, tinged with a justifiable pride that it should meet the eye of his mother in print. Stimulated by this filial and amiable motive, he offered it to several London booksellers of eminence—but in vain. One of his applications was to the proprietor and editor of the *Monthly Magazine*, who, in his number for September, 1823, published the following account of the affair:—

"He brought his poems to our office; and though his unpolished appearance, his coarse hand-writing, and wretched orthography, afforded no prospect that his production could be printed, yet he found attention by his repeated calls, and by the humility of his expectations, which were limited to half a-dozen copies of the *Magazine*. At length, on his name being announced when a literary gentleman, particularly conversant in rural economy happened to be present, the poem was formally re-examined, and its general aspect excited the risibility of that gentleman in so pointed a manner that Bloomfield was called into the room, and exhorted not to waste his time, and neglect his employment, in making vain attempts, and particularly in treading on the ground which Thomson had sanctified. His earnestness and confidence, however, led the editor to advise him to consult his countryman, Mr. Capel Lofft, of Troston, to whom he gave him a letter of introduction. On his departure, the gentleman present warmly complimented the editor on the sound advice which he had given 'the poor fellow;' and it was mutually conceived that an industrious man was thereby likely to be saved from a ruinous infatuation."

Foiled for a time, but not disheartened, Bloomfield despatched the poem in its manuscript state to Suffolk, for the inspection of his mother and his friends. Some of the latter also urging its being sent to Mr. Capel Lofft, a gentleman long celebrated in the republic of letters for his numerous attainments, and not less known among his neighbours and friends for his benevolence and kindness of heart, happily for all parties it was transmitted to him in November, 1798, by Mr. George Bloomfield, with a request that he would read it, and communicate his opinion upon it.

Mr. Lofft kindly entered into the views of the author, and corrected the whole, without substantially altering a line of the poem.

An able and elegant preface having been furnished by the friendly pen of Mr. Lofft, containing, among other matter, an interesting account of the boyish days of Robert Bloomfield, communicated by his excellent brother George, a critique on his production, and a high and deserved eulogy on his personal character,—*"The Farmer's Boy"* at length appeared; and so instant and complete was its triumph that the liberal publishers, Messrs. Vernor and Hood, extended their terms with the author, by giving him 200*l.* in addition to the fifty pounds originally stipulated for, and by securing to him a moiety of the copyright of his poem.

Among the distinguished individuals who expressed the gratification which the perusal of *"The Farmer's Boy"* had afforded them, one of the earliest was His Royal Highness the late duke of York, who



made the poet a liberal present in testimony of his approbation. The duke of Grafton also invited him to Wittlebury Forest, of which his grace was the ranger, settled upon him a gratuity of a shilling a day, and, about two years after his first appearance as an author, gave him the appointment of under sealer, in the seal office, a situation which his declining health compelled him subsequently to relinquish: the private allowance, however, after the death of his grace, was generously continued by the present duke. Local subscriptions were also entered into at Hadleigh, and elsewhere, for the purpose of testifying the high and general esteem entertained for Robert Bloomfield's poetical talents and personal virtues. But his greatest emoluments were derived from the sale of his work, of which, in a comparatively short space of time, above 40,000 copies were disposed of.

Mr. Bloomfield's finances having thus improved, he removed to better lodgings, and eventually took a cottage, near the Shepherd and Shepherdess, in the City Road. Here he worked for some years at his trade, and also made admirable Æolian harps, of which latter circumstance many liberal persons availed themselves, by purchasing harps at large prices, and thus delicately diminishing the obligation which a pecuniary gift might have been supposed to create.

Our space will not admit of more than a short extract illustrative of the style of this poet. It is descriptive of the frolics of a group of lambs at play, and its innocent simplicity argues well for the feelings of the author:—

"Like the fond dove from fearful prison freed,  
Each seems to say, 'Come, let us try our speed,'  
Away they scour; impetuous, ardent, strong,  
The green turf trembling as they bound along;  
Adown the slope, then up the hillock climb,  
Where every molehill is a bed of thyme;  
There panting stop, yet scarcely can refrain;  
A bird, a leaf, will set them off again:  
Or, if a gale with strength unusual blow,  
Scatt'ring the wild-brier roses into snow,  
Their little limbs increasing efforts try.  
Like the torn flower, the fair assemblage fly.  
Ah, fallen rose! sad emblem of their doom;  
Frail as thyself, they perish while they bloom!  
Though unoffending innocence may plead,  
Though frantic ewes may mourn the savage deed,  
Their shepherd comes, a messenger of blood,  
And drives them bleating from their sports and food.  
Care loads his brow; and pity wrings his heart;  
For lo, the murd'ring butcher with his cart  
Demands the firstlings of his flock to die,  
And makes a sport of life and liberty!"

Bloomfield continued his literary labours to the time of his death, which occurred August 19th, 1823. His remains were interred in a neighbouring churchyard, a spot having been selected for the purpose with reference to the wish expressed in the concluding lines of his charming little poem, called "Love of the Country":—

"O Heaven! permit that I may lie  
Where o'er my corse green branches wave,  
And those who from life's tumults fly  
With kindred feelings press my grave."

Besides his first and principal work, Bloomfield was the author of many poems, of which we may particularly enumerate his "Wild Flowers," and "Hazelwood Hall," a drama. In common with most men of genius, he had to struggle with many pecuniary embarrassments and ultimately died poor; but Bloomfield's poverty was not the result of improvidence. He was a kind, generous, and warm-

hearted being, and his liberality constantly drained his purse. His brothers were in humble circumstances; and he mainly supported their large families. In short, he went about doing good to all that had any claim on him, and "from him that would borrow he turned not away."

BLOUNT.—There were several distinguished individuals bearing this name in the seventeenth century. Thomas Blount, who was born in 1618 at Bardsley in Worcestershire, was the author of several celebrated works, amongst which we may mention, the "Academy of Eloquence," "The Lamps of the Law," "The Catholic Almanac for 1661," and a Law Dictionary, as the most celebrated of his works.

Sir Thomas Pope Blount was born at Upper Holloway in 1649, and was distinguished as a lover of political liberty and also as a patron of literature. His extensive acquaintance with the best writers in all ages appears in the "Censura," which he composed first for his own use and then published in several other languages for the benefit of the scholastic reader. He died at his seat at Tittenhanger in June, 1697. His "Censura Celebrium Authorum" was first published in London in 1690, his "Essays" in 1697, and his "Natural History" in 1693. He also published several other works, but they are of minor importance.

BLUCHER, LEBRECHT VON.—This distinguished commander was born at Rostock, December 16, 1742. When he was fourteen years of age, his father, a captain of horse in the service of Hesse-Cassel, sent him to the island of Rugen. Here the sight of some Swedish hussars excited in him the desire of becoming a soldier. His first campaign was against the Prussians, and he was taken prisoner by the same regiment of hussars which he afterwards commanded with so much honour. The commander of this regiment, colonel von Belling, induced him to enter into the Prussian service. An exchange was agreed upon with the Swedes, and he was made lieutenant in Belling's regiment; but he became discontented at the promotion of other officers over his head, and left the army.

After the death of Frederic II. Blucher became a major in his former regiment, which he commanded with distinction on the Rhine. Orchies, Luxemburg, Frankenstein, Oppenheim, Kirweiler, and Edesheim in the Palatinate, bear witness to his achievements. After the battle of Leystadt, which took place in September, 1794, he was appointed major-general of the army of observation stationed on the Lower Rhine. In 1802, in the name of the king of Prussia, he took possession of Erfurt and Muehlhausen. In October 1806 he fought at the battle of Auerstädt, and then, with the greater part of the cavalry, followed the retreat of the prince of Hohenlohe to Pomerania. His squadron, moving on the left of the main army, became separated from it so far that a junction was possible only by means of forced marches, both in the day time and at night. Blucher did not think himself authorised to venture upon the latter, and the prince of Hohenlohe was forced to surrender at Prenzlau.

Blucher, thus cut off from Stettin, threw himself into Mecklenburg, where he joined, at Dambeck, the corps of the duke of Weimar, commanded by prince William of Brunswick-Oels. All the troops, however, were too much fatigued to undertake any enterprise. Having the grand-duke of Berg on his left flank.

the prince of Pontecorvo in his front, and marshal Soult on his right, Blucher was obliged to take post behind the Trave, in order to draw off the three great divisions of the French forces from the Oder as long as possible—and with this view he entered into the territory of the free city of Lubeck. This city was soon stormed by the overwhelming power of the French. Although Blucher with some troops, escaped out of the city, yet, being deprived of all means of defending himself, or continuing his flight, he was obliged to surrender at Rathau, on the 6th of November. This, however, he would not do, until permission had been granted him to add the following clause to the instrument, that “the capitulation was offered to him by the prince of Pontecorvo, and that he accepted it only from want of ammunition, provisions, and forage.” Blucher was now a prisoner of war; but he was soon exchanged for the French general Victor, and immediately after his arrival at Königsberg placed at the head of a corps, and sent by water to Swedish Pomerania, to share in the defence of Stralsund, and to assist the efforts of the Swedes. After the peace of Tilsit, he laboured in the department of war at Königsberg and Berlin. He then received the chief military command in Pomerania, but, at the instigation of Napoleon, was afterwards, with several other distinguished men, dismissed from the service.

In the campaign of 1812, when the Prussians assisted the French, he took no part; but no sooner did Prussia rise against her oppressors than Blucher, already seventy years old, engaged in the cause with all his former activity. He was appointed commander-in-chief of the Prussians and the Russian corps under General Winzingerode, which, at a later period, was separated from him. His heroism in the battle of Lutzen, which took place on the 2nd of May, 1813, was rewarded by the emperor Alexander with the order of St. George. The battles of Bautzen and Haynau, those on the Katzbach and at Leipsic, added to his glory. Napoleon himself endeavoured in vain to check the *old general of hussars*, as he called him. His promptitude and peculiar manner of attacking had already, in the beginning of the campaign, procured him from the Russians the name of *Marshal Forward*. In January 1814, with the Silesian army, which now consisted of two Prussian, two Russian, one Hessian, and one mixed corps, he crossed the Rhine at Kaub took possession of Nancy, and gained the battle of La Rothiere, and pushed forward towards Paris. His detached corps were, however, checked by Napoleon; yet Blucher, though with a great loss, effected his retreat towards Chalons. He then crossed the Aisne at Soissons, joined the northern army, and obtained a victory over Napoleon at Laon, and, in connection with Schwartzenberg, and then pressed forward to Paris. The victory of Montmartre crowned this campaign, and March 31, 1814, Blucher entered the capital of France. His king, in remembrance of the victory which he had gained near Wahlstadt, made him prince of Wahlstadt, with a suitable income. In England, whither he followed the allied monarchs, in June of the same year, he was received with the greatest enthusiasm. The university of Oxford conferred on him the degree of doctor of laws. He then returned to his own country and lived on his estates in Silesia till 1815, when the chief command was again committed to him, and he led his army into the Netherlands,

June 15th Napoleon threw himself upon him, and Blucher on the 16th was defeated at Ligny. In this engagement his horse was killed, and he was thrown under his body. After this unfortunate, yet honourable day, the true greatness of the field-marshal and his army became apparent. In the battle of the 18th, Blucher arrived, at the most decisive moment, upon the ground, and, taking Napoleon in the rear and flank, gained, in union with Wellington, the great victory of Belle Alliance, or Waterloo. He refused the proffered armistice and forced Paris to surrender, opposing with energy, on this second conquest of the capital, the system of forbearance practised on the former occasion. As he was already a knight of all the military orders of Europe, the king of Prussia, to reward his new services, created a new order expressly for him.

After the peace of Paris, the prince retired to his estates. August 1819, the anniversary of the battle on the Katzbach, the hero received at Rostock, his native place, an honour which is seldom bestowed in Germany. The whole body of his countrymen, the inhabitants of Mecklenburg, united to erect a monument commemorating his glory. It was executed by Schadow in Berlin. Blucher died, after a short illness, at his estate of Kriblowitz, in Silesia, September 12, 1819, aged almost seventy-seven years. Blucher was not so eminent for military science as for ability in action. He himself often acknowledged this, when he was praising the merits of Gneisenau, to whose assistance he was greatly indebted. In battle, however, he had the eye of a falcon. His simplicity, good-nature, and bravery endeared him to his soldiers, who loved him like a father. His addresses and proclamations are distinguished for their brevity, precision, and simplicity, forming a striking contrast to the high-sounding French proclamations of the time.

BLUMENBACH, JOHN FREDERIC.—This profound naturalist was one of the first ornaments of the university at Gottingen, where he lectured, for more than fifty years, with unabated industry, on natural history, physiology, osteology, comparative anatomy, pathology, and the history of medical literature, to very numerous audiences. He has written on almost all these sciences with acuteness, method, and precision. His works bear the stamp of his peculiar genius, and some of them have been several times published. The eleventh edition of his masterly, but, at present, somewhat antiquated *Compendium of Natural History* was published, in 1825. Of his *Compendium of Physiology* there is an English translation, the second edition of which is also remarkable for being the first book ever printed by mechanical power.

Blumenbach, was born at Gotha, May 11, 1752; studied in Jena and Gottingen, where he received his degree of doctor of medicine, Sept. 19, 1775. In 1776 he was appointed director of the cabinet of natural curiosities belonging to the university, and professor extraordinary of medicine, and, in 1778, ordinary professor of the same. In 1783 he undertook a literary journey to Switzerland, and, at a later period, one to this country, where the attentions of Sir Joseph Banks were particularly serviceable to him. He possessed an excellent collection of books and engravings illustrating natural history, and numerous specimens of natural curiosities. The fiftieth anniversary of his professorship in the uni-



versity of Gottingen was celebrated February 26, 1826.

**BOCCACCIO, JOHN.**—This eminent Italian poet was one of the greatest ornaments of the fourteenth century: indeed, as Mazzucelli justly observes, "his name is equivalent to a thousand encomiums." He was born in 1313, and his father, who was a Florentine merchant, intended to educate his son for the same occupation. In accordance with this intention he placed him with a merchant to learn the art of book-keeping, and some years after he accompanied the same merchant to Paris and remained with him more than six years; but every effort to bind the young Boccaccio to the mercantile routine of the counting house was perfectly abortive: and he was at last sent home to his father. His subsequent residence of several years in Naples was equally ineffectual in inducing him to attach himself to his father's profession, and, instead of attending to trade, he formed the closest intimacy with several learned men of Florence and Naples, who had been drawn thither by that patron of the arts, King Robert. There is nothing to prove that he shared in the favour of the prince; but he enjoyed the particular affection of a natural daughter of his, for whom he composed many pieces in prose and verse, and to whom he often pays homage under the name of *Fiammetta*. Placed in fortunate circumstances, with a lively and cheerful disposition, of a soft and pleasing address, the favoured lover of a king's daughter, he regarded with more aversion than ever the station for which he had been intended. The fondness of the princess for poetry, his own intimacy with scientific and literary men, the tomb of Virgil, near Naples, which he used to visit in his walks, the presence of Petrarch, who was received with the highest distinction at the court of Naples, and who went from that city to Rome, to be crowned with the poetic laurel, the intimacy which had arisen between the two poets—all operated powerfully on Boccaccio's mind, and tended to strengthen and fix his natural inclination for poetry and literature. After living two years at Florence with his father, he returned to Naples, where he was very graciously received by the queen Joanna. It was no less to gratify the young queen than his *Fiammetta* that he wrote his *Decameron*, which has raised him to the rank of the first Italian prose writer. On the death of his father, becoming master of his own inclinations, he settled at Florence, where his first work was a description of the plague, which forms the opening of the *Decameron*. He afterwards wrote the life of Dante. He was selected to inform Petrarch, at Padua, of his recall from exile, and the restoration of the property belonging to his father, who had died during his absence. The friendship of these two men of genius continued for life. For when Boccaccio, some years after, had exhausted his fortune in the purchase of costly books, and in expensive pleasures, he found in Petrarch the most generous assistance: the wise counsels of his friend were now as beneficial to his morals as they had been to his writings; in fact, to him he was indebted for the change which took place in his character. A dying Carthusian had persuaded him to renounce all the pleasures of the world: Petrarch softened his determination, and brought him back to that proper medium which marks the truly wise man. New troubles in Florence induced him to retire to Certaldo, where he owned a small estate.

He now composed several historical works in Latin. Among these is the first modern work which contains, in a collected form, the mythological notices which are scattered in the writings of the ancients. He was well versed in Greek, and had, at his own expense, brought Leontius Pilatus of Thessalonica from Venice to Florence, and maintained him three years at his house, in order to learn Greek of him, and to have his assistance in explaining the poems of Homer, and translating them into Latin. He was the first who procured copies of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* from Greece, at his own expense, and spared neither cost nor trouble to obtain good Greek and Latin manuscripts. At the same time, he used all his influence to excite his contemporaries to learn the Greek language, and substitute the study of the ancients for that of the scholastic philosophy. The reputation which he had gained twice procured for him important missions to Pope Urban V. Having fulfilled these, he returned to Certaldo, and resumed his studies. Here he was attacked by a severe and lingering disorder, which finally left him in a state of debility as painful as the disease itself. Upon his recovery, he was charged with a difficult but very flattering trust. Dante had always been the object of his highest admiration. The Florentines, who had once persecuted and banished that illustrious poet, were now disposed to make some reparation, by instituting, by a decree of the senate, a professorship for lectures on his poems, and Boccaccio was appointed to this new chair. How much he was delighted in an employment not only highly honourable but congenial to his habits, may easily be conceived. The pains he took, however, retarded his recovery from his late illness, and the death of Petrarch, of which he was at this time informed, appears to have hastened his own. He became more and more infirm, and did not survive his illustrious friend and master above a year, dying at Certaldo, December 21, 1375. He was buried there in the church of St. James and St. Philip.

In person he is described as inclining to corpulence, but his stature was handsome, his face round, his lips somewhat full, but nevertheless handsome and well-formed, his chin dimpled and beautiful when he smiled, his aspect jocund and gay, and his discourse agreeable and polished.

A short time before his death he made his will, bequeathing what property he had to his two nephews, the sons of his elder brother. The most valuable legacy, however, was that of his books, which were almost all copies by his own hand, or collected at great expense. These he left to an Augustine monk, who was his executor, and in this perhaps his adviser, with a view that they might become the property of his convent. They were, however, lost to the world. A celebrated scholar, Niccolò Niccolio, in the succeeding century, built in that convent a library for the express purpose of preserving Boccaccio's books, but time destroyed them and it. It has been remarked as somewhat singular that, in this will, Boccaccio makes no mention of a natural son he had in his youth, and who was settled at Florence, yet this young man superintended his funeral, and caused an inscription to be engraven on his tomb. He was universally regretted at Florence, where, in his poverty, he had not met with very liberal attentions. Verses, however, are more easily bestowed than money, and the poets of the time, particularly

Sachetti, hastened with their contributions to his memory. Two medals also were struck, and twenty years afterwards, the republic wishing to pay higher honour to him as well as to Dante and Petrarch, deliberated on a magnificent monument to be erected to the three great ornaments of their country in the church of St. Maria del Fiore, but this was never carried into execution.

The predominant passion of Boccaccio, in youth, was the love of pleasure, tempered by that of study; as he advanced in age, study became his sole delight. He had no ambition either for rank or fortune. The public employments confided to him came unasked, and when he could lay them down he did so.

Boccaccio appears in all his works to be a poet of the richest invention, the most lively imagination, and the tenderest and warmest feeling. In prose, he is a perfect master of composition. His "Decameron" which contains a collection of a hundred tales, partly borrowed from the Provencal poets, is the work on which his fame chiefly rests. In this he painted, as it were, on one vast canvas, men of all ranks, characters, and ages, and incidents of every kind, the most extravagant and comical, as well as the most touching and tragic; and improved the Italian language to a degree of excellence never before attained.

We have already said that the "Decameron" of Boccaccio raised him to the greatest eminence in his native country, but we can hardly conceive the difficulties under which this extraordinary work laboured, without tracing its progress in detail. For more than a century it was circulated in MS., and liberties of every kind was taken with the text at each transcription. It was not accurately printed before 1470, and it then ran through fifteen editions, as fast as the presses could prepare them. Its circulation was strongly prohibited by popes Paul IV. and Pius IV., and even the avowed friends of the work applied to the papal chamber for its revision. Gregory XIII. appointed a meeting of learned Italians for this purpose; and, objectionable as many of its passages still are, it owes much of moral improvement to their labours.

Of his other works, we will mention only the following: "La Teseide," the first attempt towards an Italian epic, and written in *ottava rima*, of which Boccaccio is considered the inventor; "Amorosa Visione," a long poem in *terza rima* (the initial letters of which form two sonnets and a canzonet, in praise of the princess Maria, his mistress, whom he here ventures to address by her proper name); "Il Filostrato," a romantic poem in *ottava rima*; "Ninfale Fiesolano," in the same measure. Most of his sonnets, canzonets, and other amatory poems, he consigned to the flames, after reading the Italian poems of Petrarch; those which remain appear to have been preserved against his will. In the ducal library at Florence, among the manuscripts collected by the celebrated Magliabecchi, Professor Ciampi has lately discovered a memorandum-book of Boccaccio containing a record of his studies, and some curious circumstances relating to himself and a number of his distinguished contemporaries which has since been published.

BOCCALINI, TRAJAN, a satirist and politician of the seventeenth century, who is best known from his celebrated work entitled "Ragguergli di Parnasso" or "News from Parnassus." It contains an account of an imaginary court held by Apollo, in which the god is represented as sitting to hear in-

formations, complaints, &c., against various persons, whose actions and writings are freely, but not always impartially, censured. Boccacini also wrote commentaries on Tacitus. He died in 1613.

BOCHART, SAMUEL, a learned French scholar who was born in 1599 at Rouen in Normandy. He was early distinguished for his talents, and at the age of fourteen composed some very clever verses in the Greek language in praise of Thomas Dempster, under whom he studied at Paris. These verses were afterwards prefixed by that gentleman to his account of Roman antiquities. M. Bochart afterwards went through a course of philosophy at Sedan, and studied divinity at Saumur, under Camroneus, whom he followed to London, the academy at Saumur being dispersed during the civil war. He went also to Oxford, and in Lent term, 1622, was entered as a student at the library, where he laid in a considerable part of that stock of Oriental learning which he afterwards displayed in his works. He afterwards went over to Leyden, and studied Arabic under Erpenius. When he returned to France, he was chosen minister of Caen, where in 1630 he distinguished himself by public disputations with M. Veron, a very celebrated polemic, and champion for the catholic religion, published under the title of "Acte de la conference entre S. B. et Jean Baillebache, &c. d'un part: et Francois Veron, predicateur de controvertes," Saumur. The dispute was held in the castle of Caen, in presence of a great number of catholics and protestants. Bochart came off with honour and reputation, which was not a little increased upon the publication of his "Phaleg and Canaan," which are the titles of the two parts of his "Geographica Sacra," 1646. While at Caen, he was tutor to Wentworth Dillon, earl of Roscommon, author of the "Essay on Translated Verse." He acquired also great fame by his "Hierozoicon, printed in London 1675. The great learning displayed in these works rendered him esteemed, not only amongst those of his own persuasion, but amongst all lovers of knowledge of whatever denomination, especially such as studied the scriptures in their original languages, which was then very common. Dr. Hakewell, who was contemporary with Bochart, speaking of the knowledge of the oriental languages, observes that "this last century (the fifteenth) afforded more skilful men that way than the other fourteen since Christ." In 1652, the queen of Sweden invited him to Stockholm, where she gave him many proofs of her regard and esteem. At his return into France, in 1653, he continued his ordinary exercises, and was one of the members of the academy of Caen, which consisted of all the learned men of that place. He died suddenly, when he was speaking in this academy, May 6, 1667.

BOCKH, AUGUSTUS, one of the greatest philologists of modern times. He was born at Carlsruhe in 1785, studied at Halle, and in 1811 became professor of classical literature at Berlin. Two works have immortalized the name of Bockh with the students of ancient literature; first, the edition of Pindar, which he announced to the public by his "Specimen Emendationum in Pindari Carmina," and by "Observationes Criticæ in Pindari." A new arrangement of the Pindaric measures is here proposed, founded on deep and extensive researches into the music of the Greeks. Even those who entirely reject the hypothesis of this philologist cannot but acknowledge his erudition and admire his acuteness



The other work to which we have alluded is on the "Political Economy of the Athenians." No work has hitherto appeared in Germany which throws so much light on the political life and public administration of any ancient people as this of Bockh. It has furnished new means for illustrating the Attic orators and historians. In the latter part of his life he was busily engaged in preparing a work under the patronage of the Berlin academy of science, of which he was a member, called "Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum." The smaller writings of this author relate chiefly to Plato and to the Platonic philosophers.

BODE, JOHN ELERT, an eminent astronomer, born at Hamburg in 1747, who early discovered an inclination for mathematical science, in which his father, and afterwards the celebrated G. Bush, instructed him. He gave the first public proof of his knowledge by a short work on the solar eclipse which took place in 1766. The approbation which this received encouraged him to greater labours, and in 1768 appeared his "Introduction to the Knowledge of the Starry Heavens," a familiar treatise on astronomy, which has done much for the extension of correct views upon the subject, and continues to do so, as it has kept pace in its successive editions with the progress of the science. In 1772 the Berlin academy chose him their astronomer, and ten years afterwards he was made a member of that institution. His best works are his "Astronomical Almanac," a work indispensable to every astronomer; and his large "Celestial Atlas" in twenty sheets, in which the industrious editor has given a catalogue of 17,240 stars, which is nearly 12,000 more than in any former charts. Bode was released in 1825 at his own wish from his duties in the academy of science, and the observatory in Berlin, and shortly after died in that city.

BODIN, JEAN, a political writer born in 1530, at Angiers. He studied law at Toulouse, delivered lectures on jurisprudence there, and afterwards went to Paris and practised. Being unsuccessful in his profession, he turned his talents to literary labours, was invited by Henry III. to his court, and afterwards travelled with the king's brother Francis, duke of Alençon and Anjou, to Flanders and England, where he had the gratification of hearing lectures in Cambridge on his work "De la République" (originally written in French, but afterwards translated by M. Bodin himself into Latin.) When the duke died he went to Laon, married there, obtained a judicial office, and was sent by the third estate in Vermandois in 1576 as deputy to the estate of Blois, where he defended the rights of the people and the liberty of conscience. He also prevailed on the city of Laon to declare itself for the League in 1589, representing to the people that the rising of so many towns and parliaments in favour of the duke of Guise was not a rebellion, but rather a powerful political revolution. He afterwards, however, submitted to Henry IV. He died in 1596 at Laon of the plague. His great work is that entitled "De la République," in which he gave the first complete essay towards a scientific treatise on politics, and guided by his own experience sought to strike out a middle course between the advocates of monarchy and democracy. His "Demonomanie," and his "Theatrum Universæ Naturæ," published at Lyons, in 1596, show how superstition and learning were

united in his character; but the charge of atheism, which is grounded particularly on a work entitled "Heptaplomeron," proceeds from the religious indifference which was noticed in him by his contemporaries.

BODLEY, SIR THOMAS, the founder of the Bodleian library at Oxford. He was born at Exeter in 1544, and educated partly at Geneva, where his parents, who were protestants, had retired in the reign of Queen Mary. On the accession of Elizabeth they returned home, and he completed his studies at Magdalen College, Oxford. He afterwards became a fellow of Merton College, and read lectures on the Greek language and philosophy. He went to the continent in 1576, and spent four years in travelling. He was afterwards employed in various embassies to Denmark, Germany, France, and Holland. In 1597 he returned home, and dedicated the remainder of his life to the re-establishment and augmentation of the public library at Oxford. This he accomplished, procuring books and manuscripts himself, both at home and abroad, at a great expense; and, by his influence and persuasions, inducing his friends and acquaintance to assist in his undertaking. Sir Robert Cotton, Sir Henry Savile, and Thomas Allen, the mathematician, were among the principal contributors on this occasion. The library was so much augmented that Sir Thomas Bodley, who was knighted at the accession of James I., was induced to erect an additional structure for the reception of the increasing quantity of valuable books and manuscripts. He died in London 1612, and was interred in the chapel of Merton College in the University. He bequeathed nearly the whole of his property to the support and augmentation of the library, which has been so much enriched by subsequent benefactions that it is, at present, one of the most magnificent institutions of the kind in Europe.

BODMER, JOHN JACOB, a celebrated German poet and scholar, born at Greifensee, near Zurich July 19, 1698. Although he produced nothing remarkable of his own in poetry, he helped to open the way for the new German literature in this department. He was the antagonist of Gottsched, in Leipsic, who aspired to be the literary dictator of the day, and had embraced the French theory of taste, while Bodmer inclined to the English. He has the honour of having had Klopstock and Wieland among his scholars. Bodmer was for a long time professor of history in Switzerland. He was a copious and indefatigable writer, entertained many incorrect views, but was of service, as we have already said, to the German literature, which was then in a low and barbarous state. He died at Zürich, in 1738.

BODONI, GIAMBATISTA.—This talented individual was for many years superintendent of the royal press at Parma, member of several academies of Italy, and knight of several high orders. He was born in 1740 at Saluzzo in Piedmont, where his father owned a printing establishment. He began, while yet a boy, to employ himself in engraving on wood. His labours meeting with success, he went in 1758 to Rome, and was made compositor for the press of the *Propaganda*. By the advice of the superintendent, he made himself acquainted with the Oriental languages, in order to qualify himself for the kind of printing required in them. He thereby enabled himself to be of great service to this press, by restoring and putting in place the types of several

Oriental alphabets which had fallen into disorder. The infant Don Ferdinand, about 1766, had, with a view of diffusing knowledge, established a printing-house in Parma, on the model of those in Paris, Madrid, and Turin. Bodoni was placed at the head of this establishment, which he made the first of the kind in Europe, and gained the reputation of having far surpassed all the splendid and beautiful productions of his predecessors in the art. The beauty of his type, ink, and paper, as well as the whole management of the technical part of the work, leaves nothing for us to wish: but the intrinsic value of his editions is seldom equal to their outward splendour. His Homer is a truly admirable and magnificent work; indeed, his Greek letters are the most perfect imitations that have been attempted in modern times of Greek manuscript. His splendid editions of Greek, Latin, Italian, and French classics are highly prized. He died at Padua, November 29, 1813.

BOEHME, or BOEHM, JACOB, a celebrated mystic of the sixteenth century. He was born in 1575 at Altseidenberg, a village of Upper Lusatia, near Górlitz, and remained to his tenth year without instruction, and employed in tending cattle. The beautiful and sublime objects of nature kindled his imagination, and inspired him with a profound piety. Raised by contemplation above his circumstances, and undisturbed by exterior influences, a strong sense of the spiritual, particularly of the mysterious, was awakened in him, and he saw in all the workings of nature upon his mind a revelation of God, and even imagined himself favoured by divine inspirations. The education which he received at school, though very imperfect, consisting only of writing, spelling, and reading the Bible, supplied new food for the excited mind of the boy. He became afterwards a shoemaker, and this sedentary life seems to have strengthened his contemplative habits. He was much interested in the disputes which prevailed on the subject of "Cryptocalvinism" in Saxony, though he never took a personal part in sectarian controversies, and knew no higher delight than to elevate himself, undisturbed, to the contemplation of the infinite. Boehme withdrew himself more and more from the world. If we take into view his retirement, his piety, his rich and lively imagination, his imperfect education, his philosophical desire for truth, together with his abundance of ideas, and his delusion in considering many of those ideas as immediate communications of the Deity, we have the sources of his doctrine and his works. His writings are very unequal, but always display a profound feeling, and must be judged with indulgence for the causes just mentioned. In 1594 he became a master shoemaker in Górlitz, married, and continued a shoemaker through life. Several visions and raptures, that is, moments of strong enthusiasm, led him to take the pen. His first work appeared in 1616, and was called "Aurora." It contains his revelations on God, man, and nature. This gave rise to a prosecution against him, but he was acquitted, and called upon from all sides to continue writing. He did not, however, resume his pen until 1619. One of his most important works is, "A Description of the Three Principles of the Divine Being." His works contain profound and lofty ideas, mingled with many absurd and confused notions. He died, after many prosecutions and acquittals, in 1624. Abraham von Frankenberg, his bio-

grapher and admirer, has also published and explained his writings. The first collection of them was made in Holland in 1675, by Henry Betke; a more complete one in 1682 by Gichtel, from whom the followers of Boehme, a religious sect highly valued for their silent, virtuous, and benevolent life, have received the name of Gichtelians. In this country, also, Boehme's writings have found many admirers. William Law published an English translation of them, and a sect, taking their name from Boehme, was likewise formed in England, and in 1697 Jane Leade, an enthusiastic admirer of his, established a particular society for the explanation of his writings, under the name of the Philadelphists.

BOERHAAVE, HERMAN, one of the most celebrated physicians of the eighteenth century. He was born in 1668 at Woorhout, near Leyden, and received from his father a liberal education. Before he was eleven years old, he was well acquainted with Latin and Greek. An obstinate ulcer on his left thigh, which, for seven years, resisted all medical remedies, was the means of directing his thoughts and inclinations to the study of medicine. In 1682 he was sent to Leyden to study theology. Here he gave, at the age of twenty, the first public proof of his learning and eloquence. He pronounced an academic oration before Gronovius, in which he attacked the doctrines of Spinoza with so much talent that the city rewarded him with a gold medal. In 1689 he received the degree of doctor of philosophy, and maintained an inaugural dissertation, "De Distinctione Mentis a Corpore," Leyden, 1690. He now commenced, at the age of twenty-two, the study of medicine. Drelincourt was his first and only teacher. From him he received only a little instruction; and it is worthy of notice that he learned by his own solitary study a science on which he was afterwards to exert so important an influence. He first studied anatomy, but rather in the works then in vogue, of Vesale, Bartholin, &c., than in the dissecting room. He was present, indeed, at most of the dissections of Nuck, but still the want of a practical study of anatomy is evident in all his writings. The influence which he had in improving anatomy, notwithstanding the defect we have noticed, must be traced to the close connection of this mechanical science with physiology and medicine. As, in these last, he made use of mechanical illustrations, his example induced the anatomists to apply themselves to an accurate study of the forms of the organs, as may be noticed in all the anatomists of that time—Santorina, Morgagni, Valsalva, Winslow, Albinus, &c.

After this preliminary study, which in fact is the groundwork of medical science, Boerhaave read all the works, ancient and modern, on medicine, in the order of time, proceeding from his contemporaries to Hippocrates, with whose superior excellence and correct method he was forcibly struck in this course of reading. He also studied botany and chemistry, and, although still preparing himself for the clerical profession, was made in 1693 doctor of medicine at Harderwick. After his return to Leyden, some doubts being raised as to his orthodoxy, he finally determined to follow the profession of medicine, and in 1701 the university of Leyden chose him, on the death of Drelincourt, to deliver lectures on the theory of medicine, on which occasion, he pronounced his dissertation "De commendando Studio Hippocratico." In this, with an enthusiasm excited by the



study of Hippocrates, he demonstrated the correctness of the method pursued by that great man, and establishes its exclusive superiority. Boerhaave now began to develop those great and peculiar excellences which make him a pattern to all who undertake the office of instruction. Pupils crowded from all quarters to hear him, and in 1703 he delivered another dissertation, "*De Usu Ratiocinii Mechanici in Medicina*," Leyden, 1703. In this he began to deviate from the Hippocratic method, and to introduce the first principles of a defective system, to which his eminent talents gave afterwards exclusive currency. In 1709 the university of Leyden was at length able to reward him for his services, by appointing him professor of medicine and botany in Hotton's place. It is remarkable that on this occasion he delivered a dissertation, "*Qua repurgatæ Medicinæ facilis asseritur Simplicitas*," which deserves to be placed by the side of those in which he recommends the study of Hippocrates. In this dissertation he proposed the carrying back the science to its original simplicity—to observation and experience—quite contrary to the spirit which guided his own system. The course of instruction, to which Boerhaave was now devoted, induced him to publish two works, on which his fame still rests, viz. "*Institutiones Medicæ in Usus annuæ Exercitationis domesticæ*," and "*Aphorismi de cognoscendis et curandis Morbis in Usum Doctrinæ Medicinæ*." In the former, which is a model of comprehensive erudition and clear method, he unfolds his system in its full extent: in the latter, he undertakes the classification of diseases, and separates their causes, nature, and treatment. The professorship of botany, which he also filled contributed no less to his reputation. He rendered essential services to botany by his two catalogues of plants in the garden of Leyden, the number of which he had very much increased. We are indebted to him for the description and delineation of several new plants, and the introduction of some new species.

In 1714 he was made rector of the university, and, at the close of his term of office, delivered an oration, "*De comparando certo in Physicis*," one of his best pieces. At the end of this year, he took Bidloo's place in the office of practical instruction, in which he was employed more than ten years. Anticipating the great advantages of clinical institutions, and wishing to unite practice with theory, he opened an hospital, where he lectured to his pupils twice a week, on the history of the diseases before them, confining himself to the particular phenomena in each case presented to their observation. Busily occupied as he already was, the university conferred on him, at the death of Lemort, the professorship of chemistry, which science he had taught after 1703. On this occasion he delivered his dissertation, "*De Chemia suos Errores expurgante*." Although the relations which Boerhaave supposes to exist between chemistry and medicine are ill-founded, he deserves credit for rendering the science intelligible and familiar in his excellent works on this subject. His "*Elements of Chemistry*" is perhaps his finest production, and, notwithstanding the entire revolution which has taken place in this branch of science, is still highly valuable. His experiments are remarkable for their accuracy. The part which treats of organic bodies is exceedingly good for that period. So extensive a sphere of action gained for Boerhaave a fame that

few learned men have enjoyed. People came from all parts of Europe to ask his advice; and his property amounted at his death to two millions of florins—a very extraordinary fortune for a man of his profession in Europe. Peter the Great visited him on his travels, and a Chinese mandarin wrote to him with the address "To Boerhaave, the celebrated physician in Europe." In 1722 an attack of the gout, accompanied with a stroke of the apoplexy, obliged him to remit his active pursuits, and new returns of his disorder, in 1727 and 1729, compelled him to resign the professorships of chemistry and botany, which he had held for twenty years. In 1730 he was again appointed rector, and, at the close of his term, delivered a celebrated address, "*De Honore, Medici Servitute*," perhaps the best of all these essays, in which he represents the physician as the servant of nature, whose activity he is to awaken and direct. In this he returned, in some measure, to the principles of Hippocrates, from which, indeed, he had never departed far in practice. In 1738 his disorder returned with increased violence, and, after a few months, put an end to his life, at the age of seventy. The city erected a monument for him in St. Peter's church, with his favourite motto upon it—*Simplex sigillum veri*.

BOETHIUS, ANICIUS MANLIUS TORQUATUS SEVERINUS, a man celebrated for his virtues, services, honours, and tragical end. He was born about 470 A. D., in Rome or Milan, of a rich, ancient, and respectable family, was educated in Rome, in a manner well calculated to develop his extraordinary abilities, afterwards went to Athens, which was still the centre of taste and science, and studied philosophy under Proclus and others. Returning to Rome, he was graciously received by Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, then master of Italy, loaded with marks of favour and esteem, and soon raised to the first offices in the empire. He exerted the best influence on the administration of this monarch, so that the dominion of the Goths promoted the welfare and happiness of the people who were subject to them. He was long the oracle of his sovereign and the idol of the people. The highest honours were thought inadequate to reward his virtues and services. But Theodoric, as he grew old, became irritable, jealous, and distrustful of those about him. The Goths now indulged in all sorts of oppressor and extortion, while Boethius exerted himself in vain to restrain them. He had already made many enemies by his strict integrity and vigilant justice. These at last succeeded in prejudicing the king against him, and rendering him suspicious of Boethius. The opposition of Boethius to their unjust measures was construed into a rebellious temper, and he was even accused of a treasonable correspondence with the court of Constantinople. He was arrested, imprisoned, and executed, A. D. 524 or 526.

While he was at the helm of state, he found recreation from his toilsome occupations in the study of the sciences, and devoted a part of his leisure to the construction of mathematical and musical instruments, some of which he sent to Clothaire, king of France. He was also much given to the study of the old Greek philosophers and mathematicians, and wrote Latin translations of several of them. His most celebrated work is that composed during his imprisonment, "*On the Consolations of Philosophy*." It is written in prose and verse intermixed. The

elevation of thought, the nobleness of feeling, the ease and distinctness of style, which it exhibits, make this composition, short as it is, far superior to any other of the age.

**BOGDANOWITSCH, HYPPOLYT FEDEROWITSCH**, who has not unaptly been called the Russian Anacreon, was born in 1743 at Perewolotschna, in White Russia. He was designed for an engineer, and went, for the purpose of studying engineering, to Moscow, in 1754, and entered an academy there; but the sight of a splendid play, and the reading of Lomonossow's poems, turned his inclination to poetry. He wished to become an actor, but the manager of the theatre, Cheraskow, dissuaded him from his purpose. By his advice, he applied himself to the study of the fine arts, and to learning foreign languages. He gained patrons and friends, and in 1761 was made inspector in the university of Moscow, and afterwards translator in the department of foreign affairs. In 1762 he travelled with Count Beloselsky, as secretary of legation, to Dresden, where he devoted his whole attention to the study of the fine arts and of poetry, till 1768. The beautiful pictures in the gallery of that place inspired him to write his "Psyche" (Duschenka), which appeared in 1775, and fixed his fame on a lasting foundation. After this he devoted himself to music and poetry, in solitary study at Petersburg, till Catherine called him from his retirement. He then wrote, on different occasions, several dramatic and historical pieces, and in 1788 he was made president of the imperial archives. In 1795 he took leave of the court and lived as a private man in Little Russia. Alexander recalled him to Petersburg, where he lived till 1803. He was as remarkable for modesty as for genius, and a man of childlike goodness and vivacity.

**BOIARDO, MATTEO**.—This Italian poet was born at a seat belonging to his family near Ferrara, in 1434. From 1488 to 1494, the period of his death, he was commander of the city and castle of Reggio, in the service of his protector, Ercole d'Este, duke of Modena. This accomplished courtier, scholar, and knight was particularly distinguished as a poet. His "Orlando Innamorato Scandiano" was published in 1496, and is continued to the seventy-ninth canto, but was not completed. He immortalized the names of his own peasants, and the charms of the scenery at Scandiano, in the persons of his heroes and his descriptions of the beauties of nature. In language and versification, he has been since surpassed by Ariosto, whom he equalled in invention, grace, and skilful conduct of complicated episodes. Dominichi, Berni and Agostini new-modelled and continued the work of Boiardo without improving it. One continuation, only, will never be forgotten—the immortal "Orlando" of Ariosto. In some of his works, Boiardo was led, by the spirit of his times, to a close imitation of the ancients; for instance in his "Capitoli;" also in a comedy borrowed from Lucian's "Timon;" and in his Latin eclogues and translations of Herodotus and Apuleius. In his sonnets and *canzoni* he has displayed great talents as a lyric poet.

**BOILEAU, DESPREAUX NICHOLAS**.—This distinguished satirical writer was born in 1636, at Crosne, near Paris, commenced his studies in the college d'Harcourt, and continued them in the college de Beauvais. Even in his early youth, he read with ardour the great poets of antiquity, and tried his own

powers in a tragedy, though with little success. After having completed his academical studies, he entered upon the career of the law; but soon left it from disinclination, tried some other pursuits, and resolved, finally, to devote himself entirely to belles-lettres. His first satire, "Les Adieux à Paris," discovered his talents. In 1666 he published seven satires, with an introduction, addressed to the king. They met with extraordinary applause; for no one, before him, had written with such elegance of versification. But in this, and in the purity of his language, and the clearness with which he sets forth his luminous principles, consist their chief merit; novel, profound, original ideas, we should look for in vain, though the pieces are not destitute of graceful touches and delicate strokes. The satires "Sur l' Equivoque" and "Sur l' Homme" have undeniable defects. That on Women, which he wrote at a more advanced age, is monotonous, and deficient in humour. His epistles, in which he is the successful rival of Horace, are more esteemed at the present day, and they display a graceful versification, a natural and sustained style, combined with vigorous and well-connected ideas. These were followed by his "Art Poétique," in which he describes, with precision and taste, all the different kinds of poetry (with the exception of the apologue), and lays down rules for them. In regularity of plan, happy transitions, and continual elegance of style, this poem is superior to the "Ars Poetica" of Horace. It was long regarded, not only in France, but also in foreign countries, as a poetical code, and has every where had a favourable influence, as it inculcates purity and regularity, and subjects all the productions of poetical genius to a fixed standard.

Boileau had many opponents, who accused him of want of fertility, invention, and variety. To refute them, he wrote his "Lutrin" a mock-heroic poem, which is still unrivalled in the eyes of the French. A music-stand which had been removed from its place had occasioned dissensions in a chapter: this is the subject of Boileau's poem, in which his art of making petty details interesting deserves as much praise as the other excellences of his poetry already enumerated. Louis XIV. gave him the place of historiographer, in connection with Racine. As he had attacked the academicians in several of his writings, he was not received into their society until 1684, and then only by the interference of the king. He died in 1711, of the dropsy.

**BOISSY, LEWIS LANS DE**, a French writer of considerable talent, who was born at Vic, in Auvergne. Early in life he visited Paris, and employed himself in writing satires, which produced him little money and many enemies. He, however, relinquished this unpopular line of composition, and commenced writing for the stage. In thirty years he produced more than forty comedies, several of which were very successful, yet at one time he was silently enduring such abject poverty that an accidental intrusion into his wretched abode alone preserved himself and family from starvation. His affecting case being made known to Madame Pompadour, she procured him a pension and the editorship of the "Mercure de France." He died in 1758, aged sixty-three.

**BOLEYN, ANNE**.—This celebrated but unfortunate English queen was born in 1507. When only seven years of age she attended the princess Mary



to France on her marriage with Louis XII. She returned to England about 1525 or 1527, and became lady of honour to Queen Catherine, whom she soon supplanted. The king, passionately enamoured of her, found an unexpected opposition to his wishes, and Anne firmly declared that she could be his on no terms but those of marriage. She knew that the king already meditated a divorce from his wife, Catharine of Aragon; but she also knew what difficulties the catholic religion opposed to the execution of this plan. Cranmer offered his services to bring about the accomplishment of the king's wishes, and thus gave the first occasion to the separation of England from the Roman church. But the impetuous Henry did not wait for the ministers of his new religion to confirm his divorce: on the contrary, he privately married Anne, November 14, 1532, having previously created her marchioness of Pembroke. When her pregnancy revealed the secret, Cranmer declared the first marriage void and the second valid, and Anne was crowned queen at Westminster with unparalleled splendour. In 1533 she became the mother of the celebrated Elizabeth.

She could not, however, retain the affections of the king, as inconstant as he was tyrannical; and, as she had supplanted her queen while lady of honour to Catharine, she was now supplanted herself by Jane Seymour, her own lady of honour. Suspicions of infidelity were added to the disgust of Henry, which seem to be not entirely unfounded, although the judicial process instituted against her was wholly irregular. In 1535 she was imprisoned, accused, and brought before a jury of peers. Smeaton, a musician, who was arrested with others, confessed that he had enjoyed the queen's favours, and, May 17, 1536, she was condemned to death by twenty-six judges. Anne in vain affirmed that she had long before been contracted to the duke of Northumberland, and therefore had never been the lawful wife of Henry. Cranmer in vain declared the marriage void. The sentence of death was executed by the command of the inflexible Henry, who esteemed it a great exercise of clemency to substitute the scaffold for the stake. The last day of the life of this unhappy woman, May 19, 1536, presents many interesting moments. She sent for the wife of the lieutenant of the Tower, threw herself upon her knees before her, and said, "Go to the princess Mary (daughter of Catherine) in my name, and, in this position, beg her forgiveness for all the sufferings I have drawn upon her and her mother." "She sent her last message to the king," says Hume, "and acknowledged the obligations which she owed him in uniformly continuing his endeavours for her advancement." "From a private gentlewoman you have made me first a marchioness, then a queen; and, as you can raise me no higher in this world, you are now sending me to be a saint in heaven."

**BOLINGBROKE, HENRY ST. JOHN, VISCOUNT.**—This celebrated statesman was born in 1672 at Battersea. He received an education adapted to his rank, and completed his studies at Oxford, where he early exhibited uncommon talents, and attracted general attention. On entering the world, he displayed a rare union of brilliant parts and elegance of manners, with beauty of person, dignity and affability, and such fascinating eloquence that, according to the unanimous testimony of his contemporaries, nobody could resist him. Unfor-

tunately, the passions of his youth opposed the development of his talents; and in his twenty-third year he was distinguished principally as an accomplished libertine. His parents, supposing that marriage would have a salutary influence upon him, proposed to him a lady, the heiress to a large fortune, who united with a charming figure a cultivated mind and noble birth. But the young couple had lived but a short time together when irreconcilable disputes arose between them, in consequence of which they separated for ever. Another plan was adopted to give a better direction to the impetuous character of Bolingbroke. By the influence of his father, he obtained a seat in the house of commons. Here his eloquence, his acuteness, and the strength of his judgment, attracted universal attention, and his former idleness was changed at once into the most incessant activity.

In 1704 he was made secretary of war, and came into immediate connection with the duke of Marlborough, whose talents he discerned, and whose enterprises he supported with all his influence. When, however, the whigs gained the ascendancy, Bolingbroke gave in his resignation. Now followed, as he said himself, the two most active years of his life, in which he devoted himself to study, but by no means neglected public affairs. He continued to maintain a constant intercourse with the queen, who preferred him to her other counsellors. The whig ministry was overthrown, to the astonishment of all Europe; and Bolingbroke received the department of foreign affairs, in which post he concluded the peace of Utrecht, of which he was always proud, and which gained him general admiration. In concluding this peace every thing was unfavourable to him—the whigs, the peers, the bank, the East India company, Marlborough, Eugene, the emperor, Holland, the jealousy of all the European powers, the weakness of his own queen, the irresolution, imprudence, and even the envy of his colleagues. After this event, however, Bolingbroke became a prey to the impetuosity of his passions, and exhibited a versatility of conduct that has rendered his loyalty, his patriotism, and his whole character suspected. The collision of the whigs and Tories produced such a general excitement that the ministers were attacked, the peace was decried as disastrous, and the protestant succession was declared in danger. At this moment, a fatal contention broke out between the lord high treasurer (the earl of Oxford) and Bolingbroke, immediately after the conclusion of the peace. Swift, the friend of both, but particularly intimate with the lord high treasurer, accused Bolingbroke of having principally contributed to the ruin of their party. Be this as it may Queen Anne, provoked to the utmost by Oxford, dismissed him four days before her death, and made Bolingbroke prime minister.

But the death of Anne changed the whole scene. George I. of Hanover ascended the throne, and the whigs triumphed more completely than ever. Bolingbroke, who could not impose on the Hanoverian court by his plausible pretences, and who was as much envied as he was hated, was dismissed by King George while yet in Germany, and fled to France upon learning that the opposite party intended to bring him to the scaffold. James III. the Pretender, as he was called, invited him to Lorraine and made him his secretary of state. But when Louis XIV. died Bolingbroke lost all hope of the success of the

Pretender, and repented of having entered into so close a connection with him. Whatever were his feelings and plans, his intentions with regard to James III. were doubtless honest. Nevertheless, the latter deprived him of his dignity and transferred it to the duke of Ormond. Thus it was his strange fate to be charged with treachery both by the king and the Pretender. Offers, however, were made to him by King George on condition of his revealing the secrets of the Pretender. This proposal he at first declined, but afterwards yielded so far as to promise a decisive blow against the cause of the Pretender, on condition of the total oblivion of what had already passed, and of an entire confidence for the future. But Walpole, who was afraid of Bolingbroke's influence in parliament, prevented his recall.

Bolingbroke, in order to forget his situation, applied himself to writing philosophical consolations after the manner of Seneca, but soon found sweeter ones in his marriage with a rich and amiable lady, niece of madame de Maintenon. In 1723 the parliament which had been so hostile to him was at length dissolved, and he was permitted to return to England. His estates, however, were not restored until two years after, by a particular act of parliament. On his return he lived at first retired in the country, maintaining, however, a correspondence with Swift and Pope. But no sooner was the voice of opposition heard in parliament than he hastened to London, and, as the restoration of his seat in the house of lords was still denied him, attacked the ministry during eight years in the journals or in pamphlets with great success. He drew upon himself powerful enemies, against whom he directed his "Treatise on Parties," which is considered as his masterpiece. He then returned to France with the intention, as even Swift supposed, of throwing himself into the arms of the Pretender's party, against which charge Pope defended him, and declared that he had himself advised his noble friend to leave an ungrateful country by which he was suspected and persecuted.

In France Bolingbroke wrote, in 1735, his "Letters upon History," which are admired even at the present day, but in which the individual character of the author appears to the exclusion of general views, and which were blamed in particular for attacking revealed religion, which he had once warmly defended. In 1729, in the midst of his contest with Walpole, he had suggested to Pope his "Essay on Man," assisted him in the composition, and supplied him with the most important materials. His feelings finally carried him back to his country, where he wrote in 1738 his "Idea of a Patriot King," under the eyes of the heir apparent. He died in 1751 in his eightieth year, after a long and dreadful disease, during which he composed "Considerations on the State of the Nation."

**BOLIVAR, SIMON.**—This extraordinary military commander was the great parent of South American liberty, and he exhibited during the progress of the revolution which he ultimately lived to see perfected the most undeviating patriotism.

Bolívar may indeed be considered as the Washington of South America, and, though the materials that the former had to work out the salvation of his country with were of a very different character from the morally respectable inhabitants of the British colonies, yet taking their separate means into ac-

count he accomplished as much. He was born in the city of Caracas, July 24, 1783. His father was don Juan Vicente Bolívar y Ponte, and his mother, doña Maria Concepcion Palacios y Sojo, both of noble and distinguished families in Venezuela. After acquiring the first elements of a liberal education at home, Bolívar repaired to Europe, in pursuit of more extended means of gaining knowledge, visiting Havanna and Mexico on his way. He completed his studies in Madrid, and then spent some time in travelling, chiefly in the south of Europe. He was particularly attracted to the capital of France, where he was an eye-witness of some of the later events of the revolution, and there, probably, conceived the idea of liberating his country from the tyranny of Spain. Returning to Madrid, he married the daughter of don Nicholas Toro, uncle of the marquis of Toro, in Caracas, and embarked with her for America, intending to dedicate himself, for a while, to domestic life and the superintendence of his large estate. But the premature and sudden death of his wife, who fell a victim to the yellow fever, dispelled his visions of domestic happiness; and he again visited Europe as a relief to his sorrow for her loss. On his return home, he passed through the United States of America; and the lesson of liberty was not without its fruits; for, on his arrival in Venezuela, he embarked in the plans of the patriots, and pledged himself to the cause of independence. Bolívar being one of the chief promoters of the movement in Caracas of April 19, 1810, which is considered as the beginning of the revolution, he received a colonel's commission from the supreme junta then established, and was associated with don Luis Lopez Mendez, for the purpose of communicating intelligence of the change of government to Great Britain. He took part in the first military operations of the Venezuelan patriots after the declaration of independence, in 1811, serving under Miranda in an expedition against a body of persons in Valencia who thus early took a stand opposed to the revolution. After the earthquake of March, 1812, the war was commenced in earnest by the advance of Monteverde with the Spanish troops; and the command of the important post of Puerto Cabello was entrusted to Bolívar. But, the Spanish prisoners in the castle of San Felipe, which commanded the town, corrupted one of the patriot officers, and obtained possession of the castle, so that he was compelled to evacuate the place.

Many of those persons who were deeply committed in the revolution now sought to leave their country; and Bolívar succeeded in obtaining a passport and escaping to Curacao. Unable, however, to remain a cold spectator of the events occurring on the continent, he repaired to Carthage, in September, 1812, and, with other emigrants from Caracas, entered into the service of the patriots of New Grenada. They gave him the command in the small town of Baranca, nominally under the orders of Labatut, the republican governor of Santa Martha; but Bolívar could not be content with the obscure part which must have fallen to him had he remained at Baranca. Instead of this, he undertook an expedition against Teneriffe, a town higher up on the river Magdalena, occupied by the Spaniards, captured it, and, gathering forces on the way, he proceeded, on his own responsibility, to Mompox, driving the Spaniards before him from all their posts in



Upper Magdalena, and finally entering the city of Ocaña in triumph, amid the acclamations of the inhabitants, whom he delivered. These happy and successful movements now turned the public attention upon him; and he was invited to march upon Cucuta, and attempt to expel the Spanish division commanded by Correa. This operation, also, he achieved, without any loss, by the celerity and skill of his movements, and now conceived the great and bold project of invading Venezuela with his little army, and delivering it from the powerful forces under Monteverde. The congress of New Grenada gratified him in this respect, and gave him the commission of brigadier; but many obstacles were thrown in his way by Colonel Manuel Castillo, commandant-general, under the congress, in the province of Pamplona, which led to an irreconcilable difference between them. At length, having overcome a multitude of difficulties which retarded his advance, and driven Correa from the valleys of Cucuta, he commenced his march for Venezuela, with a small force of but little more than 500 men, but accompanied by excellent officers, some of whom afterwards acquired great celebrity, such as Rivas, Jirardot, Urdaneta, and d'Eluyar.

Headless of the accusations of rashness lavished on his enterprise, Bolivar plunged into the province of Merida. The inhabitants of the provincial capital rose upon the Spaniards on learning the news of his approach. He hastily re-established the republican authorities there, while his van-guard was proceeding upon Trujillo, under Jirardot. A single engagement took place in Carache, where Jirardot defeated a strong corps of royalists under Canas, after which the provinces of Merida and Trujillo remained wholly free from the Spaniards. Bolivar had detached from his troops a small body under Colonel Briceno for the occupation of Varinas. Briceno was defeated; and, falling into the hands of the Spaniards, was shot in cold blood, with seventeen of his companions, and many of the patriots of Varinas, by the Spanish commandant Fiscar. Meanwhile, Bolivar obtained authentic intelligence of the horrid and shameful cruelties and oppressions every where perpetrated in Venezuela by Monteverde and his subordinate officers. Exasperated by the knowledge of these events, he issued the famous decree of *guerra á muerte*, condemning to death all the Spanish prisoners who might fall into his hands. But he was not of a cruel or sanguinary temper; and this decree seems to have been intended rather to intimidate the royalists than literally to be put in execution. His army increasing daily, he separated it into two divisions, committing one of them to the charge of Rivas, and both rapidly advanced upon Caracas through the provinces of Trujillo and Varinas. Several engagements ensued, in which the patriots were successful; and, at length, the decisive victory of Lastoguanes, in which the flower of Monteverde's troops were completely defeated, left open the road to Caracas. Monteverde shut himself up in Puerto Cabello, and Bolivar lost no time in marching upon the capital, which was evacuated by the Spaniards without a struggle. Meantime Marino had effected the liberation of the eastern provinces of Venezuela, of which the patriots had regained entire possession, excepting only the fortress of Puerto Cabello.

At this period, the whole authority in Venezuela

centred in Bolivar the successful general, as the commander of the liberating army, and the oppressions of some of his subordinate officers excited loud complaints. Nevertheless, convinced of the necessity of having the resources of the country, at such an emergency, in the hands of a single individual, it was resolved, in a convention of the principal civil and military officers, assembled at Caracas, in 1814, to confirm the dictatorial powers which circumstances had already thrown upon the general! A desperate contest now ensued between the royalist and patriot forces; and to narrate the part which Bolivar took therein would be to relate the whole history of the war. Suffice it to say that, after various vicissitudes of fortune, he was beaten by Boves, in a battle fought in the plains of La Puerta, near Cura, and compelled to embark for Cumana, with the shattered remnant of his forces, so that Caracas was retaken by the Spaniards, and the royalists were again undisputed masters of Venezuela. Once more, therefore, Bolivar appeared in Carthagena as a fugitive, and proceeded to Tunja, where the congress of New Grenada was sitting, to give an account of his brilliant, but, in the result, disastrous expedition. Notwithstanding his misfortunes, and the efforts of his personal enemies, he was treated with great consideration, and received the applause merited by one who had needed only resources proportionate to his talents to have accomplished the permanent deliverance of his country.

When Bolivar arrived at Tunja, the congress was organizing an expedition against the city of Bogota, for the purpose of compelling the province of Cundinamarca to accede to the general union of the provinces of New Grenada, and thus put an end to the collision which divided the means and crippled the exertions of the republicans. Every conciliatory measure having failed to effect a union of the provinces, the government had recourse to arms. Bolivar was entrusted with the delicate task of commanding the forces of the union upon this occasion, and marched against Santa Fé early in December, 1814, at the head of nearly 2000 troops. He invested the city, drove in the outposts, obtained possession of the suburbs by storm, and was preparing to assault the great square, where the dictator Alvarez and the troops of Cundinamarca were posted, when the latter capitulated and became subject thenceforth to the general government of New Grenada which was peaceably transferred to Bogota. The congress passed a vote of thanks to Bolivar for the wisdom and courage with which he had directed the campaign, and brought it so speedily to a happy termination; and the inhabitants of the city themselves expressed their approbation of his personal conduct.

Previous to this time, Santa Marta had fallen into the possession of the royalists, in consequence of the incapacity of Labatut, and the general government justly appreciated the importance of regaining it. Bolivar was accordingly employed upon this service, and was to receive the necessary munitions of war from the citadel of Carthagena; but the rivalry and jealousy of the military commandant, Castillo, defeated all his plans. Indignant at Castillo's conduct in refusing him the requisite supplies, Bolivar, after the season for acting against Santa Marta to advantage had been wasted in ruinous delays, invested Carthagena with his troops, hoping to intimi-

date Castillo into submission, or, if not, to reduce him to reason by force. But in the midst of these wretched dissensions, wherein both parties listened too much to resentment, Morillo arrived at the isle of Margarita with an overwhelming force from Spain, and Bolivar, aware that all further views upon Santa Marta were hopeless, threw up his command, and, finding that he could not be usefully employed at Carthagena, embarked for Jamaica to wait for better times. He remained in Kingston whilst Morillo was reducing Carthagena and overrunning New Grenada. During his residence there, a hireling Spaniard made an attempt upon his life, and would have assassinated him if it had not happened that another person occupied Bolivar's bed at the time, who was stabbed to the heart.

From Kingston, Bolivar repaired to Aux Cayes, in the island of Hayti, and assisted by private individuals, and with a small force furnished by Petion, formed an expedition, in conjunction with commodore Brion, to join Arismendi, who had raised the standard of independence anew in the Isle of Margarita. He arrived in safety at Margarita in May 1816, and, sailing thence, landed on the main land near Cumana, but in a few months was encountered by the Spaniards under Morales at Ocumare, and compelled to re-embark. Nothing disheartened by this failure, he obtained re-enforcements at Aux Cayes, and in December, 1816, landed once more in Margarita. There he issued a proclamation convoking the representatives of Venezuela in a general congress; and from thence passed over to Barcelona, where he organized a provisional government, and gathered forces to resist Morillo who was approaching with a powerful division. They encountered each other in a desperate conflict, which ended in Bolivar's obtaining the victory. Morillo retreated in disorder, and was met and defeated anew by general Paez, with his irresistible *Llaneroi*. Bolivar, being now recognised as supreme chief, proceeded in his career of victory, and, before the close of the year 1817, had fixed his head-quarters at Angostura. He found time, however, to preside at the opening of the congress of Angostura in February 1819, and to submit a long and elaborate exposition of his views of government. He also surrendered his authority into the hands of the congress, which required him to resume it, and to retain it until the independence of his country should be fully achieved. Bolivar soon reorganized his forces, and set out from Angostura with the purpose of crossing the Cordilleras, and effecting a junction with General Santander, who commanded the republican forces in New Grenada, so that the united arms of the two republics might act with the greater efficiency. He succeeded in reaching Tunja, which city he entered after a battle on the neighbouring heights, and, on the seventh of August gained the great and splendid victory of Bojaca, which gave him immediate possession of Santa Fe and all New Grenada. The viceroy Semano fled precipitately before him; and he was enthusiastically welcomed in Santa Fe as a deliverer, appointed president and captain-general of the republic, and enabled by the new resources of men, money, and munitions of war which he found there, to prepare for returning into Venezuela with an army sufficient to ensure the complete expulsion of the Spaniards.

Bolivar's entry into Angostura after his glorious

campaign in New Grenada was a peculiarly gratifying and affecting spectacle. Its whole population hailed him as the liberator and father of his country. He embraced the favourable moment to obtain the great fundamental law by which the republics of Venezuela and New Grenada were to be thenceforth united in a single state, by the title of the *republic of Colombia*. Meanwhile, the seat of government was transferred provisionally to Rosario de Cucuta; and Bolivar again took the field at the head of the most formidable army that had been assembled by the independents. After a series of memorable advantages over the Spaniards, an armistice of six months was negotiated at Trujillo, between Bolivar and Morillo; the latter soon afterwards returned to Spain, leaving La Torre in command. At the termination of the armistice, Bolivar made a great effort to finish the war by a decisive blow, and attained his object by vanquishing La Torre in the famous battle of Carabobo, leaving to the Spaniards only the broken fragments of an army which took refuge in Puerto Cabello, and there, after a protracted and obstinate struggle of more than two years, surrendered to General Paez.

The battle of Carabobo may be regarded as having put an end to the war in Venezuela, as Bolivar again entered Caraccas, having for the third time rescued his native city from its oppressors, and was received with transports of joy. By the close of the year, the Spaniards were driven from every part of the country, except Puerto Cabello, and Quito; and the time was deemed auspicious for establishing permanent political institutions in Colombia. A permanent constitution was completed, and Bolivar was elected the first constitutional president, with General Santander for vice-president. Having thus achieved the independence of his own country, he placed himself at the head of the liberating army destined to expel the Spaniards from Quito and Peru. The fate of Quito was decided by the battle of Pichincha, fought in 1822, and gained by the talents and prowess of Sucre. Aware that the southern provinces of Colombia could never be secure while Peru remained subject to Spain, and anxious to extend the blessings of independence to all America, Bolivar resolved to march upon Lima and assist the Peruvians. The royalists, not being prepared to meet him, evacuated Lima at his approach; and Bolivar entering the capital amid the acclamations of the people was invested with supreme power as dictator, and authorized to call into action all the resources of the country for its liberation. But, opposed and denounced by some of the factions which distracted Peru, he found himself under the necessity of returning to Trujillo in Northern Peru, leaving Lima to be retaken by the Spaniards under Canterac.

In June, 1824, the liberating army was completely organized, and soon after, taking the field, routed the vanguard of the enemy. Bolivar was anxious for the opportunity of a decisive engagement, and, in fact, soon obtained a brilliant victory, on the plains of Junin. Leaving Sucre to follow the royalists in their retreat into upper Peru, he repaired to Lima, to organize, the government; and, during his absence from the army, Sucre gained the splendid victory of Ayacucho. Nothing was now held by the Spaniards in Peru but the castle of Callao; which Rodil maintained for upwards of a year.

In June, 1825, Bolivar visited Upper Peru, which



detached itself from the government of Buenos Ayres, and was formed into a new republic, named *Bolivia*, in honour of the liberator. The members of the congress of the new republic, assembled in August 1825, seemed to vie with one another in extravagant resolutions, testifying their gratitude to Bolivar and Sucre. The former was declared perpetual protector of the republic, and requested to prepare for it a constitution and government. Returning to Lima he occupied himself in performing this task.

We have now arrived at a period when Bolivar appears in a new aspect. Hitherto we have traced his military career, at first uncertain, and abounding in great reverses, but at length splendidly successful. His remarkable fertility in resources, his courage, conduct, and preeminent genius for the art of war, are all undeniable, and are proved not less by his brilliant success than by the testimony of all the most competent judges. But he now comes before us in the capacity of a lawgiver; and imputations on the purity of his political views arise contemporaneously with his assuming the delicate task of consolidating the governments which his military prowess had created. In December, 1824, Bolivar issued a decree convoking a constituent congress to assemble in Lima the ensuing February. This body assembled accordingly; but, in consideration of the unsettled state of the country, resolved to continue the dictatorial powers of Bolivar another year, without attempting to settle the government permanently. They also urged on the dictator a grant of a million of dollars, which he, with the liberality of feeling and contempt of mercenary motives which invariably distinguished him, rejected. Congress soon adjourned, and Bolivar remained sole and absolute governor of Peru. Residing partly at Lima and partly at Magdalena, he directed the acts of the government, and, at this period, proposed the celebrated congress of Panama, for the purpose of establishing a stable alliance between all the independent states of America. Having completed his project of a constitution for Bolivia, he presented it to the congress of that state, with an address, dated May 25th, 1826, wherein he solemnly recorded his opinions of the form of government required by the new republics of the south. With reference to this extraordinary code, it is enough to state that, among other features which alarmed the friends of liberty, the most exceptionable was a provision for lodging the executive authority in the hands of a president for life, without responsibility, and with power to nominate his successor. When the nature of this constitution became generally known in South America, it excited the liveliest apprehensions, especially among the republicans of Buenos Ayres and Chile, who feared or pretended to fear an invasion from Bolivar; and not less in Peru, where he began to be accused of a design to unite permanently Colombia, Peru, and Bolivia, and to make himself perpetual dictator of the same. These imputations received countenance, at least, from the proceedings of Bolivar himself. The surrender of Callao, by completely freeing Peru from the Spaniards, finished the business for which Bolivar and the Colombian troops had been called into the country. But he manifested no intention of departing, or of resigning his authority. On the contrary, when the deputies for the constituent congress of 1826 assembled, they saw fit, or were

induced, for alleged irregularities in their appointment, and for other causes, to decline acting in their legislative capacity. A majority of the deputies published an address, in which they urged Bolivar to continue at the helm another year, and, meantime, to consult the provinces individually as to the form of government which they might desire, and the person who should be placed at its head. Accordingly, circular letters, written in the name of Bolivar, and his council of government, and issued from the bureau of his minister Pando, were addressed to the several prefects of departments, commanding them to assemble the electoral colleges, and submit, for their sanction a form of constitution precisely the same with the Bolivian code, only adapted to Peru. This constitution was adopted by the colleges, who also nominated the dictator president for life under it, with a unanimity too extraordinary not to have been the result either of intimidation or of management. Before this time, however, events had transpired in Colombia which demanded the presence of Bolivar in his own country. During his absence, the vice-president, Santander, had administered the government with ability and uprightness. Colombia had been recognised by other countries as an independent state; its territory was divided into departments, and its government regularly organized. But, in April, 1826, General Paez, who commanded in Venezuela, being accused before the Colombian senate of arbitrary conduct in the enrolment of the citizens of Caraccas in the militia, refused obedience to the summons of the senate, and placed himself in open rebellion to the national government and constitution. Taking advantage of this unhappy incident, the disaffected party in the ancient Venezuela, and all those opposed to the existing administrators of the government, united with Paez; and thus the northern departments became virtually separated, for the time being, from the rest of the republic. But all professed a readiness to submit their grievances to the decision of Bolivar, and anxiously required his return to Colombia. While these movements were taking place in Venezuela, professedly with a view to obtain a federal, instead of a central form of government, various municipalities in the southern departments, formed from what had been the presidency of Quito, held public meetings, in which they voted to adopt the Bolivian code, and lodged the authority of dictator in the hands of Bolivar. Evidence has been adduced, showing that the latter proceedings were in accordance with the wishes of Bolivar, and that the meetings were actually summoned by the personal intervention of Leocadio Guzman, an emissary of his, who suggested the resolutions they should pass; and suspicions have not been wanting that Paez was either incited or sustained by intimations received from the same quarter. These circumstances most imperiously demanded the presence of Bolivar, whether as the cause or object of the public distraction, or as the means of composing them. Accordingly, he set out for Lima, committing the government to a council of his own appointment, and responsible to him alone, with General Santa Cruz at its head, and leaving the whole of the Colombian auxiliary army in Peru and Bolivia. The dictator made all haste to reach Bogata, which he entered November 14, 1826, and assuming the extraordinary powers which, by the constitution, the president is authorized to exercise in case of rebellion, he remained only a few days in the



capital, and pressed on to stop the effusion of blood in Venezuela. He went, accompanied by merely a small escort, although forces were in readiness to sustain him if requisite, and all the demonstrations of insurrection vanished at his approach. He reached Puerto Cabello December 31st, and immediately issued a decree, giving assurance of a general amnesty to the insurgents, on their peaceably submitting to his authority, and engaging to call a convention for the reform of the constitution. He had a friendly meeting with Paez, and soon afterwards entered Caracas, where he fixed his head quarters, having the northern departments under his immediate personal authority, and separated from the body of the republic, which proceeded in its ordinary routine.

Bolívar and Santander had respectively been reelected to the offices of president and vice-president, and should have been qualified anew as such in January, 1827. But, in February, Bolívar addressed a letter from Caracas to the president of the senate, renouncing the presidency of the republic, and expressing a determination to repel the imputations of ambition cast upon him, by retiring to seclusion upon his patrimonial estate. Santander, in reply, urged him to resume his station as constitutional president, convinced that the troubles and agitations of the country, if they were not occasioned by the intrigues of Bolívar himself, might at any moment be quieted by his lending the authority of his name, and his personal influence, to the cause of the constitution. But distrust, suspicion, and jealousy of the conduct and intentions of Bolívar now filled all the friends of republican institutions. He had recorded his confession of political faith, to use his own expression, in the anti-republican Bolivian code, and he was believed to be anxious for its introduction into Colombia. When his renunciation of the presidency was submitted to the consideration of the congress, a portion of the members urged that body to accept the renunciation. They publicly accused him of being in concert with Paez, of having designedly thrown the whole nation into discord and confusion, in order to create a false impression of the necessity of bestowing upon himself the dictatorship. But a majority of the members insisted upon his retaining the presidency, and required his presence at Bogotá, to take the constitutional oaths. Before he came, however, they had passed a decree of general amnesty, a decree for assembling a national convention at Ocaña, and a decree for reestablishing constitutional order throughout Colombia. His arrival was hastened by unexpected events, touching him personally, which had occurred in Peru and the southern departments. Not long after his departure from Lima, the returns of the electoral colleges were received by the council of government, by which the Bolivian code was pronounced to be the constitution of Peru, and Bolívar the president for life. The constitution was accordingly promulgated officially, and was sworn to by the public functionaries in Lima, December 9, 1826, the anniversary of the victory of Ayacucho. At this time the Colombian auxiliary army in Peru was cantoned in three divisions, one stationed in Upper Peru and two in Lower Peru, one of these at Arequipa and one at Lima. This third division consisted of veteran companions of Bolívar's triumphs, and was commanded by his personal friends, general Lara and Sands. Notwithstanding the attachment of these troops to Bolívar, they had lately been growing

distrustful of his designs; and although they did not feel disposed, it would seem, to thwart his views upon Peru, they took alarm immediately when they saw cause to believe that he had similar views upon their own native Colombia. The consequence was that, in the short space of six weeks after the new constitution was solemnly adopted, they came forward, and revolutionized the government of Peru. So well were their measures taken, that, January 26, 1827, they arrested their general officers without any conflict or opposition, placed themselves under the command of Bustamante, one of their colonels, and announced to the inhabitants of Lima that their sole object was to relieve the Peruvians from oppression, and to return home to protect their own country against the alleged ambitious schemes of the dictator. The Peruvians immediately adjourned the Bolivian code, deposed Bolívar's council of ministers, and proceeded, in perfect freedom, to organize a provisional government for themselves.

Arrangements were speedily made, after this bloodless revolution was effected, to transport the third division to Guayaquil, according to their own desire. They embarked at Callao, and landed in the southern department of Colombia, part of them proceeding for Guayaquil and part for Cuenca and Quito, uniformly declaring their object to be the restoration of constitutional order, in opposition to any designs upon the public entertained by the dictator. Intelligence of these events reached Bolívar while he was still in the north of Colombia. Rousing himself instantly from his long-continued inactivity, he made preparations for marching to the other extremity of the republic and reducing the third division. But these troops, finding the government was in the hands of the regular national executive, had peaceably submitted to General Ovando, who was sent, by the constitutional authorities, for the purpose of taking the command. Bolívar meanwhile signified his consent to be qualified as president, and proceeded, with this intention, to Bogotá, where he took the oaths prescribed by the constitution, and resumed the functions belonging to his official station. To external appearance, therefore, Colombia was restored to tranquillity, under the rule of her constitutional magistrates. But the nation was divided between two great parties, and agitated to its centre by their opposite views of the political condition of the country. Bolívar had regained the personal confidence of the soldiers and officers of the third division, who expressed the deepest repentance for their distrust of his character, and their entire devotion to his interests. But the republican party, and the friends of the constitution, with Santander at their head, continued to regard his ascendancy over the army, and his political movements, with undisguised and not unfounded apprehension, universally accusing or suspecting him of a desire to emulate the career of Napoleon. They looked to the convention of Ocaña, which was to assemble in 1828, for a decided expression of the will of the nation in favour of the existing republican forms. The military, on the other hand, did not conceal their conviction that a stronger or more permanent form of government was necessary for the public welfare, that the people were unprepared for purely republican institutions, and that the dictator ought to be entrusted with discretionary power to administer the affairs of Colombia.

In 1828 Bolívar assumed the supreme power in

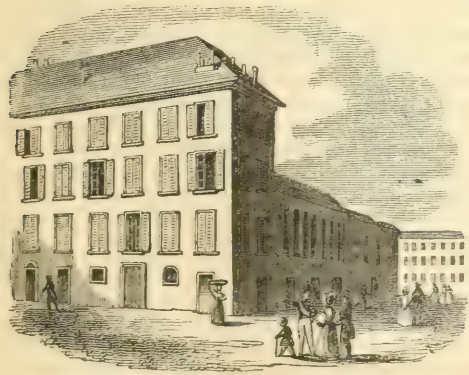


Colombia, by a decree, dated, Bogota, August 27th, which gave him authority to maintain peace at home, and to defend the country against foreign invasions, to have the command of the land and sea forces, to negotiate with foreign powers, to make peace and declare war, to make treaties, to appoint the civil and military officers, and to pass decrees and ordinances of every description. The decree provided, however, that he should be assisted in the exercise of executive power by the council of ministers.

We have thus traced somewhat in detail the progress of this extraordinary individual, and it may be enough to add that after his countrymen had again risen in arms against him, and again acknowledged their ingratitude to their liberator, he died at San Pedro, December 17, 1830. His political consistency in times of the severest trial, and his undeviating patriotism, are the best eulogium to his memory; and South America will in future ages look to him as the regenerator of a land which only requires equal laws to render it the envy of most European states.

**BONAPARTE, NAPOLEON.**—The history of this extraordinary soldier of fortune is in fact the history of continental Europe, of which he was the arbiter for nearly a quarter of a century. Of his family history we know but little, and even his paternal name is involved in mystery. In the early part of his life we find him in his own autographic communications invariably spelling his name as it stands at the head of this article, but at a later period he more frequently called himself *Buonaparte*. Carlo Bonaparte, his father, was a lawyer, or rather advocate, and Napoleon was born at Ajaccio, August 15, 1769. The island of Corsica, of which Ajaccio was then but a very inconsiderable town, appears to have been very much under the control of the celebrated Paoli, who became godfather to the young Napoleon, to whom, in after life, he was politically opposed.

Every thing which illustrates the origin of this extraordinary man is interesting, and the subjoined view of his birth-place is carefully copied from a sketch of undoubted authenticity. It may be proper to add that Bonaparte's residence only extends from the corner to the fourth window on the left, and it seems hardly possible that the future denizen of the Thuilleries could have drawn his early aspirations for imperial power in the humble mansion represented beneath.



The family of Bonaparte was highly respectable, although it had never been raised to the list of hereditary nobility, but Count Marbœuf, the French governor of Corsica, was the early patron of young Napoleon. By his influence he was introduced to the Royal Military School of Brienne when he was only ten years of age.

Little is known of Bonaparte until his arrival at this place. Schools are moral satellites, inferior worlds, exhibiting in miniature the same phases and obscured by the same passions as the presiding planet. It is not therefore surprising that a man who afterwards stood alone among his fellow-creatures should, when a boy, have separated himself from his school-fellows, and, retiring within the recesses of his own singularly-constructed mind, have looked down upon other students as human creatures with whom he had no kindred sympathies, excepting when they ministered to his prevailing taste or gratified his ambition. He applied himself at this period with much earnestness to the preliminary studies of the military art and the higher and more abstruse branches of mathematics: but general literature, and particularly the *belles lettres*, occupied but a small portion of his attention. The Ancient History and the Lives of Plutarch were resorted to by Napoleon as a recreation from his severer professional studies. It was the custom at Brienne for the students to receive a portion of ground, which they cultivated for their own amusement. Bonaparte enlarged his share by purchasing a neighbouring plot belonging to one of his companions. This garden he cultivated with the most assiduous care, surrounding it with palisades, and forming within bowers and recesses to which he retired to pursue, without interruption, his favourite occupations. He employed his leisure hours in this retreat, principally in the invention of military manœuvres, the construction of plans of fortifications, and in the arrangement of ideal armies in mimic order of battle. No spider could dart from its lines of concentricity upon a recreant fly which had profaned the arcanum of his meshes with greater avidity than did our young hero upon any of his school-fellows, who ever, accidentally or otherwise, invaded his verdant dominions.

Disliking the puerile amusements of his fellow-students, Bonaparte instituted Pyrrhic games, where, according to the custom of the ancients, he marshalled the boys in parties, representing alternately the Romans and the Carthaginians, the Greeks and the Persians. In these mimic contests, the embryo conqueror of Italy and Germany was beheld in the warmest parts of the encounter, directing, reproaching, exhorting, and kindling in the breasts of his associates a spark of that martial enthusiasm which already burned in his own bosom. The winter of 1784 happened to be extremely severe, and the fields of Champagne were long covered with snow. Bonaparte availed himself of this circumstance, and directed his companions to raise, under his superintendence, an extensive and regular fortification, in which forts, redoubts, bastions, ravelines, &c., were constructed in snow, according to the nicest rules of military art. These works were alternately besieged and defended by our hero, who ordered all the operations.

In October, 1784, Napoleon underwent an examination by the Chevalier de Renault, who found him well versed in the art of fortification; and he was elected to the Military School of Paris: a high distinction at that time, and in the present instance

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equally honourable to the discernment of the chevalier and the abilities of the pupil. On his arrival at Paris, the young Napoleon pursued, with unremitting assiduity, his military studies. In 1785, being found properly qualified, Bonaparte was appointed a lieutenant in a regiment of artillery; and soon afterwards joined his corps. About this period the death of the count Marbœuf, who had hitherto supplied him with money, rendered the young warrior's financial operations far less satisfactory than his military plans. It was now that a clear indication of approaching revolution in France appeared; and Bonaparte, who had distinguished himself amongst his brother officers by the transcendent superiority of his genius, strenuously espoused the popular party, which he maintained with so much zeal that his companions are said on one occasion to have been upon the point of drowning him, when he was fortunately rescued from their grasp.

Bonaparte did not remain long in the regiment in which he was first enrolled. He quitted that corps and repaired to Corsica, where he resided some time with his mother, then a widow, and in indigent circumstances. Whilst he remained in this state of seclusion, he continued his professional studies, amusing himself at intervals by composing a "History of Corsica," which was approved by the abbé Raynal, the Robertson of France. He soon afterwards repaired to Paris, where he remained until the year 1790. In 1791 Bonaparte, having re-entered the army, was appointed captain of artillery in the regiment of Grenoble, and quartered at Valence in Dauphiny. He was soon afterwards sent to Ajaccio to organize a battalion of national volunteers, and seize the small isles that lie between Corsica and Sardinia. During his performance of this service, he became acquainted with his countryman Pozzo di Borgo, afterwards so well known in the diplomatic world. The difference of their political sentiments metamorphosed their friendship into the most implacable hostility, and Napoleon narrowly escaped imprisonment from the machinations of Di Borgo. He then left Corsica, and proceeded to Nice with his regiment, where he superintended the army as an artillery officer between St. Remo and Nice. It was also a part of his duty to collect supplies for the French army of Italy from the southern departments of France, a service at that time attended, from the perturbed state of the districts, with considerable difficulty and some personal danger. Hitherto Bonaparte had been employed on occasions which only required ordinary talents; but the time was approaching when this military meteor was to astonish and terrify the nations of Europe by its portentous brilliancy. The first occasion which drew into particular notice the splendid abilities of Napoleon was the capture of Toulon, which surrendered to Lord Hood and an allied military force, composed of detachments from the armies of almost every power in hostility with France. His lordship took possession of it in the name of the French king, in 1793, proclaiming at the same time the constitution accepted by Louis in the Champ de Mars in 1790. The elements of discontent existed in an extraordinary degree in the south of France. The possession by an enemy of the first sea-port of the republic, and that enemy proclaiming its adherence to a form of government which had still many supporters among the people, was a disgrace and a calamity which

taxed to the uttermost the terrible energies of the Convention. A large army was raised, armed, and equipped with incredible rapidity, and furnished with a tremendous artillery.

The town and harbour of Toulon are commanded and almost envired by a chain of lofty and precipitous hills. The possession of these hills, and of the batteries raised upon them, was an object of primary importance to both armies. Desperate efforts were accordingly made for their acquisition or retention by each, with various and alternate fortune; but the French gained ground upon the besieged. In this situation the appointment of a competent officer for the scientific direction of the artillery of the besiegers engaged the anxious attention of the conventional commissioners, Barras and Freron, and their choice fell upon Bonaparte, who was then serving as an artillery officer. On entering his new command, he perceived the importance of occupying a strong position called Malbusquet, which commanded the tower and arsenal. On this height he constructed a battery of heavy cannon, and commenced a tremendous bombardment. The allied forces made a sally to recover the post. They succeeded in their original design; but, pursuing the enemy with precipitate courage too far, were overpowered by the French and compelled to retreat with great loss, as well as to resign Malbusquet. From this period the assaults of the besiegers became more terrible, the lines of the besieged growing every day more contracted. Throughout the operations of this protracted siege, the courage, promptitude, and genius of Napoleon, drew from his general, Dogomier, who afterwards commanded a French army in Spain, a public and highly flattering acknowledgment. It is stated that, in the midst of the engagement, Barras found fault with the direction of a gun which had been pointed under the order of Bonaparte: the latter requested he would attend to his duty as a naval commissioner; "I will do my duty," said he, "according to my own judgment, and be answerable for the consequences with my head." The results of the siege are well known. On December 20, 1793, the allies finally evacuated the town, burning the arsenal, and the ships in the harbour.

The recovery of Toulon, the capture of Lyons, the submission of Marseilles, the signal defeat of the duke of York by Houchard before Dunkirk, and the raising of the siege of Maubeuge by Jourdan, placed the Convention in comparative security, and enabled the Committee of Public Safety to pass the celebrated decree for arming and employing the whole male population of France in defence of the country. The campaign of the years 1794 and 1799 were accordingly eminently successful. Pichegreu on the side of maritime Flanders, and Jourdan on that of the Sambre and Meuse, after many sanguinary battles, drove the allied forces from the Netherlands into Germany.

The services of Napoleon were too important to be passed over: he was shortly after made general of brigade, and it was to him that the republic was indebted for the first successes which it obtained on the Italian frontier. At length, supported by the influence of Barras, he was appointed to the command of the conventional troops at Paris, with which he defeated those of the sections in the memorable struggle of the 5th of October, 1794. This influence



and the impression produced by his character and abilities continually increasing, at the desire of the officers and soldiers of the army of Italy he was appointed to the command of that army, and on the recommendation of his friend and patron, Barras, Bonaparte married Josephine Beauharnois, widow of the count de Beauharnois, who suffered under Robespierre. This event took place in March 1796, when Napoleon was only twenty-six years of age. His history as a military leader may be dated from this period. The army opposed to him consisted of 60,000 Austrians and Sardinians commanded by the Austrian general Beaulieu. After several encounters he wholly out-manœuvred the enemy, and in the course of April 1796 won the battles of Montenotte, Millesimo, and Mondovi, which obliged the king of Sardinia to sign a treaty in his own capital. On the 10th of the May following he gained the celebrated battle of Lodi, which displayed to great advantage his courage and military skill. This event put him in possession of Piedmont and the Milanese territory. The Austrians, obtaining reinforcements, now made great exertions to compel the French to raise the siege of Mantua. The activity and ascendancy of Bonaparte, however, rendered all their exertions fruitless; his central position afforded him the opportunity of engaging and defeating the opposing armies under Wurmser and Alvinci, one after the other, and Mantua capitulated. In the mean time the pope, the king of Naples, and the minor Italian princes were compelled to make peace with great sacrifices, but the Austrians still opposed him, and he then, with the rapidity for which his movements were so celebrated, penetrated through Friuli into Germany, and advanced within thirty leagues of Vienna. Not, however, being adequately supported by the French armies on the Rhine, his situation became critical; and, with the policy which knows as well when to treat as to fight, he promptly proposed negotiations; and this memorable campaign terminated in the treaty of Leoben, the preliminaries of which were signed on the 16th of April, 1797. This treaty left France in possession of Belgium and other conquests, and established a recognised republic in Italy. Before these preliminaries were ratified Bonaparte declared war against the republic of Venice, which could make little resistance, and took rapid possession of the fleet, arsenals, treasure, and territory of this once celebrated state. After making several important arrangements in the regulation of the Cisalpine republic which he had established at Milan, he signed a definitive treaty with the Austrians at Campo Formio, and returned to Paris, where he was received with great demonstrations of respect.

Bonaparte dictated some of his most striking despatches from Milan, and we have one before us from which we copy the subjoined autograph. It is strongly expressive of his conviction of universal victory, and the insignia of Liberty and Equality occupy a prominent feature on the face of the document.



We have now arrived at a very important period

in the life of this extraordinary man. The conqueror who could find no enemy to contend with in continental Europe resolved to seek for new laurels by the formation of an empire in the seat of the ancient Ptolemies. The weakness and corruption of the Ottoman divan had reduced the real authority of the Grand Seigneur in Egypt to a mere shadow of power, but, as France was on friendly terms with Turkey, the invasion of that country was a manifest breach of the laws of nations.

Bonaparte embarked on board a vessel of 120 guns on the 10th of May 1798, and he took with him an army of 40,000 men. There were also attached to it a great number of the most distinguished literati in France, and an immense collection of philosophical instruments. On 26th June the fleet arrived off Gozzo, a small island dependent on Malta, and Bonaparte, who had previously resolved on the capture of Malta, was secretly rejoiced when the Grand Master of the Order of St. John refused permission to the armament to take in water and provisions. Impregnable as the fortifications were to any external force, Bonaparte commenced his attack under the fairest auspices. A strong party amongst the knights had espoused French principles; the garrison was extremely weak, and entirely unprepared for resistance. Dissensions prevailed between the knights and the inhabitants. Anarchy, terror, and treason perplexed the councils of the Grand Master. In eight days, therefore, the island capitulated, and Bonaparte issued a proclamation, from which it would appear that he had exported to the east those tender mercies which he had so frequently lavished on the Italian nation.

Having left a garrison of 4000 men in Malta, the expedition departed for Egypt. On 27th June, the fleet being then within sight of the beach of Alexandria, Bonaparte issued a proclamation exhortatory to his soldiers and marines, and on 2d July a debarkation was effected. The French army had soon a foretaste of the sufferings which they subsequently endured. General Desaix, with his division, was ordered to advance on the road to Cairo. Every species of hardship was now experienced by the troops: a scorching sun, a poisonous wind, inflamed sands, dazzling the eye and cheating it at the same time with the illusion of distant water, consuming thirst, raging hunger, and the impossibility of diverging for a moment from the column, without being exposed to assassination by the Arabs, who hovered around it.

The division of Desaix was followed by the main body of the army; it being determined to proceed through the desert. On 10th July they arrived at Rahmanieh, having skirmished on the route with a party of 800 Mamelukes, who were easily discomfited. On quitting this station, however, the Mamelukes prepared for a more decided opposition at the village of Chebreisse, where they had assembled to the number of 4000. As they consisted wholly of cavalry, the French army was drawn up in squares by divisions, having the baggage in the centre of the squares, the artillery on the flanks, and the grenadiers formed in platoons. The Mamelukes advanced without the slightest attempt at order, at full speed and endeavoured to penetrate into the rear, and upon the flanks of the army: they were received on their near approach with a galling and destructive fire from the squares, which soon compelled them to

retreat, after losing 600 men. The French then advanced against the village, which was easily forced; and the Mamelukes fled towards Cairo. During the struggle, an action took place between a small flotilla, which had been equipped by order of Bonaparte, to proceed up the Nile, and co-operate with the army on its advance to Cairo, and a squadron of Mameluke boats. At first, the Mamelukes so far succeeded as to gain possession of, and plunder two vessels of the flotilla; but the superior science of the French prevailed: the vessels were retaken, and the naval armament of the Mamelukes entirely defeated. In this contest, however, a portion of the baggage of the republican army was irretrievably lost.

After this victory the troops pursued their march, harassed continually by the Arabs, and having their communication with Alexandria entirely cut off. The villages which they successively reached were abandoned; neither men nor cattle were to be seen; the soldiers lay upon heaps of corn, although they had not bread to eat; they were equally destitute of animal food, and subsisted only upon lentils, and a kind of thin cakes, which the soldiers made themselves by bruising the corn.

Pursuing his route to Cairo, Buonaparte met with the two Mameluke chiefs, Murad Bey and Ibrahim Bey, with 6000 of their followers, besides Arabs and Fellahs (the agricultural peasantry), assembled to resist his progress. At the village of Embaba, the Mamelukes no sooner perceived the army than they formed upon the plain, in front of his right. Beyond their left were beheld the celebrated pyramids, of which the imperishable mass has survived so many empires, and braved for more than thirty centuries the outrages of time. Behind their right was the Nile, the city of Cairo, the hills of Mokattam, and the fields of the ancient Memphis.

When Bonaparte had given his last orders, "Go," said he, pointing to the pyramids, "and think that from the height of those monuments forty ages survey our conduct." The armies, impatient to come to an action, soon closed with each other; and the Mamelukes were speedily overcome. The village of Embaba was then attacked, and carried at the point of the bayonet. 1500 Mamelukes perished in the field, or were drowned in the Nile; forty pieces of cannon, 400 camels, and the baggage, stores, and provisions in the camp fell into the hands of the conquerors. The latter were particularly acceptable, the French army having for fifteen days subsisted on vegetables without bread. The personal booty was immense; the horses of the slain Mamelukes, the splendid armour of their masters, and the contents of their well-filled purses, in some measure consoled the troops for their former privations. This battle was followed on the succeeding day, 23d July, by the surrender of Cairo upon capitulation, and the conquest of Lower Egypt was accomplished.

We have now to contemplate this extraordinary man in a novel and trying situation. Cut off from all communication with France, and reduced to depend upon the resources of his own powerful mind, which were incessantly called forth to oppose not only natural difficulties, but domestic and foreign opposition, the fleet of Lord Nelson, which had actually reached Alexandria three days before the arrival of the French armament, and, upon false intelligence, had proceeded from thence to Rhodes,

and afterwards towards Sicily, having received more correct information, returned to the bay of Aboukir, where it found the French squadron at anchor. On the 1st August was fought the decisive conflict which annihilated the French squadron, insulated the French army, electrified all Europe, cemented a new and more formidable coalition against France, and contributed, with other brilliant achievements, to place Lord Nelson in the same niche in the temple of glory as Andrew Doria, De Ruyter, Van Tromp, and Blake.

In the mean time fortune favoured the enterprises of the French army. Murad and Ibrahim Bey, the Mameluke chiefs, had divided their forces soon after the battle of Embaba. The former proceeded towards Upper Egypt, and the latter towards Syria, rallying in his retreat 4000 Mamelukes, and expecting to be joined by a still greater number. Against Ibrahim Bonaparte marched, and soon obliged him to retire, after which the French general retraced his steps to Cairo. It was after his return that Napoleon held that conversation with the Mufti and Imams of Cairo, in a celebrated vault of the pyramid of Cheops.

In the mean time Desaix's division was attacked at the village of Lediemar, in Upper Egypt, by a force of Mamelukes, headed by Murad Bey. After the battle, which was fierce, the French, although the advantage was on their side, still remained in a situation of considerable danger.

The commerce which had for ages been carried on through the medium of caravans between the central part of Africa and Cairo had languished, from the ferocity of the Arabs, the exactions of the Mamelukes, and the disorder which pervaded every branch of the administration. The powerful aid of Napoleon was extended for the protection of the merchants; and this trade, so beneficial to the inhabitants of Egypt, in a great measure revived. The *savans* who accompanied the army were detached upon services immediately connected with the branches of science they professed; and Bonaparte meditated a journey to Suez to explore, in person, the vestiges of that celebrated canal, the formation of which had successively engaged the labours and excited the curiosity of Cambyzes, Alexander, and the Ptolemies, when his attention was recalled to a nearer interest. This was no other than an insurrection in the city of Cairo, in which it is believed that the French were themselves the first aggressors, and misinterpreted the assembling of the inhabitants for a religious ceremony into a rebellious movement. Bonaparte assembled his troops, cannonaded the streets with grape-shot, forced open the gates of the mosques, the principal of which, and other stations of the insurgents, were set on fire, and massacred a great number of the people.

In the mean time Ibrahim Bey had withdrawn his treasures to Djeddar Pacha, at Acre, who had received him with the greatest cordiality, and made preparations for the invasion of Egypt, as a prelude to which he had taken possession of the Port of El Arish, in the neighbourhood of Suez.

Having, with his usual energy, completed his preparations for the Syrian campaign, and with his wonted foresight garrisoned the most important positions in his rear, and stationed the remainder of his troops in such a position as to ensure the subjection of Egypt during his absence, Bonaparte set



out, accompanied by a force of about 10,000 men. The first operation was the capture of the Fort of El Arish, garrisoned by 2500 troops of Djézzar. The attack of this fortress lasted from the 6th to the 20th of February, 1799, when the garrison capitulated. The conquest of El Arish was a point of the first importance to Bonaparte. It was like the ancient Pelusium—the key of Egypt on that side. The army then proceeded, and suffered inconceivably during a march of sixty leagues over burning sands, with a very scanty supply of water. Having at length passed the desert which divides Egypt from Palestine, the army advanced to Gaza, of which they took possession, with all its magazines and stores. From thence they marched to Jaffa, a strong and very important place in the direct road to Acre, and garrisoned by a large body of Turkish soldiers, in which a train of artillery, sent to Djézzar by the Grand Seigneur, was deposited. The siege commenced, but was of short duration. Jaffa was carried by storm, and the whole garrison was put to the sword. A different colour has been given to this transaction by different writers, one party calling it a cold-blooded massacre, whilst the friends of Napoleon argue that the natives, having broken their parole, had exposed themselves to the severity of military law.

After the capture of Jaffa, the French army passed on to Acre, without encountering any material opposition. In the middle of March they arrived at a *plateau*, which overlooked the town of Acre, so celebrated in the time of the Crusades, and now equally distinguished as being the first place in the career of Bonaparte at which he received a decided shock. At the commencement of this celebrated siege, Bonaparte was for the first time opposed by British troops and sailors; and here he was completely foiled in an enterprize in which, had he succeeded, it is not improbable that he might have continued his victorious march to the shores of the Dardanelles. In an early part of the siege, the flotilla containing the implements Bonaparte intended to have employed in the reduction of Acre was captured. In this emergency he was obliged to use only field-pieces; and, a breach apparently practicable having been made in a tower in the line of attack, the French grenadiers attempted to storm it, but found themselves unexpectedly stopped by a deep ditch, which they were unable to scale, and where they were exposed not only to a galling and destructive fire from their enemies on the margin of the ditch, but to every species of missiles showered on them by the troops in the tower. The attack was unsuccessful, and the operations were relaxed in consequence of the departure of Bonaparte from the camp, with a force amounting to 4000 men, to oppose an army of 30,000 men, which the emissaries of Djézzar had raised in different parts of Syria. With this handful of troops, Bonaparte discomfited, by a combination of masterly manœuvres, the motley host of his enemies, upon a line of nearly thirty miles on the side of Damascus, and upon the fords of the river Jordan. Having thus secured his flanks, he returned to the siege of Acre. It was peculiarly fortunate for Djézzar that Bonaparte was thus occupied, for, during the interval of his operations against the mountain tribes, the English flotilla, under the command of Sir Sydney Smith, was blown off the coast; but on its return formidable additions were made to the works of Acre. On the other hand, the French

admiral Perrée had arrived with three twenty-four, and six eighteen-pounders, and a supply of ammunition, which enabled Bonaparte to resume offensive operations with increased vigour. Breaches were repeatedly made in the outworks, which were attempted to be stormed by the French grenadiers, who acted with unexampled gallantry. The defence was obstinate as the attack. The amphibious genius of Sir Sydney Smith, equally adapted to naval and military operations, was eminently displayed upon this occasion. And after a severe struggle the French were driven off with great loss. Still, however, Bonaparte persevered, and shortly after made a desperate assault upon a ruined tower, which he succeeded for a time in carrying. They were again repulsed, and, after a severe struggle, finally compelled to retreat with a very considerable loss. Bonaparte having thus failed in the principal design of his expedition, namely the capture of Acre, and with it the conquest of Syria, it only remained for the French general to abandon the siege altogether. The necessity of providing for the approaching attack upon Alexandria, and the disturbances which took place in some Egyptian provinces, furnished Bonaparte with the pretext he stood in need of.

The retreat of the French army to Cairo was painful in the highest degree. Harassed continually on a march over burning sands, the sick accumulated in number, and in inveteracy of disease. It was during this retrograde movement that Bonaparte contracted that heavy stain on his character—namely, of having directed the invalids in the hospital at Jaffa, whose cases were deemed incurable, to be poisoned. Napoleon did not in after life deny giving the order to the physician to destroy the sick; but he insisted that it was executed, and designed only to be executed, in a very few instances, that the invalids could neither be removed nor cured, that to have left them alive would have been to have exposed them to the murderous fury of the Turks, and, moreover, that regard for the safety of the French army induced him to issue the order.

In the mean time Desaix had pursued his march into Upper Egypt until his arrival at Cosseir, a port in the Red Sea, where he found a British armament, the apprehension of an attack from which constrained him to act on the defensive. Bonaparte did not long remain at Cairo. He received information that the indefatigable Murad Bey was advancing with a corps of Mamelukes towards Suez, that the movement was combined with the march of a body of Arabs, and that everything portended an immediate invasion from Europe. With his usual energy he immediately proceeded to Rahmanieh, chasing Murad in his retreat. On his arrival at Alexandria, the French general learned that a force of 15,000 Turks had landed at Aboukir, that they had begun to entrench themselves, and that the fort had already surrendered. Summoning from every part of Egypt the whole of his remaining disposable force, Bonaparte proceeded to Aboukir, and, after a short *reconnaissance*, decided upon attacking the enemy. The forces of the pacha were drawn up in two lines, the second of which occupied a very strong position. The first line was attacked and routed after a short but spirited conflict. The second, whose *point d'appui* was the fortress of Aboukir, made a brave and even desperate defence. The second line of the Turkish army having gained, as was imagined, a considerable advantage

over the French, was so imprudent as to quit the intrenchments and precipitate itself upon the enemy. The eagle eye of Bonaparte discerned this capital error, by which he immediately profited. While the Turks were opposed in front, a division of the French army penetrated by a short circuit into their rear, and attacked the intrenchments, which were speedily carried. A charge of cavalry completed their defeat. Broken and dispirited, unable either to fight or fly, those who escaped the bayonets of the infantry and the sabres of the cavalry rushed into the sea, where the greater part of them perished within sight of their comrades on board the Turkish squadron, who were too distant to lend them any succour. Mustapha Pacha, the Turkish general, with 2000 men, the tents, baggage, and twenty pieces of cannon, were taken: 2000 men were killed, besides those who were drowned. A very few days only elapsed when the fort of Aboukir surrendered. Thus the French army was left without any enemy in the field except the predatory hordes of Arabs and a few Mamelukes; but, notwithstanding the brilliant victory of Aboukir, the penetration of Bonaparte soon discovered that the expedition had in reality failed. His army was decreasing daily by the combined influence of the sword and the diseases peculiar to the climate. The destruction of the French fleet exposed them to successive invasions. Their very triumphs threatened and almost ensured their final destruction; for no reinforcements could be expected from France, nor any recruits raised in the country upon whom it was possible to depend. Acting on this important knowledge, Bonaparte resolved on two important measures, his own return to France, and the evacuation of Egypt by the French army. In the former of these resolutions he was determined by the intelligence he received of the reverses of the republican armies in Europe.

Having directed two frigates to be secretly prepared in the roads of Alexandria, Bonaparte embarked with Berthier, Marmont, Murat, and other of his generals, on the 23d of August, 1799. The command of his army had been previously consigned to Kleber. The usual good fortune of Bonaparte attended him during the voyage: he escaped from an English squadron of seven ships. And on the 16th of October he landed safely at Frejus, in Provence, and proceeded to Paris. The dissolution of the Directorial government had been long planned; and the execution of the scheme, with the rank of first magistrate of the Republic, had been successively offered to Moreau and Joubert, both of whom declined the office. Bonaparte, however, entered warmly into the conspiracy.

The first measure adopted was to appoint a private meeting of a part of the Council of Ancients, to whom an outline of the intended revolution had been communicated November 9th, 1799 (and who nominated Bonaparte commandant of the armed force of Paris), and, resolving to adjourn to St. Cloud, confided to him the execution of their mandate. The first use he made of his new appointment was to invest the garden of the Thuilleries with a strong body of troops; and his next, to compel the resignation of those of the Directory who would not co-operate with him. The Council of Five Hundred had a stormy discussion under the presidency of Lucien Bonaparte, who, taking advantage of the tumult, adjourned the assembly. At night strong

patrols of troops paraded the public squares and streets of Paris. At length, on the memorable 10th of November, the troops took possession of all the avenues leading to St. Cloud at a very early hour. And the Council of Five Hundred, in which were many Jacobins, commenced their deliberations. The influence of the conspirators over this assembly was inconsiderable, but few of the members were acquainted with the real motives of this extraordinary session. Accordingly many propositions were made and carried directly adverse to their designs; amongst others, an oath was tendered to each member of fidelity to the constitution. Alarmed and irritated, Bonaparte repaired to the Council of Ancients, and addressed them with considerable vehemence. He subsequently entered the council room of the Assembly, accompanied by a few grenadiers, all unarmed. His presence increased the tumult to phrensy. In vain did Lucien attempt to exert his authority as president. The danger of his brother increased momentarily, and he was only rescued from immediate death by the grenadiers, who finally carried him out of the saloon. When Napoleon had withdrawn, several members proposed to outlaw both him and Lucien, and the situation of the latter became so perilous that Bonaparte, after addressing the soldiers, and receiving their assurances of fidelity and attachment, caused the door of the saloon to be opened, and rescued his brother, who immediately repaired to the Council of Ancients.

The last scene of his singular drama was now approaching. Napoleon, availing himself of the outrage offered to his own person, gave the division a command to clear the council-room, which was accordingly occupied in a moment by soldiers with their fixed bayonets. The *pas de charge* was beat; and after some vain efforts on the part of certain members to convert the troops, they precipitated themselves out of the windows. The Council of Ancients, apprized of these events, appointed a temporary commission of three members, who were to replace the Directory. In the evening this assembly again met; a decree was passed in the Council of Five Hundred, designating the names of the new consular committee, as it was termed, namely, Bonaparte, Sieyes, and Roger Ducas, degrading from the station of members of the council those persons who had opposed and threatened Napoleon, and appointing a committee of twenty-five members of its own body, in conjunction with an equal number of delegates from the Council of Ancients, who were to represent the two councils, and in concert with the consular committee to prepare and digest a new plan of government. In this decree the Council of Ancients readily concurred, and a proclamation was issued, in which the vices of the old constitution and the ruinous effects of those vices were strongly stated, and a flattering picture drawn of the millennium which was to follow under the auspices of the consular government. The administration now became essentially military, and therefore in its system of action despotic; but the most valuable portion of the liberties of the French nation, namely, security for persons and property, appeared to be much better defended under the new than under the former régime.—Bonaparte was shortly after nominated chief consul, with Cambaceres and Le Brun as second and third consuls. The new constitution was at length promulgated; the whole executive authority was vested



in the first consul, his companions in office possessing only a consulate voice.

The bodily fatigues endured by the first consul materially affected his health, and his friends seriously feared for the result, but he still retained the fine classical features which characterized him through life. The accompanying accurate sketch from the best likeness then taken is highly interesting.



The repeated defeats of the French troops under Massena and Soult in 1800 induced all classes to direct their attention to Bonaparte, as the only chief likely to extricate the republic. Encouraged by the late failures of the French arms, the royalists in Brittany and Normandy had again risen in arms to the number of 60,000 men. Napoleon's plan in this case was that of general conciliation: he expressed a desire of peace, not only with royalists, but even with emigrants, whom he invited by a proclamation to return. Many constitutionalists, relying on the faith of government, daily came back to France, as well as numbers of those who fled in the time of Robespierre, or at the convulsion in 1797; even estates were restored, so far as the restitution did not violate the new tenures of property. Still the Chouans persisted in the revolt; but in the beginning of this year the first consul detached a considerable portion of them from the confederacy, and, when pacific measures did not succeed, he effectually employed force with the rest. Early in spring he had entirely crushed the insurrection; and having established internal tranquillity, he made preparations for prosecuting the war.

In February a proclamation was issued, complaining of the obstinacy of Great Britain in continuing hostilities, and inviting the French to furnish subsidies and men necessary for the acquisition of peace; at the same time it was deemed expedient that a force of 60,000 conscripts should be assembled at Dijon. Of this the first consul intended to take the command himself; while its denomination of an "army of reserve" was calculated to deceive the Austrians with regard to its future destination.

The state of affairs in Italy has been already described. On the side of Germany, Moreau commanded 100,000 men, extending from Switzerland to Mentz, his left wing being secured by Prussian

neutrality, and his right by the Helvetic Alps; while his rear was protected by its communication with France and Belgium. With this formidable host he directed his march towards Vienna, with the double purpose of making an impression in that quarter and of drawing off the enemy's attention from the recovery of Italy. On the 25th of March he crossed the Rhine in four divisions, and formed a junction of his forces in Suabia, with the Lake of Constance on his right. By various manœuvres, he turned the right wing of the opposing army; and, in a series of engagements bravely contested on both sides, he was eventually so successful that he commanded Franconia and Suabia on the left, laying both these countries under contributions, intercepting supplies, and destroying many magazines; in front, he occupied the attention of the whole Austrian army; and, from his right he was able to send detachments to the south. In this manner, for near two months, he kept his adversaries ignorant of his designs, alarmed the Austrians by marches and feigned irruptions for the safety of their hereditary states, and prevented them from prosecuting effective operations in the Italian provinces.

At length the time was come when Napoleon's presence was required; informed of the critical situation of Massena, he placed himself at the head of his troops in Burgundy, with the intention of passing the Alps, and descending in the rear of the Austrian army, which was now directed towards the Savoy Alps, in pursuit of Suchet: their commander, Melas, had his head-quarters at Alessandria; and thus his communications would be cut off, his plans deranged, his troops obliged to counter-march and take new positions, whilst a defeat would be ruin. These views were too bold to have entered into the Austrians' conception: and Bonaparte well knew the value of a surprise in warfare. On the 6th of May the first consul left Paris; and on the 15th his army reached the Great St. Bernard, when the soldiers, inspired with an enthusiastic admiration of their general, quickly surmounted all the difficulties of that Alpine region, which was considered only pervious to foot passengers and mules: dismounting their artillery, they placed their guns in troughs hollowed out of trees, and these were drawn by 500 or 600 men, according to the size of the piece; the wheels, fixed on poles, were carried on their shoulders; and tumbrils, being emptied, were placed with their axletrees on sledges. In May, the winter is still unmitigated in those wild regions; while the dangers and difficulties of the ice and snow are terribly increased by the constant fury of the whirlwind. A large sum of money had been transmitted to the monks of the convent, to provide refreshment for the exhausted soldiers; and, thus relieved, they resumed their march with alacrity towards the valley of Aosta, till they arrived at the little fortress of Bard, which, by the strength of its position, stopped the way. It was summoned and cannonaded, but all in vain. In the darkness of the night, however, the road beneath was strewed with straw, and the cannon silently passed over it. Had its commander, by opening his fire, delayed their advance much longer, all the advantages of surprise might have been lost to the invaders. Bonaparte, following the course of the Dora and Po, entered Milan and Pavia, having seized all the letters passing between Melas and the Aulic council.



Established in Milan, and waiting for reinforcements from the army of Switzerland, he despatched his different generals to seize the towns on the Po; while Murat, in capturing Piacenza, intercepted a courier with the tidings of the fall of Genoa. This misfortune left to Napoleon [no object but that of giving battle to Melas, who had concentrated his forces at Alessandria; while the army which had reduced Genoa marched to surprise the advanced posts of the French as they passed the Po; but they were met by Lannes at Montebello, and driven back on Melas with a loss of 5000 men, a presage of the terrible slaughter that was about to ensue.

The French army now took a very strong position at Stadilla, in order that Suchet might close on the rear of the Austrians, whilst Massena brought up the liberated garrison of Genoa. As Melas showed no signs of movement, and Bonaparte feared that he might escape by marching either northward towards Pavia or southwards towards Genoa, he determined to descend into the plains of Marengo, though he gave an advantage to his enemies who were on the other side of the Bormida, and at liberty either to attack or to defend the course of that river; so little activity, however, did Melas exhibit that Napoleon detached Desaix on his left, to prevent any movement of his adversary towards Genoa; but at that moment the Austrian had decided in a council of war that the only mode of reaching Genoa in safety was to give battle to his opponents.

On the morning of the 14th of June, the Austrians crossed the river by three bridges, and found the French not drawn up in line, but thrown back in separate divisions at considerable intervals, extending from the village of Marengo to their headquarters at San Giuliano; at the former point the first attack was made, but the Imperialists, instead of marching boldly to the charge, deployed, planted batteries, and endeavoured to effect by the fire of artillery what an assault might have carried at once; and this afforded time for Bonaparte to recal Desaix: the right and left of the Austrians, however, composed chiefly of superb cavalry, swept all obstacles before them, and turning toward the centre at Marengo expelled the enemy, and threw them into such confusion that Melas, thinking the battle won, and having sent a large body of cavalry to stop the advance of Suchet, retired to Alessandria to write his despatches. Napoleon, however, was preparing to make a stand at San Giuliano, and avenge his previous defeat; there Desaix joined him, and applauded his resolve; the artillery was planted in one tremendous battery, commanding the high road, along which the Austrians moved in column, as to certain victory, commanded by General Zach, in the absence of Melas.

As the imperialists approached, the battery was unmasked, and swept their ranks; while Desaix led up his fresh division on one side, and Kellerman on the other, with a brigade of cavalry, watched an opportunity to charge; he soon found it, cut through the column, recharged and traversed it several times with such slaughter that the foremost division, with its commander, laid down their arms; the rest then fled in utter confusion across the wide plain of Marengo towards the bridges, pursued and slaughtered by the victorious foe. The brave Desaix had fallen by a musket-ball at the moment of his advance, but the charge of young Kellerman was the decisive

movement; and when Napoleon, after the battle, exhibited so much jealousy as to offer lukewarm praise to the brave officer who directed it, by calling it "opportuno," the answer was, "Opportune, indeed; for it has placed the crown on your head."

The consequences of this short campaign were as important as those of the long struggle in 1796; all the advantages of Suwarroff were lost in a day; Alessandria was taken; Genoa was re-occupied; the Austrians, entering into an armistice, retired behind the Mincio; and Napoleon returned in triumph to Paris, after proclaiming his resolve that Lombardy and Liguria should now form one powerful republic, establishing a provisional administration at Milan. On the 14th of July he celebrated the anniversary of the revolution in the Champ de Mars; and on that spot where deputies from all parts of France had met to swear solemn vows to liberty a military dictator now appeared, in the midst of his guards, bearing the Austrian standards taken at Marengo. The acclamations of the people were the same at both epochs; for in Napoleon, the overturner of ancient dynasties, the conqueror of their ancient foes, and the re-modeller of their decayed constitutions, they still saw the representative of what they called liberty and the revolution.

In the mean time the imperial army opposed to Moreau having retired before that general from Ulm toward Bavaria, the French took possession of Munich, and laid the country under heavy contributions: at the same time, the right wing, under Lecourbe, drove the Austrians from the Grisons, and entered the Tyrol; while on the left a new army of French and Batavians were preparing to penetrate into Franconia and Bohemia. The court of Vienna, always more vigorous under adverse than prosperous fortune, animated also by the exhortations and supplies of Great Britain, had hitherto refused the terms offered by the enemy; but, as he now menaced the very heart of their dominions, it was judged expedient to sue for an armistice, which Moreau, with Bonaparte's sanction, granted on the 14th of July, and on the 24th of the same month the preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris.

In the midst of these warlike occupations Bonaparte still continued to promote the internal prosperity of France; and amidst other ameliorations which distinguished this period was the revising of the list of emigrants, and the restoring to their native country not only individuals, but entire classes of persons. While thus engaged in projects that so much benefited his country, an attempt was made to assassinate him as he was going to the opera in his carriage, December the 6th, by means of the explosion of the celebrated infernal machine, in a narrow street. His preservation was almost miraculous; but the circumstance furnished the government with a pretext to establish tribunals, with *extraordinary commissioners*, who superseded the functions of jurors in all cases of a public nature, affecting the security of the administration. By a decree of this tribunal the most celebrated and obnoxious of the terrorists were banished to Cayenne, without the form of a trial. We should digress too far from our main object were we to enter into a detail of the northern confederacy as established by the emperor Paul, formally acceded to by Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, and which, at the close of the eighteenth century, threatened the very existence of Great Britain by its



formidable navy, as the assertion of the principles which it advocated struck at the root of her highest maritime prerogatives.

The emperor Francis long refused to ratify the preliminaries agreed to by his minister. Notice was, therefore, given in the usual form of the rupture of the armistice, and when it expired Moreau attacked the whole line of the Austrian army. In this attack he was repulsed, but on the next day was fought the great battle of Hohenlinden. The Austrian army was commanded by the archduke John, and was divided into columns, which advanced to the attack of the French lines; but it did not escape the experienced eye of Moreau that intervals were left between the columns in the line of their march, of which he dexterously availed himself, and, penetrating between the centre and wings, destroyed the connection of the different divisions; thus placing them between two fires. The result was the entire defeat of the Austrians, with the loss of about 10,000 men. This was the last great event of the campaign, and the Austrian monarchy was only preserved from destruction by the convention of Steyer, concluded within ninety miles of Vienna. The terms of this armistice were of course very favourable to the French. This treaty was subsequently extended to Italy. The treaty of Luneville, between the emperor Francis and the republic, was now organized, and Great Britain was left alone to struggle with France. Great discontent prevailed in the French army, which still remained in Egypt, especially with their general, Menou. A powerful expedition, commanded by Sir Ralph Abercrombie, sailed from this country to expel the invaders, and a landing was with considerable difficulty effected on the 8th of March, 1801. A battle took place at Nicopolis, but the decisive blow was struck by the British in the neighbourhood of Alexandria, where the gallant Abercrombie ended a life of glory by a death of triumph. Foiled in all his attempts to penetrate the British lines, Menou returned to his original position with great loss. His troops were more numerous than those of his opponents, and were besides inured to the climate; but, with ample means of presenting a protracted resistance, the French general was deficient both in talent and resolution. Cairo and Alexandria surrendered; and the French army returned to their own country upon capitulation. This great event, the most brilliant achievement of the British arms since the days of Marlborough, removed the most important difficulties in the way of a general pacification. A negotiation had been on foot some months, and the preliminaries of peace were signed 1st October, 1801. By this famous convention, France recovered all her colonies, and retained possession of all her conquests, with the exception of Naples and the Roman states, provisionally occupied by her troops. It is hardly necessary to add that, although in this country the terms of the preliminary treaty were severely and vehemently condemned by Lord Grenville's party, it was received in France (as indeed it had been welcomed by the great majority of the nation here) with enthusiastic demonstrations of joy. At this period Napoleon had attained the true meridian of his greatness. France, enlarged to the extent of her empire, compact in her territories, increased in her population, secure in a strong government,—an object of terror to her ancient rival, Austria, and of respect to her com-

petitor, Great Britain, and by the restoration of her colonies enabled to assume some importance as a commercial nation,—was placed in a most brilliant and enviable situation among the nations of modern Europe.

Bonaparte, having accomplished the signature of the preliminary treaty with Great Britain, had now leisure to execute a design, which it is probable he had harboured since the battle of Marengo; this was no other than the assumption of the sovereignty of the Cisalpine republic, under the specious title of president for ten years. To effect this scheme, the notables of the Cisalpine republic were summoned to attend the chief consul at Lyons, whither Bonaparte repaired on 11th of January, 1802, leaving Earl Cornwallis the British ambassador in Paris.

Not satisfied, however, with the sovereignty of the Cisalpine, or, as it was now denominated, Italian republic, the new president, about this period, concluded a treaty with Spain, by which she added Louisiana to France, with Parma and the island of Elba; the two last upon the demise of the reigning duke. By another treaty Portuguese Guiana was ceded to France, a tract of country of great extent. General Thereau was also deputed to take possession of the Valais, with a view to its incorporation with France. Alarmed at these rapid assumptions of power, the British government signified to Bonaparte that he must now turn his attention to the negotiations with Lord Cornwallis, which had been verbally suspended some months. They were accordingly resumed, and produced the definitive treaty of Amiens, signed 25th March, 1802.

In order to conciliate the people of France by enlarging the prerogatives of the Gallican church, as well as to restrain the usurpations of the Roman pontiff, and place him completely in his power, Bonaparte wrested from the pope the celebrated *Concordat*, with the purport of which our readers are doubtless well acquainted. This event, so important, and upon the whole so beneficial to France, was celebrated by the performance of high mass at the cathedral of Notre Dame. On this occasion Bonaparte assumed the state of a monarch: his carriage was drawn by eight horses superbly caparisoned, the *cortege* which followed him was remarkably brilliant, and included a number of servants in superb liveries, although in direct violation of a law passed in the time of the former republic. Soon afterwards Bonaparte still further extended his lenity to the emigrants by a formal decree, which restored many of that unfortunate class of people to their country, and enacted a new order of privileged persons, who were styled the Members of the Legion of Honour. This body consisted of individuals eminently distinguished for their public services: they were divided into classes of respective merit.

Having thus concluded peace on the most favourable terms with all the enemies of France, established a vigorous government in every branch of its administration, fostered agriculture, endeavoured to encourage commerce, patronized the fine arts, established toleration, restrained the turbulence of faction, elicited order from a chaos of misrule, and recalled victory to the French standard, the first consul deemed the favourable moment arrived when he might openly assume the power, but not the title, of an hereditary monarch. With this impression, after some political coquetry with the senate, he accepted the title of chief consul for life, with the power of



naming his successor! The situations of his colleagues in the consulate were also rendered lifehold. He was gratified with the privilege of adding forty members to the senate; and his power was still further increased, so as to render him the absolute master of his adopted country. This point being carried, he had leisure to concert with the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia, the plan of what was called the German Indemnities. In the execution of this enterprize, Bonaparte acted with peculiar severity to Austria, and shortly after the treaty of Amiens was broken by the French, who invaded Switzerland on the plea of quelling the factions which agitated that beautiful country. Some time previous to this event a new constitution had been recommended to the Swiss people by the French government. The promulgation of this constitution gave rise to an immediate insurrection, in which Schuytz, Uric, Unterwalden, Glaris, and other cantons distinguished themselves by their opposition to the French party. The insurgents prevailed for a time, obtained possession of Berne, and endeavoured to induce the great continental powers to support them. A powerful army, however, soon enforced Bonaparte's commands; deputies were convened from the different cantons, and ordered to Paris, where, under the eye of the chief consul, they formed a new constitution for the Swiss, which was soon afterwards promulgated; and, as its execution could not be opposed, it was submitted to by the people, whom Bonaparte treated with great indulgence.

From the operation of a variety of causes, the order of the knights of Malta was rapidly hastening to its dissolution. The establishment of knights of different countries were suppressed: difficulties occurred in procuring the guarantees stipulated in the treaty of Amiens, for the independence of the island and of the order, which, combined with Sebastiani's report, and the offence taken by Lord Whitworth the English ambassador, in a conversation he held with the first consul at one of his levees, induced our ministry to issue an order for the investment of Malta, and a precautionary armament to secure its detention. Matters were now hastening to an extremity, and, after an armistice of somewhat less than a year, war was proclaimed between the two countries. The first measure adopted by Bonaparte on the renewal of hostilities was a decree to imprison all the English then in France, from the age of eighteen to sixty, on the ground that two merchant vessels had been captured by two English frigates before a declaration of war. The attention, however, of the first consul was soon diverted to nearer objects. A conspiracy against the government was formed by Georges a Vendean, General Pichegru, and some other individuals of less note, with the knowledge, as it was affirmed, and consent of General Moreau. These persons were arrested, tried, and found guilty.

Moreau was pardoned on condition of his exiling himself to America, whither he soon after repaired. The defection of a man so eminent for his military talents, and so estimable for his private virtues, alarmed Bonaparte, and afforded him an excuse for his assumption of the imperial title, an honour which was confirmed upon him by the votes of the senate and the legislative bodies. His brothers, Louis and Joseph, were created princes. The empire was de-

clared hereditary in his person, and descensible according to the Salique law, from male to male, to the perpetual exclusion of females and their issue. The dignities of arch-treasurer and arch-chancellor of the empire were conferred upon the two ex-consuls, Cambaceres and Le Brun. The most distinguished officers were created marshals, and a new constitution given to the empire. A magnificent civil list was appointed; and finally, to give a greater *eclat* to this important measure, the aged pontiff was obliged to cross the Alps, to anoint the new sovereign of France and his consort, the empress Josephine, on 2nd December, 1804. It was in this year that Bonaparte seized on the person of the duke d'Enghien, son of the duke de Bourbon, in the neutral territory of Baden, upon a charge of being actively engaged in plots against the French government. This unfortunate prince was hurried to Paris, tried immediately by a court-martial, and condemned to be shot the same evening, by torch-light, in the wood of Vincennes. This act has with justice been considered one of the great stains on the character of Napoleon.

Soon after this event Napoleon repaired to Milan, where he assumed the iron crown of the ancient Gothic kings of Lombardy, declaring at the same time that, after his demise, the crowns of France and Lombardy should never be worn upon the same brow. While these scenes were acting, Spain, who had assisted France with her treasures, had now exhausted the patience of Great Britain. The indisposition of the emperor Alexander towards Napoleon, the rapid strides of the new emperor to the acquisition of the dictatorship of Europe, and the imminent danger apprehended to the liberties of the great commonwealth of states, produced a coalition against France, of which Russia, Sweden, and England were members. Preparations for war were made on the part of Austria, which produced strong remonstrances from Napoleon to that government. Everything presaged approaching hostility; but as yet the door of negotiation was not entirely closed. Suddenly the Toulon fleet set sail, raised the blockade of Cadiz, and was reinforced by the Spanish squadron, then composing an armament of eighteen ships of the line. Had the combined fleet proceeded northward, it was strong enough to have raised in succession the blockade of the different squadrons on the French and Spanish coasts, and, thus accumulating its strength, have composed an armada of seventy-four ships of the line in the channel. The combined squadron proceeded to the West Indies, and arrived at Martinique, where it lingered in inactivity. It was at this time that Lord Nelson, who with eleven ships of the line was cruising in the Mediterranean, was apprised of the sailing of the Toulon fleet; but, mistaken as to their real object, he proceeded almost as far as Egypt in pursuit of them. Undeceived with respect to their destination, he followed them to the West Indies; and such was the terror of his name that the French admiral, despite of his important numerical superiority, returned to Europe. On approaching Ferrol, he was encountered by a squadron of fifteen ships of the line, under Sir Robert Calder; an action ensued, which terminated at night, and ended with the capture of four sail of the line. The remainder of the combined squadron escaped under cover of a dense fog, and of the darkness, into the harbour of Ferrol.



The French troops now proceeded to the Rhine. The armies in Hanover and Holland were likewise directed to proceed southward on a line of march vertical to the Danube. On this occasion the allies committed a fatal error. It was generally, but most falsely, imagined that Napoleon was taken by surprise, and that he was unprepared for the conflict. Acting under this impression, their preparations were not commensurate, either in extent or celerity, with the gigantic power and still more formidable genius with which they had to contend. The Austrian army crossed the Inn, and took possession of Bavaria, which they treated in every particular as a conquered country, levying contributions, and paying for their supplies in depreciated Austrian paper. In the mean time the electoral troops, amounting to upwards of 20,000 men, had proceeded to Ingolstadt where they took a position under the protection of that fortress. A gross mistake was here committed by the Austrian government. No steps were taken to conciliate the elector, and he was compelled to submit to the invasion of his dominions from inevitable necessity; but he soon entered into a close alliance with Napoleon, the bitter fruits of which shortly appeared.

After halting a few days in Bavaria, the Austrian general Mack, with an army of upwards of 80,000 men, advanced into Suabia, and penetrated nearly as far as the defiles of the Black Forest. Napoleon, having made all the necessary arrangements, addressed the senate, ordered the formation of two armies of reserve of 80,000 men each, published a manifesto justificatory of the war on his part, and presented through the French minister, at the Diet of Ratisbon, a memorial, in which he endeavoured to recriminate upon Austria, departed from Paris, and arrived at Strasburgh the latter end of September, 1805, accompanied by the empress Josephine.

The French army immediately crossed the Rhine, and advanced by rapid marches to the Danube. Napoleon proceeded to Ludwigsburgh, the residence of the elector of Wirtemberg, where he was sumptuously entertained; and the elector's troops were then incorporated with the French army. The cavalry of that army, commanded by Murat, pushed its patrols into the defiles of the Black Forest, where they remained in position several days, with a view to deceive the Austrian commander, and lead him to conclude that he would encounter the French army in its front; whereas, by the bold and masterly plan of Napoleon, the points of union of the different corps of his army were to be Dettingen and Donawert, thus interposing a superior force between Mack and the Austrian territory, and rendering a junction with the first Russian army, then rapidly approaching the Inn, impracticable. In prosecuting this design, Napoleon crossed the Danube at and above Donawert, and, spreading the forces under his immediate command to the southward, occupied a line so as to bear immediately on the flank and rear of the Austrians in the vicinity of Ulm. In the mean time Murat attacked and defeated a division on the northern side of the Danube. This detachment was completely routed with the loss of 4000 prisoners, their artillery, baggage, and standards. The corps under Ney assailed the strong position of Guntzburg, and the line of the bridges connected with it. The action here was obstinate and sanguinary, but the French prevailed, and the archduke Ferdinand was compelled to retreat to Ulm, with the loss of up-

wards of 3000 men. Having so far succeeded in his plans, Napoleon detached Bernadotte, with the corps under his command, reinforced by the Bavarians, to the Inn, to observe the Russian army now increased by the addition of some Austrian troops. Bernadotte was enabled to take up a strong position on the banks of the river, holding the allies in check, and preventing them from taking any measures to avert the catastrophe which menaced the army under Mack.

Thus secure from all assaults in his rear, Napoleon vigorously pressed the Austrians, who were constrained to relinquish the outworks which defended their position at Ulm. After a most gallant opposition, on 11th of October, Soult, having proceeded to Meiningen, surrounded it, and the garrison, composing a great part of the left wing of the Austrian army, capitulated. Pursuing his victorious career, he advanced to Biberach, whither the archduke Ferdinand had retired; and, understanding that he had quitted that place for Ulm, Soult took possession of the pass of Bregentz: the result of these combined manœuvres was the complete investment of the army under the immediate orders of Mack. The archduke Ferdinand, who foresaw the inevitable destruction of his corps, separated himself from his ill-fated comrades, and, with a considerable force, took the road to Franconia. He was closely pursued by the divisions under the order of Murat and Lannes, who compelled General Werneck, with a force of 12,000 men, to surrender; but, after losing the greater part of his artillery, the archduke, with the wreck of his gallant army, sought and found refuge in the mountains which separate Bohemia from Franconia. The situation of Mack became hopeless. Every prospect either of successful resistance or escape was at an end, and he was now menaced with a general assault on his works, which were incapable of being defended. In this extremity he agreed to capitulate, first stipulating that he should remain unmolested until the 25th of October, and afterwards consenting to the surrender of his army on the 20th, provided that the corps under Ney should not advance beyond ten leagues from Ulm until the 25th. As it was the design of Napoleon to detach Ney's corps, get possession of the Tyrol, and menace the rear of the Austrian army in Italy, he readily assented to this condition; and on the 20th the troops immediately under the command of Mack marched out of Ulm, with the honours of war, depositing their arms on the glacis. Their number exceeded 30,000 men. On this occasion Bonaparte, collecting the principal Austrian officers, addressed them in the following words:—

“Gentlemen, your master wages an unjust war: I tell you plainly, I know not for what I am fighting; I know not what can be required of me. My resources are not confined to my present army. Those prisoners of war now on their way to France will observe the spirit which animates my people, and with what eagerness they flock to my standards. At a single word 200,000 volunteers crowd to my standard, and in six weeks become good soldiers; whereas your recruits only march from compulsion, and do not become good soldiers until after several years. Let me advise my brother, the emperor, to hasten to make peace. All states must have an end; and in the present crisis he must feel serious alarms



lest the extinction of the dynasty of Lorraine should be at hand. I desire nothing further upon the continent; I want ships, colonies, and commerce; and it is as much your interest as mine that I should have them."

In Italy many actions were fought in which the victory was obstinately contested. The Austrian forces in that quarter were commanded by the archduke Charles, the French by Massena. Slowly, and contesting every inch of ground, the Austrians withdrew: their commander, although constrained to retire under circumstances of great difficulty, conducted his retrograde movements with the greatest regularity, and with but trivial loss. He was not followed by Massena beyond the frontier of Carniola.

The Austrian and Russian armies, which hardly amounted to 70,000 men, did not, indeed could not, offer any effectual opposition. The main body of the French army therefore marched with the utmost celerity on the road to Vienna, expelling the allies from every position they attempted to occupy, and enfeebling them by successive losses of men, artillery, and baggage.

On the 11th November the advanced guard of the French army arrived before Vienna, which city obtained favourable terms from the victor. Having organized a provisional administration for Upper and Lower Austria, and made such arrangements for the security of his flanks and rear as circumstances would admit, Bonaparte quitted Vienna on the 15th of November, to rejoin the army which had marched into Moravia, whither the allies had retreated. At Hollebrunn, Murat and Lannes came up with the rear-guard of the allies, and captured some baggage. Shortly after an aide-de-camp of the emperor Alexander presented himself at the out-posts of the French army, and demanded time for the Russian army to separate from the Austrians and capitulate. Murat was deceived, and the Russians gained all they wanted—time to enable them to retire in an orderly manner. The next day, however, they were attacked at Guntersdorff, and driven from the field with the loss of 2000 prisoners. Napoleon then removed to Brunn, the citadel of which capitulated; and now ensued a pause in the military operations. The reinforcements which the Russians expected had joined them, and much diplomatic finesse was practised on both sides. Napoleon, understanding that the emperor Alexander had arrived, sent General Savary to compliment him; that officer remained two days in the Russian camp, and the observations which he made determined the conduct of Napoleon; he affected a strong desire for peace, which he had before refused to the emperor Francis, but upon insupportable conditions, retreated to some distance, took up a strong position in the rear, which he carefully fortified, receiving Prince Dolgorucki, whom the emperor Alexander had sent to him, at the advanced guard. Briefly, every measure was adopted which could induce the allies to believe that he shunned because he dreaded a battle.

On the other hand, the Russian army had neither provisions for the men nor forage for the horses, neither had they any commander capable of opposing Napoleon. Necessity urged them to become the assailants; accordingly, on the 1st December, they commenced an offensive movement, directing their march in separate columns, avowedly with the design of turning the flank of the French army to this

movement Napoleon made no opposition whatever; on the contrary, the cavalry under Murat retired, and at night the allies occupied a strong position in front of the French army, but separated from it by very difficult ground, which prevented an advance from that position in columns, preserving a continued connection with each other. The forces of the two armies were nearly equal, amounting, on both sides, to about 80,000 men; they were equal also in courage; in every other military quality the Russians were much inferior to the French army.

At length the morning of the 2nd December dawned on many thousand eyes on which the film of death was to descend before the evening, and the battle of Austerlitz commenced. The position of the French army was strong and very compact. The different corps composing it were drawn up in massive columns, ready to deploy or advance when the critical moment arrived. The Russian army was arranged in six columns, of which that forming the centre was the weakest. This error originated in an ignorance of the extent of the position really occupied by the French, and in a presumptuous confidence as to the issue of the battle. From the difficult nature of the *debouchés*, the Russian columns, in proportion as they advanced from their original position, diverged from each other like radii from a common centre. The effect of this derangement was that the left of the allies was separated from the centre extremity of the French right wing, where the defile of Tellnitz was vigorously attacked, and obstinately defended. After a long and various struggle, it remained in possession of the allies, who were thus enabled to realize a part of their plan; but, in proportion as the allied left wing advanced, a wider interval was interposed between it and the centre of the army. Napoleon saw and profited by the mistake; a strong column of the army, under Soult, advanced to attack the village and heights of Pratzen, a position which the Russians had occupied before the battle, and which, if gained by the French, enabled them to turn the allies, and render the junction of the left wing and centre an impossibility. At this moment the greater part of the French army advanced in compact bodies, in connection with and deriving aid from each other. A strong contest now took place for the possession of the heights of Blasowitz. The archduke Constantine ordered a charge by the Uhlans, which Kellerman, who commanded a part of the French cavalry, declining, the troops rushed impetuously, in pursuit of Kellerman, through the interval of the French infantry. They were thus exposed to a cross-fire from two divisions, which discomfited them with great loss. The infantry of the archduke were completely routed.

In the mean time Soult advanced to the heights of Pratzen, on the possession of which depended the fortune of the day. Prince Kutusoff, the Russian general who commanded the whole army, and was then stationed in the centre, on his way to attack that of the French, was astonished to find himself opposed by a superior force, when he imagined himself to be the assailant. He immediately determined to recover the heights of Pratzen, and sent for fresh troops: but it was too late; the corps of Soult advanced steadily towards the heights. The Russians then determined upon a general attack, but their fire was opened at too great a distance to do much execution, while, on the contrary, the French fire, re-



served until the moment when its delivery would be most effective, thinned the ranks, and staggered the resolution of the Russians. Soult then rushed forward to the heights, of which he took and retained possession, forming his troops in several lines, and giving them an angular direction, so as to present a double front. The emperor Alexander accompanied that column of the Russian army which was opposed to Soult, and led his own battalion to attack his right flank; other corps also harassed him; but the position of Soult was strong, and his arrangements masterly: he was enabled to keep the enemy in check, while the inequalities and elevation covered his own troops. Nothing now but a vigorous charge with the bayonet could retrieve the fortune of the day. The Russians, formed into close columns, attempted this desperate manœuvre; but the destructive fire of the French exterminated whole ranks of the assailants. Still they persevered, and succeeded in compelling a part of the French line to give way. Soult now ordered a general charge, which repelled the enemy; and his artillery, now brought into line, converted their retreat into a disorderly flight, in which they lost the greater part of their artillery. The battle still raged in other quarters. The possession of the heights of Blassowitz was long and firmly contested. Brilliant and effective charges were made with the Russian and French cavalry, in which the guards on each side particularly distinguished themselves; but the French, continually reinforced, gained possession of the heights, although the archduke Constantine was enabled to retreat in tolerable order. Lannes' corps had interposed itself between the columns of Prince Bragatton and General Uwarow, and had obtained possession of a commanding eminence on the road to Brunn. The fire under this officer was so considerable, and directed with such skill, that he was enabled to advance and expel both the Russian columns from the position they occupied, but not without a long and desperate opposition from Prince Bragatton.

The heights of Austerlitz, in the rear of the position taken up by the allies before the action, and which position was now occupied, became the point of union for the scattered remains of the Russian and Austrian columns, but by this movement they exposed the baggage of their army, the greater part of which was seized by the French. The position of Soult on the heights of Pratzen enabled him to cut off the communication of those columns composing the allied left wing, which were entangled in defiles, where they could neither receive nor give aid to the rest of the army. It was at this moment, when the French troops had defeated their enemies in every other point, that Napoleon brought up his reserve, which had never yet been engaged, and consisted of twenty battalions, to attack these columns. The operation completely succeeded, and their feeble wrecks, which in the course of the day had lost 10,000 prisoners, with the greater part of their artillery, were obliged to defile along a narrow causeway exposed to a murderous fire of chain-shot, and leaving behind them the greater part of their cannon. A heavy rain completed their misfortunes. Such is a brief sketch of the celebrated battle of Austerlitz, which reduced the allied army to one-half of their original numbers. The aggregate of their loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to about 40,000 men, and almost the whole of their artillery,

with many standards. On the day after the action Napoleon directed different corps of the army to pursue the allies, who, in their retreat, had taken the route to Hungary. They were too much enfeebled to risk another action, and the French army was proceeding to surround them. At night Prince Lichtenstein arrived in the French camp, to treat for a suspension of arms; and the next day an interview took place between Napoleon and the emperor Francis. Their colloquy was a long one, and in it was doubtless discussed not only the terms of the armistice, but of the treaty to which it tended. The armistice itself was inscribed with the point of the sword. It secured the communications of Napoleon with the army under Massena, an object of the first importance, enabled the French army to retain all its conquests, prescribed the retreat of the Russians by forced marches, that Austria should engage to discontinue the Hungarian levies, promise not to admit any foreign army into her territories, and also that a diplomatic meeting should instantly take place at Nicholasburg, in order to prepare the definitive treaty: to all these conditions the emperor was of course compelled to assent. Prussia also ceded the grand duchy of Berg, which Napoleon gave to Murat; and, in exchange for Hanover, the margraviate of Anspach, which being assigned to Bavaria cemented the chain of internarrriages with his relatives, which he meditated, by uniting his adopted son, Eugene Beauharnois, to a princess of that family. At the same time the electors of Bavaria, of Wirtemberg, and Saxony were transformed into kings, the crown of Naples was bestowed on his brother Joseph, that of Holland on Louis, and that of Westphalia on Jerome.

In July, 1806, he ratified at Paris the celebrated treaty of the confederation of the Rhine, in which he transferred to himself the preponderancy previously enjoyed by the house of Austria. In the month of September following, he demanded from his new allies levies of men, and by his military movements, and his conduct towards Hanover, he once more caused Russia to rise in arms, and the celebrated battle of Jena, which was fought on the 14th of October 1806, was one of the most memorable in the history of Bonaparte's campaigns. The French leader arrived at Jena on the 13th of October, and he soon acquired certain information as to the position of the Prussian army. It had left Weimar in two great corps; the largest, under the immediate command of the king and of the duke of Brunswick, had taken the road from Weimar to Naumburg; the other, under the orders of the prince of Hohenloe, had directed its march on Jena. In fact, the advanced guard of the French had no sooner reached the summit of the hill, which looks back upon Jena, than they discovered the enemy's line almost in front of them. The emperor alighted from his horse, and went to reconnoitre. The sun had not quite set; and he advanced till some musket-shots were fired at him. He returned to hasten the march of the columns to their positions, which he recommended to the generals not to take up till it was dark. He slept in the bivouac amidst the troops, having made all the generals sup with him. The French were under arms by day-break; but the fog was so thick that, advancing towards the enemy in the open ground in front, they missed their way, and came upon a wood where the Prussian left was



posted. At nine, the fog cleared up, the sun shone out, the two armies found themselves close together, and the cannonade commenced in the centre, with the greatest sharpness on the Prussian side. Ney, who was on the right of Marshal Lannes, attacked the extreme left of the Prussians, repeatedly taking and being driven from a village where it was lodged; and would have lost a great number of his men had not a division of Soult's coming up at the time (though fatigued after a long march) joined in the action, turned the Prussian left, and compelled them to evacuate the village.

While this movement was operating on their left, Marshal Lannes made a vigorous attack on the Prussian centre. The boldness of his advance made them shift their whole position. The action then recommenced, and a new incident decided the fortune of the day. The emperor had left Marshal Augereau at Mentz, to collect the regiments which had been sent back from Austerlitz to France, and to follow with what haste he could. He made such good speed that he arrived at Jena while the battle was going on. He did not pause a moment, but advanced through a fir-wood in such a manner as to appear in the rear of the Prussian right at the instant that Lannes was attacking it in front, commencing a discharge of musketry before the Prussians had time to reconnoitre. Bonaparte's columns seemed to meet together at the scene of action, as we sometimes see the clouds assembling from the different points of heaven before a thunder-storm. This attack, being as determined as it was unexpected, made the enemy's line waver. The emperor had but few cavalry with him, the main body being on the road to Naumberg; but, as soon as the oscillation was observed in the Prussian ranks, they were sent forward, and ordered to charge with desperation. This movement succeeded in preventing the Prussian army from rallying; and the head of Murat's cavalry just then coming up completed the disorder, and united with the rest in pursuing the routed enemy on the road to Weimar, along which they were escaping.

The emperor, from the spot where he stood, saw the flight of the Prussians, and the French cavalry taking them by thousands. Night was approaching; and here, as at Austerlitz, he rode round the field of battle. He often alighted from his horse to give a little brandy to the wounded; or placed his hand on the breast of a soldier to feel if his heart beat, or there was any chance of life. His joy on such occasions was only checked by the recollection of those he could not succour. If he found a greater number of dead in one part of the field than another, he looked at the buttons to ascertain the number of the regiment; and afterwards at the first review he would question the men as to the manner in which they had been attacked, and how the loss had happened. He returned to pass the night at Jena, where he received the professors of the University, and rewarded the vicar of that place for the attention he had shown to the sick and wounded.

On the same day (the 14th of October) on which Napoleon overthrew the prince of Hohenloe in front of Jena, Davoust and Bernadotte, in pursuance of their instructions, marched from Naumberg by the Weimar road, on which the Prussian army, under the command of the king, was advancing. Davoust was in a great measure ignorant of the position of the enemy, but he had no sooner reached the summit

of the hill, which it is necessary to ascend after passing the stone bridge over the Saale, about a league from Naumberg, than he descried the Prussian army below. He immediately despatched a messenger to Bernadotte who was close behind him, and requested he would support him. Bernadotte insisted on taking the lead; and, this not being acceded to by the other, contrived not to act at all, pretending to be in search of a passage somewhere higher up the river. Marshal Davoust attacked with an inferiority in numbers of one to four. Scarcely was his line formed when he was assailed by a cannonade and discharge of musketry, which were the more furiously maintained as the enemy thought they were sure of destroying him: had it not been for his great courage and firmness under fire, his troops must have been completely disheartened. By three o'clock in the afternoon he had lost one-third of his force. He could only retain his men in the field by showing himself every where. In vain his aide-de-camp hurried to and fro to Bernadotte to urge him to move: he spent the whole day in seeking a passage where none was to be found, and would thus have allowed Davoust to be crushed. He also contrived to keep back the cavalry, over which he had no right of control. Davoust was indebted to his great valour, and to the confidence placed in him by his troops, for the glory he won on this day, which was to him the most honourable that could be. Notwithstanding the loss which he sustained, he took from the enemy seventy pieces of cannon, and compelled him to a retreat. Had he been supported by a body of cavalry, he might have taken a great number of prisoners; but that he had been able to keep the field under such disadvantages obtained him the admiration of the whole army. The loss of the Prussians was considerable. The duke of Brunswick, who was wounded, hastily retired to Altona, where he soon after died. The king, on learning what had befallen the duke, made a movement to regain the Oder; nor could Davoust, from the want of cavalry, obstruct the monarch's retreat. Adjutant-general Romœuf, who brought the report of the affair to the emperor at Jena, said nothing of the absence of the cavalry, nor of Bernadotte's refusal to participate in the action. When he had done, Bonaparte asked him what those troops had been doing during the conflict. Receiving no explanation, he bit his lips, and was at no loss to understand that something was amiss. Yet after this he made this man a sovereign. It would seem that, as the world goes, magnanimity contains the seeds of its destruction in its own bosom!

Prisoners poured into Jena the whole of the night; and amongst them was almost the whole of the Saxon infantry, with several generals. The emperor had the officers assembled in a hall of the university, and thus addressed them by his interpreter:—"Saxons! I am not your enemy, nor the enemy of your elector. I know that he has been obliged to aid the designs of Prussia. You have fought; and ill fortune has deprived you of your liberty. If you have sincerely espoused the interests of Prussia, you must share her fate; but if you can assure me that your sovereign has been constrained to take up arms against me, and that he will seize this opportunity of resuming his natural policy, I will overlook the past, and will henceforth live on friendly terms with him." M. Pfuhl, a Saxon officer, undertook to go to Dresden



with this proposal, and to bring an answer in two days; and, on receiving an assurance that it would be favourable, Bonaparte gave the Saxon prisoners their liberty, who immediately set out for home by way of Leipsic. The emperor then departed in an open carriage for Weimar; and, at the top of the mountain called the Snail, met a Prussian officer bearing a letter from the king, with a proposal for an armistice. This offer was not complied with, because its only object was to remove the war from his own dominions into those of the allies of the French. Either from the date of the king's letter, or by some other means, the French general learned the situation of the Prussian army, and directly ordered Bernadotte to force the passage of the Essen, defended by the prince of Wirtemberg, and made Lannes march upon Erfurt, where the prince of Orange commanded, which shortly after capitulated with a garrison of 18,000 men. This town was also of importance, as it was a thoroughfare from the army to Mentz. While at Weimar, the emperor had an interview with the Prussian general Schmettau, an old aide-de-camp of Frederic II., who had been wounded in the battle, and died in consequence soon after.

At Naumburg Bonaparte learned from Davoust (with whom he expressed his high satisfaction) the whole extent of Bernadotte's misconduct just before. He said, "If I were to bring him to a court-martial, it would be equivalent to ordering him to be shot. The best way is to overlook it. I do not think him so devoid of honour as not to feel the shamefulness of his behaviour, respecting which I shall not fail to let him know my mind." Bonaparte could hardly have been a physiognomist to trust Bernadotte twice; for he must have seen him with stealthy eyes looking over his high-arched nose, watching his own opportunities, and equally indifferent to principle or sentiment! On the road between Naumburg and Halle, the emperor passed over the field of Rosbach.

The emperor arrived at Potsdam in broad day, and went immediately to visit the two palaces of Sans-Souci. He admired the beauty of the larger palace, and made some remarks on the site chosen for it, which is so bleak and ungenial that the growth of every thing is stunted. The little palace of Sans-Souci greatly interested him. He examined the apartment of Frederic the Great, which is kept with religious care. None of the furniture had been displaced, and certainly splendour constituted no part of its value. The writing-table resembled those which may yet be seen in the offices of the old French notaries; the inkstand and pens were still upon it. Bonaparte opened several of the books which Frederic was fond of reading, and which contained marginal notes in the king's own hand, apparently written in no very good humour. He ordered the door to be opened by which Frederic used to go down to the terrace in the garden, and also that which he passed through, when he went to review his troops on the great sandy plain near the palace.

Bonaparte entered Berlin on the 21st of October. He was on horseback, accompanied by the guard and the whole of Davoust's corps, whom he chose to be the first to enter the Prussian capital. The weather was fine. Almost all the inhabitants of the city seemed to be out of doors, and the windows were filled with ladies, who, though they

evinced considerable curiosity on the occasion, yet expressed the profoundest grief in their countenances, and many were bathed in tears. Pride, passion, patriotism, loyalty, all are human, and have tears for their dearest loss: truth and freedom alone see theirs with dry eyes! The emperor alighted at the king's palace, where he took up his abode. The troops were stationed on the Custrin and Stettin roads, with the exception of the guards, who were quartered in Berlin. Bonaparte was up at four in the morning, sending out scouts and parties of skirmishers in every direction. One of these parties captured a flag of truce, from which it was discovered that he had left Prince Hohenloe at New-Rupin preparing to depart for Prentzlau, on which the emperor directed the dragoons and the corps of Lannes to proceed thither by forced marches up the Havel. They reached the bridge at Prentzlau a few hours before the head of the Prussian column appeared on the opposite bank of the river. Both sides being very much fatigued, a parley ensued. The Prussian troops which was most in advance was a regiment belonging to the king's guard, which, supposing all lost, was very glad to return to Berlin. An arrangement was proposed and concluded on the spot. Prince Hohenloe surrendered with all the troops that were with him, transferring to General Blucher the command of those which were too distant to be included in the capitulation. The others were sent back to Berlin. Prince Charles of Mecklenburgh, a younger brother of the queen, having been taken prisoner at Strelitz, was dismissed on his parole. Blucher had rallied the wrecks of the prince of Hohenloe's corps, and added them to what remained of the army that fought against Davoust. The king had withdrawn from his army as soon as the armistice had been refused. He took Magdeburg in his way to Berlin, and thence directed his course to the Oder, and afterwards to Graudentz, where he ordered the bridge of boats over the Vistula to be removed. He here learnt the surrender of his army at Lubeck. Blucher had manœuvred so as to draw Soult and Bernadotte from Berlin, and afterwards succeeded in giving them the slip from the field of Wharen. He escaped from them so completely that they did not reach till evening the positions he had quitted in the morning. He passed through Schwerin and gained Lubeck. He would have defended the bridge of that place, but was overpowered. Driven to the last extremity, and destitute of ammunition, he at last capitulated, and surrendered his troops prisoners of war.

The occupation of the war did not prevent Napoleon from remembering his quarrel with this country. His troops took possession of Hamburg, a neutral and independent city, and confiscated, wherever it could be found, British merchandize. It was then he published the celebrated Berlin decree, declaring the "British islands in a state of blockade." This was his first exploit, in a series of campaigns against our commerce and manufactures. To secure his communication with France, he took military possession of the elector of Hesse Cassel's states, and compelled him to seek an asylum at Altona.

Before he entered upon the Polish campaign, Napoleon declared to the Austrian ambassador at Berlin that, unless the Austrian army immediately evacuated Bohemia, he would consider their continuance in that country as a declaration of war. Intimidated by this threat, the Austrian government



complied, and their resolution was, no doubt, accelerated by the presence of an army of 40,000 chosen troops, which he had assembled in Dalmatia. An army which had been assembled on the frontiers of Holland now advanced to the Elbe, and took possession of Hanover. The commandant of the strong fortress of Hohen followed the example of the other military commanders; and surrendered, after a slight resistance, as did also almost every other strong place in the kingdom. All the provinces of Prussia westward and northward of the Oder being now subdued, the king sent a confidential minister to negotiate the terms of an armistice with Napoleon, but the terms prescribed, which amounted to a surrender of all the remaining fortresses of Prussia, including Dantzic, to the westward of the Vistula, were too severe for the king of Prussia, even in his depressed condition, to accede to, and on the 29th of November he left Berlin for Posen, where he arrived on the 1st of December.

The severe campaigns against Russia followed these events, in which were fought the battles of Pultusk and Friedland, which ended in the treaty of Tilsit. This celebrated agreement was preceded by an interview between Napoleon and Alexander, on a raft on the river Niemen. The sovereigns embraced each other and entered the tent prepared for them on the raft. The interview lasted for two hours, at the end of which the most distinguished officers in the French and Russian armies were respectively introduced to Napoleon and Alexander. So cordial were the two monarchs upon this occasion that a convention was entered into, by which the town of Tilsit was neutralized: Alexander and his guards occupied one part, and Napoleon, with his suite, the other. The unfortunate king of Prussia, to whom this new-born friendship boded no good, was admitted to their entertainments. In a disposition so materially conciliating, few difficulties could retard the progress of the negotiation. In the early part of July, and within two days of each other, appeared the treaties between France and Russia and France and Prussia.

The latter power offered her mediation between France and Great Britain, which was accepted by Napoleon, and declined by the British government, on the ground that the secret articles of the treaty had not been communicated to it. It afterwards appeared that amongst these secret articles was one for closing the ports of Russia against the commerce of Great Britain.

The return of Napoleon from the army was a series of triumphs; and, on his arrival in Paris, the senate and legislative body addressed him in terms of the highest admiration and respect. The only sovereign on the continent who still opposed him (the king of Sweden) was expelled from Pomerania; and Stralsund completed the long chain of maritime fortresses, by the possession of which he hoped to exclude the commerce of this country.

It was now that Napoleon fulminated his wrath against the prince regent of Portugal. An army, under Junot, was despatched, not merely to invade, but to conquer and retain possession of that country. Against such a force, in close union with the Spanish troops, no effectual opposition could be made; and the prince embarked with the royal family and his treasures for Brazil. The French army then took quiet possession of Portugal.

During these events Bonaparte visited Italy; but with the exception of the celebrated Milan decree, which denationalized all vessels the captains of which had submitted to be searched by English cruisers, nothing occurred in this interim worthy of notice.

Napoleon now turned his attention towards Spain, and, under the pretence of settling the family differences of the king of Spain and his son Ferdinand, he introduced a powerful army into that kingdom. He compelled the king to abdicate in favour of his son, who was proclaimed king under the title of Ferdinand VII. The real object of the French emperor was to obtain possession of the royal family of Spain, and for this purpose he prevailed on Ferdinand to quit Madrid, and proceed to the frontiers of France. After much deliberation Ferdinand proceeded to Bayonne, where on his arrival he was welcomed by Marshal Berthier and the other distinguished officers in the train of Napoleon. The next object of Bonaparte was to obtain possession of the other members of the royal family, a plan easily to be executed, as they only stipulated for the release of their favourite, Godoy, and that he should precede them, a request readily granted.

At length the mist was cleared up, and General Savary, upon the return of Ferdinand from an entertainment at the castle of Marac, was ordered to apprise him that Napoleon required the immediate surrender of the crown of Spain and the Indies, with an assurance that the reign of the house of Bourbon was at an end, and that that dynasty was to be replaced by a sovereign of the house of Napoleon. This demand was at first resolutely opposed by Ferdinand, and ineffectual negotiations took place between his ministers and the agents of Napoleon, who, finding the prince more inflexible than he expected, availed himself of the imbecility of the old king. A separate negotiation took place between the father and son, in which Ferdinand expressed his willingness to resign the crown to his father, to attend him in the capacity of a subject to Madrid, and, if Charles was indisposed to undergo the fatigues of royalty, to exercise the functions of sovereignty in such a manner, and with such a title, as might suit their mutual convenience. On the rupture of this treaty, Charles published a proclamation to the Spanish, people apprising them that he had abdicated the throne of France in favour of Napoleon, and calling upon them to receive, and trust, the French as brethren. But the emperor, impatient of the delay arising out of the tedious forms of diplomacy, resolved to compass his object at once. He therefore appointed an interview, in his presence, between the members of the royal family of Spain, then together at Bayonne. This meeting was of a very extraordinary nature. The queen of Spain, after upbraiding Ferdinand, openly, with his usurpation, declared him to be illegitimate.

Ferdinand, having no other alternative, was compelled at length to accede to the treaty of Napoleon, by which the whole Spanish monarchy was transferred to the brother of Napoleon, and on the 25th of October, 1808, the French emperor announced that, with the assistance of God, he intended to crown his brother king of Spain at Madrid, and to plant the eagles of France on the towers of Lisbon. The Spanish nation however tenaciously, if not skil-



fully resisted the French troops, and Joseph, who had been crowned king, was compelled to quit Madrid, and retired to Burgos. There to await the result of the war.

Napoleon was placed in circumstances of great difficulty by the unexpected resistance of the Spaniards and the defeats of the French army, which, however palliated, could not be concealed from France or Europe. Austria increased her military establishment, renovated her finances, and assumed an attitude which rendered her an object of suspicion and distrust. Urgent expostulations were addressed to the Austrian government on this change of system, to which civil replies were made; but the military preparations still continued. The French army in Spain could not be powerfully reinforced, nor could Napoleon personally direct its movements whilst this uncertainty as to the intentions of Austria continued. In a situation so perplexing, an ordinary mind would have been confounded, but the genius of Napoleon rose superior to his embarrassments; he prevailed upon the emperor Alexander to meet him at Erfurt. The conferences were most amicable. The two monarchs were inseparable; and around them were assembled almost all the princes of the confederation of the Rhine. Sumptuous fetes, theatrical amusements, reviews, in short, every kind of pageantry diversified the intervals of business. An ambassador from the emperor Francis attended, and a proposition was made jointly by Napoleon and Alexander to the British government for peace. It was naturally insisted that deputies from the Spanish nation should attend the congress. The overtures were rejected. Napoleon, having now provided for at least his present security, gave orders to his veteran troops, which still lingered in Prussia, to evacuate that country, and proceed by the shortest route to Spain: but, with his usual sagacity, he replaced these experienced soldiers by an equal number of conscripts. The different corps, on their arrival at Paris and other principal towns in the course of their march, were magnificently feasted, and, as they reached the frontier, gradually swelled the number of the French army commanded by Marshal Ney, which had been reduced to about 50,000 men, but was still formidable, not only from its strength, but the discipline of the troops. Napoleon, having ordered a levy of 160,000 conscripts, left Paris, and repaired to Bayonne, whence he proceeded to the head-quarters of the French army, transferred to Igrun, a town very near the French frontier. His arrival in the camp was the signal for offensive operations.

The resolute opposition which the whole Spanish nation offered to the French troops was more formidable than the most powerful army, and Napoleon found that although he conquered in pitched battles, yet that he was unable to subdue a people who were willing to sacrifice their lives in defence of their religion, their country, and their king. In consequence of the length of time expended in useless negotiation, and still more fruitless warfare, Bonaparte gave the command of the French army in Spain to Marshal Soult, and returned to Paris. Previous, however, to his quitting the Spanish kingdom, Napoleon instituted several valuable improvements in the constitution of Spain; he also promulgated two remarkable decrees, namely, the abolition of the *Inquisition*, and the suppression of *feudal rights*. The Spaniards were powerfully aided by the British cabinet, both

with men and money, and we need hardly add that our brave countrymen were never more distinguished by their bravery and courage than in the Peninsula campaigns.

When Napoleon reached the French capital, he found, from the position which affairs had taken during his absence, that a war with Austria was inevitable, and he prepared for it with his accustomed vigour and sagacity. The real ground of the war on the part of Austria was the apprehension she entertained that Napoleon would seize the first favourable opportunity of acting towards her in the same manner as he had done to Spain; and the opportunity of aiming a blow at the colossal power of the French emperor seemed propitious, inasmuch as the flower of his army was in the Peninsula, and his principal dependence, in the event of hostilities, must be on the troops of the Rhenish confederation (80,000 of whom he had taken into his pay), and the conscripts, 160,000 of whom had been required by him of the senate. Aware of the transcendent talents which would be opposed to it, the Austrian government had made preparations suited to the greatness of the enterprise. The Austrian army was re-organized into corps on the French model, and completed to a full war-establishment.

The command of the Austrian army in Germany, immediately opposed to Napoleon, was entrusted to the archduke Charles, having under him some of the archdukes his brothers. A powerful force was assembled on the borders of Italy, and a third army menaced the electorate of Saxony. Such was the disposition of the Austrian army at the commencement of hostilities. The first operation was the invasion of Bavaria by the archduke Charles, whose army proceeded up both sides of the Danube. In proportion as he advanced, the French commanded by Massena (duke of Rivoli) and Davoust (duke of Auerstadt) retired. Napoleon was no sooner informed that the Austrians had passed the Inn than he left Paris, and in four days reached Donawert, a distance of about 500 miles. His head-quarters were transferred to Ingolstadt. On the following day, 18th of April, he commenced offensive operations. At Presig an Austrian division was overthrown, and a similar fate attended another division, but those successes were partial. On the 20th Napoleon, having reconnoitred that position of the Austrian army on the south side of the Danube, which was commanded by the archduke Louis and General Hollen, posted at Abergberg, immediately perceived that their line was enfeebled by too great an extension; he accordingly resolved to assail it in front, while the duke of Rivoli penetrated into the rear and cut off their communication with the army of the archduke Charles on the north side. Before, however, he attempted this brilliant manœuvre, he addressed the Bavarian and Wurtemberg troops in a long and energetic speech, which was interpreted to them by the hereditary prince of Bavaria. The effect of this address, combined with the confidence he reposed in them, fully corresponded with his hopes; the troops formed into columns, and advanced to the charge with the utmost ardour. The Austrians were driven from their position, and compelled to retreat with great loss in a direction which completely exposed their left flank. Following up his advantage, Napoleon proceeded the next day to Landshut, and renewed the attack, which termi-

nated in the total discomfiture of the archduke and his colleagues. Alarmed at these ruinous defeats, the archduke Charles suddenly crossed the Danube with an army of 110,000 men, entered Ratisbon, where he took prisoners a body of French, and, advancing in a direction which threatened the rear and flank of the French army, resolved to encounter his great rival. Bonaparte left the pursuit of the remains of the force under archduke Louis, and advanced to Eckmühl. His military eye discovered an imperfection in the position of the left wing, which was assailed by Marshal Victor, whilst Napoleon attacked his front. The combat was long and bloody. The Austrians, animated by the example of their heroic commander, fought with the greatest courage; but the superior skill of Napoleon prevailed; the Austrians were finally driven from the field, and the archduke himself narrowly escaped captivity. The next day they attempted to make a stand at Ratisbon, but were overwhelmed, after an obstinate conflict. The Austrian cavalry withstood three different charges, but were at length broken. The city itself, so celebrated in the annals of diplomacy as the seat of the German Diet, and whose neutrality had been respected in the most desperate war by all parties, was the scene of a furious action, the French having entered it through a breach in the fortifications. A garrison, consisting of six Austrian regiments, were killed or taken prisoners; and, finally, the archduke retreated in the direction of Bohemia, followed by the duke of Auerstadt. Napoleon proceeded by rapid marches to Vienna, followed on the other side of the Danube by the archduke Charles. A division of the French army was detached, under the duke of Dantzic, to observe the Austrian corps stationed on the frontier of the Tyrol. Napoleon now appeared for the second time before the city of Vienna, and summoned the garrison to surrender. The archduke Maximilian, who commanded, demurred to the summons, upon which a slight bombardment took place, and the town capitulated. On reaching Vienna, Napoleon issued a proclamation to the Hungarians, inviting them to throw off their allegiance to the emperor of Austria, and choose a sovereign for themselves. He had not leisure to witness the effects of this document, for the arrival of the archduke Charles on the other side of the Danube, opposite to Vienna, was the signal for another battle, more desperate and sanguinary than any which had taken place during the whole campaign. This engagement, however, was far from ending the war, and on the 21st of May, 1809, was fought the sanguinary but indecisive battle of Essling, in which, after great loss, Napoleon was obliged to retreat to the island of Lobau. The archduke Charles was however too much crippled to follow his success, and, the French being strengthened by the decisive victory of Wagram, a suspension of arms was agreed on, and on the 14th of the following October a definite treaty of peace was concluded, one of the secret conditions of which soon became apparent, by preparations commencing for the dissolution of the marriage of Napoleon with the empress Josephine, whose age precluded the possibility of his having an heir to the empire. This unjustifiable measure, adopted on the plea of state-necessity, rivetted the attention of all Europe. In a full assembly of the senate, the marriage was dissolved, and Josephine was content to assume the

title and enjoy the revenues of dowager empress. It is due to this lady to state that in the high rank to which her husband's genius and fortune had raised her she had borne her faculties meekly, that he lost in her a faithful friend and a sagacious counselor, the unhappy and oppressed a zealous and often a successful advocate. The personal appearance of Bonaparte underwent a considerable change about this period, and we furnish a good likeness from the celebrated picture by M. David, who was afterwards appointed painter to the emperor.



Napoleon did not hesitate in the choice of Josephine's successor. The archduchess Maria Louisa, the daughter of the emperor Francis, whom Napoleon had thrice humbled to the dust, was the destined bride. This princess, in her nineteenth year, and possessed of considerable personal attractions, is said to have received and accepted the honour not only with resignation, but even pleasure. To give additional splendour to the embassy sent to Vienna to demand the archduchess, the prince of Neufchatel was selected. Every point having been previously adjusted, Maria Louisa repaired to France. Napoleon proceeded to the frontiers to receive and welcome her. The nuptials were celebrated with all possible magnificence at Paris on the 11th of March, 1810. Four queens, the consorts of as many sovereigns raised to that rank by Napoleon, supported the train of the bride. Napoleon availed himself of the occasion to propitiate the army; he promised to bestow a portion of 600 francs upon 6000 young girls who should espouse on the day of his marriage as many soldiers recommended for their good conduct by their officers. Innumerable fetes succeeded. His vanity and his ambition being alike gratified by this splendid alliance, Bonaparte no longer displayed that marvellous and unrelaxing energy which had astonished and terrified mankind.

The year 1811 was distinguished by the dethronement of the king of Sweden. This prince had strenuously opposed Napoleon in all his projects, not only in the field, but in the cabinet, and by repeated proclamations; but neither his talents, resources, nor the position of circumstances, favoured his designs. The war still lingered between Sweden and France, all the disadvantages of which recoiled on



the former power. A strong party was formed against the king. He was deposed, and his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, raised to the throne. The succession was settled upon the prince of Augustenburg, on the demise of the reigning king: this prince dying soon after without issue, the crown was rendered elective. Many candidates presented themselves; but the choice of the Swedish diet, assembled at Orebro, fell on Marshal Bernadotte, prince of Porto Corvo, formerly a sergeant in the French army in India at the siege of Cuddalore, and brother-in-law of Joseph Bonaparte, the titular king of Spain.

In March 1811, as if all the wishes of Napoleon were to be gratified, the empress was delivered of a son, who was christened Napoleon Charles Francis Joseph, king of Rome. This child, after the death of his father, was created duke of Reichstadt by his grandfather the emperor of Austria, a title which he bore till his death. He was very prepossessing in his appearance, and his father regarded him with the



fondest affection: a sketch of this young prince is given in the above engraving when he was about eight years old.

Aware of the discontent of Russia and of her intention to resist on the first favourable opportunity, towards the end of the year 1811 he began those mighty preparations for the invasion of that empire which formed the nucleus of the greatest array of disciplined and able soldiery which ever moved under one commander and in one direction.

Previous to our describing the movements of Napoleon at the head of this vast army, we must briefly advert to the leading causes which led to this fatal event. After the treaty of Tilsit the emperor of Russia engaged to close the ports of his dominions against British commerce. This requisition was to be common to both powers who were the principal parties to that treaty. Out of France it was strictly enforced by Napoleon; but in the interior of that country it was modified by the system of licences. The emperor Alexander was naturally desirous of mitigating to his subjects the rigour of this anti-commercial restriction; but on this head Napoleon was inflexible. War now became inevitable, and both parties prepared for the conflict.

In the beginning of May, 1812, Napoleon, having

dictated a decree of the senate which called into activity within the limits of the empire 60,000 national guards, left Paris with the empress and proceeded to Dresden, where he met the emperor and empress of Austria, and almost all the sovereigns of Germany. He left that city June 7, and, having reviewed the greater part of his troops on the plains of Friedland, he gave orders to cross the Niemen. The memorable passage of this river was effected on the 23d and 24th of June, 1812, and the French army then plunged into the deserts of Russia.

On the part of the Russians, the plan of the campaign was strictly defensive. Accordingly, their army retreated, destroying what they could not remove, and avoiding a general action. The main Russian force was divided into two bodies, acting separately, but in close correspondence with each other. Aware of this arrangement, Napoleon skillfully moved a portion of his army in such a direction as to enable it to interpose between the two great Russian divisions.

It appears to have been a part of his plan not only to have separated these corps, but, by a rapid counter-march, to have surrounded and destroyed them. He complained in his bulletins that his officers, Davoust and Prince Poniatowski, did not pursue the Russians with sufficient vigour; but a different version of the causes of the failure of this masterly scheme has been given by the Russians. They represent that no impression was made upon the rear-guards of the Russian army, but that, on the contrary, the French were repulsed with severe loss in many encounters.

Having thus made his dispositions for the opening of the campaign, Napoleon proceeded to Wilna, the metropolis of the former grand duchy of Lithuania, where he remained for many days, occupying himself with the re-establishment of the ancient kingdom of Poland. In the mean time his army advanced in different columns, some in the direction of Smolensko, others towards the Dwina. Napoleon, dissatisfied with the conduct of the officer he had directed to pursue the enemy, rejoined the army, which, by this time, had made deep inroads into the Russian empire. In the mean time Murat, who commanded the cavalry, accompanied by other French corps, arrived on the banks of the Dwina where the Russians occupied the entrenched camp of Drissa. From this position they found it convenient to retire, and the two great bodies of the Russian army, so long divided, now converged towards each other, and at length effected a junction near Vitepsk. It was here that Napoleon had quartered his army, but he quitted Vitepsk on the 8th of August, and, after a partial engagement at Krasnoi on the 14th, came in sight of Smolensko on the 16th. The first and second armies of the Czar (Bagrathion having at length effected his junction with Barclay) lay behind the river which flows at the back of this town; but it was occupied in great force. Three times did Bonaparte attack it, and three times was he repulsed. During the night the garrison withdrew and joined the army across the river; but ere they went they committed the city to the flames, and, the buildings being chiefly of wood, the conflagration, according to the French bulletin, "resembled in its fury an eruption of Vesuvius." "Never," continues the same bulletin, "was war conducted with such inhumanity: the Russians treat their own

country as if it were that of an enemy." Such was indeed their resolution; they had no desire that the invader should establish himself in winter-quarters at Smolensko. With the exception of some trivial skirmishes, they retreated unmolested from Smolensko to Dorogobuz, and thence on Viasma, halting at each of these towns, and deliberately burning them in the face of the enemy.

It now, however, began to be difficult in the extreme to prevail on the Russian soldiery to continue their retreat. They had consented to retire in the beginning, solely because they were assured that such was the will of their *father*—as they affectionately called their sovereign; but reinforcements were now joining them daily from the interior, and the skirmishes which had occurred had so inflamed their spirits that it seemed impossible to restrain them much longer. At this period also Barclay was appointed to the war-ministry at St. Petersburg, and Kutusoff, who assumed the command in his stead, was supposed to doubt whether the system of retreat had not been far enough persisted in. The new general at length resolved to comply with the clamorous entreaties of his troops, and fixed on a strong position between Borodino and the Moskwa, on the high-road to Moscow, where he determined to await the attack of Napoleon. It was at Gjatatz that the emperor was informed of Kutusoff's arrival, and of the universal belief that the Czar had at length consented to run the hazard of a great battle. A little further on, a Russian officer appeared with a flag of truce, his real errand being, no doubt, to witness the state of the invader's camp. Being brought into Napoleon's presence, this man was asked, "What he should find between Viasma and Moscow." He answered, "Pultowa."

On the 5th of September Napoleon came in sight of the position of Kutusoff, and succeeded in carrying a redoubt in front of it. On the 6th the two armies lay in presence of each other, preparing for the contest. The Russians were posted on an elevated plain, having a wood on their right flank, their left on one of the villages, and a deep ravine, the bed of a small stream, in their front. Extensive field-works covered every more accessible point of this naturally very strong ground; and in the centre of the whole line a gentle eminence was crowned by an enormous battery, serving as a species of citadel. The Russian army were 120,000 in number; nor had Napoleon a greater force in readiness for his attack. In artillery also the armies were equal: it is supposed that each had 500 guns in the field. Bonaparte addressed his troops in his usual style of language: "Soldiers! here is the battle you have longed for; it is necessary, for it brings us plenty, good winter-quarters, and a safe return to France. Behave yourselves so that posterity may say of each of you, '*He was in that great battle beneath the walls of Moscow.*'" In the Russian camp, meanwhile, the clergy appeared in their richest vestments, and, displaying their holiest images, called on the men to merit Paradise by devoting themselves in the cause of their country. The soldiers answered with shouts which were audible throughout all the enemy's lines.

At four o'clock in the morning, on the 7th, the French advanced under cover of a thick fog, and assaulted at once the centre, the right, and the left of the position. Such was the impetuosity of the

charge that they drove the Russians from their redoubts; but this was but for a moment. They rallied under the very line of their enemy's fire, and instantly re-advanced. Peasants who, till that hour, had never seen war, and who still wore their usual rustic dress, distinguished only by a cross sewed on it in front, threw themselves into the thickest of the combat. As they fell, others rushed in and filled their places. Some idea may be formed of the obstinacy of the contest from the fact that of one division of the Russians, which mustered 30,000 in the morning, only 8000 survived. These men had fought in close order, and unshaken, under the fire of eighty pieces of artillery. The result of this terrible day was that Bonaparte withdrew his troops, and abandoned all hope of forcing his way through the Russians. In no contest by many degrees so desperate had he hitherto been engaged. Night found either army on the ground they had occupied at day-break. The number of guns and prisoners taken by the French and the Russians was about equal; and of either host there had fallen not less than 40,000 men. Some accounts raise the gross number of the slain to 100,000. Such was the victory in honour of which Napoleon created Marshal Ney *Prince of Moskwa*.

Bonaparte, when advised by his generals, towards the conclusion of the day, to bring forward his own guard and hazard one final attack at their head, answered, "And, if my guard fail, what means should I have for renewing the battle to-morrow?" The Russian commander, on the other hand, appears to have spared nothing to prolong the contest. During the night after, his cavalry made several attempts to break into the enemy's lines; and it was only on receiving the reports of his regimental officers in the morning that Kutusoff perceived the necessity of retiring until he should be further recruited. His army was the main stay of his country; on its utter dissolution his master might have found it very difficult to form another; but, while it remained perfect in its organization, the patriotic population of the empire were sure to fill up readily every vacancy in its ranks. Having ascertained then the extent of his loss, and buried his dead (among whom was the gallant Bagrathion) with great solemnity,—the Russian slowly and calmly withdrew from his intrenchments, and marched on Mojaïsk. Napoleon was so fortunate as to be joined exactly at this time by two fresh divisions from Smolensko, which nearly restored his muster to what it had been ere the battle began; and, thus reinforced, commanded the pursuit to be vigorously urged. On the 9th the French van came in sight of the Russian rear again, and Bonaparte prepared for battle. But next morning Kutusoff had masked his march so effectually, by scattering clouds of Cossacks in every direction around the French, that down to the 12th the invader remained uncertain whether he had retreated on Kalouga, or directly to the capital. The latter he at length found to be the case; and, on the 14th of September, Napoleon reached the Hill of Salvation, so named because from that eminence the Russian traveller obtains his first view of the ancient metropolis, affectionately called "*Moscow the parent*," and hardly less sacred in his eyes than Jerusalem. The soldiery beheld with joy and exultation the magnificent extent of the place; its mixture of Gothic steeples and oriental domes; the vast and splendid



mansions of the haughty boyards, embosomed in trees; and, high over all the rest, the huge towers of the Kremlin, at once the palace and the citadel of the old czars. The cry of "Moscow! Moscow!" ran through the lines. Napoleon himself reined in his horse and exclaimed, "Behold, at last, that celebrated city!" He added, after a brief pause, "It was time."

Bonaparte had not gazed long on this great capital ere it struck him as something remarkable that no smoke issued from the chimneys. Neither appeared there any military on the battlements of the old walls and towers. There reached him neither message of defiance nor any deputation of citizens to present the keys of their town, and recommend it and themselves to his protection. He was yet marvelling what these strange circumstances could mean when Murat, who commanded in the van, and had pushed on to the gates, came back and informed him that he had held a parley with Milarodowitch, the general of the Russian rear-guard, and that, unless two hours were granted for the safe withdrawing of his troops, he would at once set fire to Moscow. Napoleon immediately granted the larmistice. The two hours elapsed, and still no procession of nobles or magistrates made its appearance.

On entering the city, the French found it deserted by all but the very lowest and most wretched of its vast population. They soon spread themselves over its innumerable streets, and commenced the work of pillage. The magnificent palaces of the Russian boyards, and the bazaars of the merchants, churches and convents, and public buildings of every description, swarmed with their numbers. The meanest soldier clothed himself in silk and furs, and drank at his pleasure the costliest wines. Napoleon, perplexed at the abandonment of so great a city, had some difficulty in keeping together 30,000 men under Murat, who followed Milarodowitch, and watched the walls on that side.

The emperor, who had retired to rest in a suburban palace, was awakened at midnight by the cry of "fire!" The chief market-place was in flames; and some hours elapsed ere they could be extinguished by the exertions of the soldiery. While the fire still blazed, Napoleon established his quarters in the Kremlin, and wrote by that fatal light a letter to the czar, containing proposals for peace. The letter was committed to a prisoner of rank; but no answer ever reached Bonaparte.

Next morning found the fire extinguished, and the French officers were busied throughout the day in selecting houses for their residence. The flames, however, burst out again as night set in, and under circumstances which might well fill the mind of the invaders with astonishment and with alarm. Various detached parts of the city appeared to be at once on fire: combustibles and matches were discovered in different places as laid deliberately; the water-pipes were cut; the wind changed three times in the course of the night, and the flames always broke out again with new vigour in the quarter from which the prevailing breeze blew, right on the Kremlin. It was sufficiently plain that Rostophchin, governor of Moscow, had adopted the same plan of resistance by which Smolensko had already been sacrificed: and his agents, whenever they fell into the hands of the French, were massacred without mercy.

A French adventurer, who had been resident for

some time in Moscow, gave an account of Rostophchin's conduct in quitting the city, which might have prepared Napoleon for some such catastrophe. This person, on hearing of the approach of his countrymen, had used some expressions which entitled him to a place in the prisons of Moscow. The day before Bonaparte entered it, Rostophchin held a last court of justice. This Frenchman, and a disaffected Russian, were brought before him. The latter's guilt having been clearly proved, the governor, understanding his father was in court, said he granted some minutes to the old man to converse with and bless his son. "Shall I give my blessing to a rebel?" cried the aged parent. "I hereby give him my curse." Rostophchin ordered the culprit to be executed; and then, turning to the Frenchman, said, "Your preference of your own people was natural. Take your liberty. There was but one Russian traitor, and you have witnessed his death." The governor then set all the malefactors in the numerous gaols of Moscow at liberty, and, abandoning the city to them, withdrew at the head of the inhabitants, who had for some time been preparing the means of retreat at his suggestion.

Such was the story of the Frenchman; and every hour brought some new confirmation of the relentless determination of Rostophchin's countrymen. Some peasants, brought in from the neighbouring country, were branded in the arm with the letter N. One of them, understanding that this marked him as the property and adherent of Napoleon, instantly seized an axe and chopped off his limb. Twelve serf of Count Woronzow were taken together, and commanded to enlist in the French service, or suffer death: four of the men folded their arms in silence, and so died. The French officer in command spared the rest. Such were the anecdotes which reached Napoleon as he surveyed, from the battlements of the Kremlin, the raging sea of fire which now swept the capital east, west, north, and south. During four days the conflagration endured, and four-fifths of the city were wholly consumed. "Palaces and temples," says the Russian author, Karamsin, "monuments of art and miracles of luxury, the remains of ages long since past and the creations of yesterday, the tombs of ancestors and the cradles of children, were indiscriminately destroyed. Nothing was left of Moscow save the memory of her people and their deep resolution to avenge her fall."

During two days Napoleon witnessed from the Kremlin the spread of this fearful devastation; and, in spite of continual showers of sparks and brands, refused to listen to those who counselled retreat. On the third night, the equinoctial gale rose: the Kremlin itself took fire, and it became doubtful whether it would be possible for him to withdraw in safety; and then he at length rode out of Moscow, through streets in many parts arched over with flames, and buried, where this was not the case, in one dense mantle of smoke. "These are, indeed, Scythians," said Napoleon. He halted, and fixed his head-quarters at Petrowsky, a country palace of the Czar, about a league distant. But he could not withdraw his eyes from the rueful spectacle which the burning city presented, and, from time to time, repeated the same words, "This bodes great misfortune."

On the 20th, the flames being at length subdued or exhausted, Napoleon returned to the Kremlin

well aware how mighty a calamity had befallen him, but still flattering himself that the resolution of the enemy would give way on learning the destruction of their ancient and sacred metropolis. The poor remains of the enormous city still furnished tolerable lodgings for his army: of provisions there was as yet abundance; and the invaders, like true Frenchmen, fitted up a theatre, and witnessed plays acted by performers sent from France; while the emperor himself exhibited his equanimity by dating a decree, regulating the affairs of the *Theatre Français* at Paris, from "the imperial head-quarters in the Kremlin."

Day passed after day, and still there came no answer from Alexander: Bonaparte's situation was becoming hourly more difficult. The news of the great battle of Salamanca had some days ere now reached him; and the rumour of some distant disaster could not be prevented from spreading among the soldiery. Nearer him, the two flanks of his mighty host had been alike unsuccessful. The united army of Tarmagoff and Tchichagoff on the south, and that of Witgenstein, in the north, had obtained decided advantages over the French generals respectively opposed to them, and now threatened to close in between Napoleon's central columns and the magazines in Poland. Witzengerode was at the head of a formidable force on the road to St. Petersburg; and to the south-west of Moscow lay Kutusoff, in a very strong position, with an army to which every hour brought whole bands of enthusiastic recruits. On every side there was danger; the whole forces of Russia appeared to be gathering round him. Meantime the season was far advanced; the stern winter of the north was at hand; and the determined hostility of the peasantry prevented the smallest supplies of provision from being introduced into the capital. The stores at first sight so ample, within the city itself, had already begun to fail: the common soldiers had rich wines and liqueurs in abundance, but no meat except horse-flesh, and no bread. Daru gave the emperor what the latter called "a lion's counsel;" to draw in all his detachments, convert Moscow into an intrenched camp, kill and salt every horse, and trust to foraging parties for the rest—in a word, to lay aside all thoughts of keeping up communication with France, or Germany, or even Poland; and issue forth from Moscow, with his army entire and refreshed, at the commencement of the spring. But Napoleon had excellent reasons for suspecting that were he and his army cut off from all communication during six months, with what they had left behind them, the Prussians, the Austrians, and his Rhenish vassals themselves, might throw off the yoke; while, on the other hand, the Russians could hardly fail, in the course of so many months, to accumulate in their own country a force before which his isolated army, on re-issuing from their winter-quarters, would appear a mere speck.

Napoleon at length sent Count Lauriston to the head-quarters of Kutusoff, with another letter to Alexander, which the count was to deliver in person. Kutusoff received the Frenchman in the midst of all his generals, and answered with such softness that the envoy doubted not of success. The end, however, was that the Russian professed himself altogether unable to entertain any negotiation, or even to sanction the journey of any French messenger—such being, he said, the last and most express orders

of the prince. He offered to send on Napoleon's letter to St. Petersburg by one of his own aides-de-camp; and to this Lauriston was obliged to agree. This interview occurred on the 6th of October: no answer from St. Petersburg could be expected sooner than the 26th. There had already been one fall of snow. Napoleon lingered on in the Kremlin until the 19th of October.

Murat had, without Napoleon's command, and indeed in opposition to his wishes, established a strange species of armistice with Kutusoff, under articles which provided that three hours' notice must precede any regular affair between the two armies confronted to each other, but allowed the petty warfare of the Cossacks and other light troops to proceed without interruption on either flank. This suited Kutusoff's purpose; for it in effect left him in full possession of the means to avoid a general action until he chose to hazard one, and yet offered no interruption to the measures by which he and his nation were deliberately and systematically straitening the supplies of the invader. Napoleon alleged that Murat had entered on the compact from the desire of gratifying his own vanity, by galloping about in a neutral ground, and attracting the admiration of both armies, but especially of the Cossacks, by his horsemanship, and the brilliant, if not fantastic, dresses in which it was at all times his delight to exhibit his fine person.

The armistice, such as it was, between Joachim and Kutusoff, was broken through as soon as the latter had sufficiently disciplined the new recruits who had crowded to his standard from every region of the empire. Murat then received considerable reinforcements from Moscow, together with Napoleon's commands to gain possession, if possible, of one of the roads leading to Kalouga. There, and at Toula, the chief magazines of the Russian army were known to be established; and moreover by retiring in that direction towards Poland (should a retreat finally be found necessary), Napoleon counted on the additional and far greater advantage of traversing a country hitherto unwasted.

Murat accordingly pushed his light troops over a new district; and had the mortification to find the Russian system of defence persevered in wherever he advanced. The splendid country-house of Rostophchin was burnt to the ground ere the French reached it; and the following letter, affixed to its gates, breathed the same spirit which had dared to sacrifice Moscow:—"I have for eight years embellished this residence, and lived happily in it with my family. The inhabitants of the estate, in number 1720, quit it at your approach; and I set fire to my house, that it may not be polluted with your presence."

Kutusoff was no longer disposed to witness in inaction the progress of Murat. He divined that Napoleon must at last be convinced of the necessity of abandoning Moscow, and determined that at all events he should not make his retreat in the direction of Kalouga. General Bennigsen was ordered to attack Murat, on the 18th October, at Vincovo: the result was decidedly in favour of the Russians, in whose hands there remained nearly 3000 prisoners and forty pieces of artillery. The cannonade was heard at the Kremlin, and no sooner did the issue of the day reach Napoleon than he made up his mind to march his whole army to the support of the King of Naples. That same evening several divisions



were put in motion; he himself, at the head of others, left Moscow on the 19th, and the metropolis was wholly evacuated on the morning of the 22nd. Russian troops entered it immediately afterwards, in time to preserve the Kremlin, which had been undermined and attempted to be blown up in a last excess of rage; and within a few hours, so completely had the patriotic peasants baffled Napoleon, the town swarmed with people, and all the market-places were crowded with every species of provision. The emperor's bulletins announced that "Moscow had been found not to be a good military position,"—that it was "necessary for the army to breathe in a wider space." The precipitancy, however, with which the French retired, was such that they left their sick and wounded to the mercy of the Russians, and yet thousands of waggons, laden with the spoils of Moscow, attended and encumbered their march.

From the latter end of October to the 6th of November the weather had been beautifully serene, although extremely cold, and the army marched with regularity, yet in this interval they were severely distressed for want of forage and provisions. Already were the soldiers compelled to eat horse-flesh; and the animals that drew the artillery, and the innumerable carts laden with the spoils of Moscow, dropped down with fatigue, and perished. Hourly, ammunition waggons were exploded, from the utter impossibility of removing them. The army was followed by Cossacks, who were kept in awe by the French artillery and cavalry; but on the 6th November they were concealed by impenetrable clouds, a furious wind beat the forests, sheets of snow darkened the air, despondency unnerved every breast, extreme cold and hunger paralyzed the movements and destroyed the discipline of the army. Cannon, carts, baggage-waggons, were all abandoned. Those who were not able to keep pace with the march of the columns were either transpierced by the friendly lances of the Cossacks, or tasted of the bitterness of death by slow and lingering draughts of agony. So sudden, yet so complete was the destruction, that in two days the army lost one-third of its number, and by the latter end of November it had left behind it 500 pieces of cannon and upwards of 40,000 prisoners. It was in vain that Napoleon occasionally marched on foot with his guards, and endeavoured, by familiar conversation, to reanimate their sinking spirits. The conqueror under whose banners they had been led to innumerable triumphs, the father who had anticipated all their wants, the patron whose smile was distinction and whose favour was power and fortune, was now regarded as the immediate cause of all their calamities, and as the destroyer of the host.

The passage of the Wop and Berezhina aggravated their calamities, and the junction of the armies from Moldavia and Courland, in the line of the retreat, completed the work of destruction. Posterity will hardly credit the tale, that, out of an army which in June consisted of upwards of 400,000 men, the feeble wrecks were in the early part of December reduced to 20,000.

At Wilna a division took place of the remains of the plunder of Moscow, and the gaunt and ghastly spectres of soldiers were arrayed in the richest silks, and, although dropping by hundreds in the streets from famine, yet rich in the dross of gold and silver. At Smorghoni, in Lithuania, Napoleon quitted the army

on the 15th of December, the command of which was first deputed to the king of Naples and afterwards to the prince viceroy. Travelling *incognito*, he arrived in Paris on the 20th of that month.

In a speech to the Legislative Body, he explained the perils which on every side menaced the empire, perils increased by the defection of the king of Prussia and the advance of the Prussian and Russian armies through the duchy of Warsaw into Saxony, whither the French army, by this time greatly reinforced, had been driven. After dilating on these matters, his minister proposed a decree to the senate for calling out 36,000 conscripts.

In every department of government a miraculous activity prevailed: his conscripts were clothed in the space of one week! By one grand effort every spring in the complicated machine of the French administration was stretched to its utmost possible elasticity; and to the astonishment of the world, and of France herself, he brought into the field an army of upwards of 200,000 troops, perfectly equipped (except in cavalry) and fairly disciplined: the artillery was excellent, and well served.

Quitting Paris the latter end of April, 1813, Napoleon conducted to the borders of the Saale, in the neighbourhood of Weissenfels a very large army, and on the 2nd of the following May, was fought the celebrated battle of Lutzen, which is thus described in the "Imperial Despatch":—

"The battles of Weissenfels and Lutzen were but preludes to events of the highest importance. The emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia, who had arrived at Dresden with their forces at the end of April, learning that the French army had debouched from the Thuringe, adopted the plan of giving battle in the plains of Lutzen, and put themselves in motion to occupy the position; but they were anticipated by the rapidity of the movements of the French army. They, however, persisted in their project, and resolved to attack the army, to drive it from the positions it had taken. The position of the French army was, on the 2nd of May, in the morning, as follows:—The left of the army leaned upon the Elster; it was formed by the viceroy, having under his orders the 5th and 11th corps. The centre was commanded by the prince of Moskwa, in the village of Kara. The emperor, with the young and old guard, was at Lutzen; the duke of Ragusa was at the defile of Poserna, and formed the right with his three divisions. General Bertrand, commanding the 4th corps, marched to proceed to this defile. The enemy debouched and passed the Elster at the bridges of Zwenkaw, Pegou, and Zutz. The emperor hoping to anticipate him in his movement, and thinking that he could not attack till the 5th advanced, General Laurenston, whose corps formed the extreme of the left, was ordered to march upon Leipsic, in order to disconcert the enemy's projects, and place the French army, for the day of the 3rd, quite different to that upon which the enemy had calculated to find it, and in which it was in reality on the 2nd, and by this means carry disorder into their columns.

At nine in the morning his majesty, having heard a cannonade from the side of Leipsic, proceeded there at full gallop. The enemy defended the village of Lestenau, and the bridges in advance of Leipsic. His majesty only waited the moment when these last positions should be carried to put in motion all his army in that direction, make a pivot on Leipsic, pass to the right bank of the Elster, and take the enemy

*à revers*; but at ten o'clock the enemy's army debouched towards Kara, in several columns, extremely deep; the horizon was obscured by them. The enemy presented immense forces.

"The emperor immediately made his dispositions. The viceroy received orders to march on the left of the prince of Moskwa; but three hours were necessary to do this. The prince of Moskwa ordered his men under arms, and with five divisions supported the battle, which in half an hour became terrible. His majesty himself marched at the head of the last guard, behind the centre of the army, sustaining the right of the prince of Moskwa. The duke of Ragusa, with three divisions, occupied the extreme right. General Bertrand had orders to debouche on the enemy's rear, at the moment when the line should be strongly engaged. Fortune crowned with brilliant success all these dispositions. The enemy, who seemed certain of success, marched to reach our right, and gain the road of Weissenfels. General Compans, general of battle of the last merit, at the head of the first division of the duke of Ragusa, stopped him short. The marine regiments supported several charges with *sang froid*, and covered the field of battle with the enemy's cavalry. But the great efforts of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, were directed against the centre. Four of prince Moskwa's five divisions were already engaged. The village of Kara was taken and retaken several times, but it remained in the enemy's power. Count de Lobau directed General Rigard to retake the village. It was retaken.

"The battle embraced a line of two leagues, covered with fire, smoke, and clouds of dust. The prince of Moskwa, General Souham, and General Girard, were every where making head against every thing. General Girard was wounded with several balls, but wished to remain on the field of battle; he declared his wish to die commanding his troops. However, we began to observe from afar the dust and first fire of General Bertrand's corps, at the same moment the viceroy entered in line upon the left, and the duke of Terente attacked the enemy's reserve, and reached the village upon which the enemy rested his right. At this moment the enemy redoubled his efforts on the centre; the village of Kara was again taken, our centre gave way, some battalions fled, but those valorous youths, on seeing the emperor, rallied, exclaiming, 'Vive l'Empereur.' His majesty judged that the critical moment had arrived. The emperor ordered the duke of Treviso to march with sixteen battalions of the young guard to the village of Kara, overthrow the enemy, retake the village, and overcome any thing he met with there. At the same moment, his majesty ordered his aid-de-camp, General Drouett, an artillery officer of the greatest distinction, to form a battery of eighty pieces, and place it in advance of the old guard, which was formed in eschelons, as four redoubts, to support the centre; all our cavalry ranged in battle behind. Generals Dulauey, Dronet, and Devaux, set off at full gallop, with their eighty pieces of artillery in the same group. The fire became dreadful—the enemy gave way on all sides. The duke of Treviso obtained the village of Kara, overthrew the enemy, and continued to advance, beating the charge. The enemy's cavalry, infantry, and artillery, all retreated.

"General Bonnet received orders to move on Kara by his left, to support the success of the centre. He sustained several charges of cavalry. General Ber-

thier advanced, and entered the line. In vain that the enemy's cavalry galloped about his squares, his march was not relaxed. To rejoin him the sooner, the emperor ordered a change of direction by pivoting on Kara, the whole of the line made a change in front, the right wing foremost. The enemy then fled, and we pursued him for a league and a half. We soon arrived at the heights which had been occupied by the emperor Alexander, the king of Prussia, and the Brandenburg family, during the battle. We made several thousand prisoners. The number could not be more considerable considering the inferiority of our cavalry. At the commencement of the battle, the emperor said to the troops—'It is a battle like those in Egypt—a good infantry, supported by artillery, should be sufficient for it.' General Goude, chief of the prince of Moskwa's staff, was killed, a death worthy of so good a soldier. Our loss is 10,000 men, killed and wounded, that of the enemy may be estimated at 25,000 or 30,000 men. The royal Prussian guards are destroyed. The emperor of Russia's guards have suffered considerably, and the ten regiments of Russian cuirassiers are destroyed. His majesty cannot sufficiently eulogise the good-will, courage, and intrepidity of the army. Our young soldiers took no danger into consideration, but have in this great instance shown all the nobleness of French blood.

"The chief of the staff mentions the fine actions which have shed a lustre on this brilliant day, which, like a clap of thunder, has pulverized the chimerical hopes, and all the calculations for the destruction and dismemberment of the empire. The prince of Hesse Homburgh was killed, as was the prince of Mecklenburgh Swartz. The old guards, only six battalions of which arrived, by their presence kept up the affair with that *sang froid* which characterises them. They did not fire a musket. Half the army were not engaged, for the four divisions of General Lauriston's corps have done nothing but occupy Leipsic; three divisions of the duke of Reggio were still two days march off. Count Bertrand charged with one of his divisions so lightly that it did not lose fifty men: his second and third division did not charge at all. The second division of the young guards was still four days' march off, and the old guards were at Erfurt.

"The duke of Belluno's corps was also three days' march from the field of battle; General Sebastiani's cavalry corps, with the division of Prince Eckmuhl, was at the Elbe. The allied army, 150,000 to 200,000 men strong, commanded by the two sovereigns, with a number of the princes of Prussia, has thus been put to route, by less than half of the French army. The field of battle presented a most affecting spectacle; the young soldiers, on seeing the emperor, forgot their sufferings, exclaiming, 'Vive l'Empereur.' 'It is now twenty years,' said the emperor, 'that I have commanded the French armies, but I have never witnessed such bravery and devotion.'

Negotiations were now commenced for an armistice, which was signed at Reichienback on the 1st of June. The terms of this armistice left the French in possession of all their conquests, and extended their line on the frontier of Prussia. We have not interrupted the narrative of this short but important campaign to notice, in the natural order of dates, that Hamburg (which with other



contiguous territories, had been merged in the overgrown mass of the French empire) fell into the hands of the allies, and had been reconquered by the prince of Eckmühl. Another opportunity was now afforded to Napoleon of closing the war. The substantial fruits of victory remained with him in the battles already described. The prodigious efforts he had made had rendered him once more an object of apprehension; and a peace might have been then negotiated, under the mediation of the emperor of Austria, which would have left him the complete master of Italy; but his exasperated pride demanded nothing less than the reconquest of all of which the Russian campaign had deprived him. Alarmed at his ambition, and yet smarting under the injuries he had received, the emperor Francis at length joined the coalition against France, which now consisted of Russia, Prussia, Austria, Sweden, and Great Britain, the life and soul of the confederacy. During this armistice, Napoleon had strained every nerve to recruit his armies, which were now increased to 500,000 men. He repaired to Mentz, where he had an interview with the empress, constituted regent of the empire during his absence in Germany, and sent the prince viceroy to Italy to make head against the Austrians.

The armistice having terminated on the 17th of August, Napoleon attacked and defeated the Prussian and Russian corps opposed to him with considerable loss; but he was not suffered to pursue his career in that quarter. Taking advantage of his absence, the Austrian army, in immense force, crossed the mountains which divide Saxony from Bohemia, and advanced to Dresden, which they hoped to carry by *coup de main*. Napoleon left Silesia, and with the imperial guards, and some other divisions, achieved a march of 120 English miles in seventy-two hours, through bad roads, filled with water, and previously injured by the transport of immense bodies of troops and their artillery. This surprising march, one of the most splendid of his military achievements, and which, under all circumstances, stands alone in modern history, was so well timed, that an hour later its object would have been defeated, for the Austrians were in possession of the suburbs. Without allowing his troops, composed almost entirely of very young men, to halt or refresh themselves, Napoleon led them forth against the enemy whilst the rain descended in torrents. The action which ensued was vigorously contested; but the superiority of the French artillery compelled the allies to retire with considerable loss.

The next and following days Napoleon pursued them to the distance of about thirty miles from Dresden; but here the first signal disaster of the campaign occurred. He had detached the corps of Vandamme in pursuit of the Austrians to Culm. This corps was unsupported; and, having in the first attack gained some advantages, Vandamme descended the mountains, an error of which the Austrians quickly profited by surrounding this corps, from whom it took 12,000 prisoners, with all their baggage and artillery.

On the north of Saxony the French arms were equally unfortunate. The prince of Moskwa attacked the army under the crown prince of Sweden, at Donnevit, and succeeded at first in making some impression upon it, but the skill of the crown prince, and the ardour of the troops, soon changed the for-

tune of the day. The French were defeated with great loss, and were disappointed, moreover, in the expected co-operation of the corps under the prince of Eckmühl. From this moment the situation of Napoleon, who remained in and near Dresden, became hourly more perilous, as the semicircle on the exterior line of which the allies were acting became more and more contracted. It was in vain that, with his characteristic activity and energy, he endeavoured to oppose the movements of the allies on the points most threatened. If for a short time he compelled, or rather appeared to compel, the enemy to retire from those points, they advanced in another direction.

The battle of Leipsic was most fatal in its consequences to the emperor. The allies were enabled by the beginning of October to concentrate their forces, so as to give them a great numerical superiority over the French. On the 3rd of October Blücher crossed the Elbe, and, driving Bertrand before him, fixed his head-quarters at Düben. The crown prince crossed at Roslau, and thus both the great armies passed over to the other side, leaving the right bank clear, with the exception of the division of Tauenstein, which still lay before Wittenberg. Ney retired before this unequal force to Leipsic, and Schwartzberg advanced from the south as far as Marienberg. It was at this period, and in this critical position, that the emperor received a confidential letter from the king of Bavaria, assuring him that he would hold out six weeks longer against all the allurements that were offered him to desert his cause. On this, Bonaparte, finding one grand stroke necessary, both to baffle his enemies and to secure the wavering fidelity of his allies, conceived and proposed to his council one of the boldest schemes he had ever thought of, or executed. The allies, by concentrating themselves on the left bank of the Elbe, had left the right side defenceless, with the exception of the inconsiderable force of Tauenstein at Wittenberg. This circumstance did not escape the falcon glance of Napoleon. He proposed, therefore, to change positions with the enemy; to occupy the right bank of the Elbe which they had quitted, resting his extreme left on Dresden and his right on Hamburg; to recover the cities of Berlin, Brandenburg, and Mecklinberg; to deblockade the great garrisons, and add their troops to the main army; and carrying on the war between the Elbe and the Oder, from the resources of a country yet untouched, and in his turn becoming the assailant, instead of acting on the defensive, to dazzle and overpower the allies, no less by the daring novelty of his enterprise than by the addition of solid strength it would afford him. He had already ordered Regnier and Bertrand to cross the Elbe in furtherance of his meditated plan. But the coldness of his marshals, who seem to have thought from this time that there was no safety but in fear, and the defection of the Bavarian troops, of which he was informed by the king of Wirtemberg, put an end to his scheme, and he gave it up, though not without a struggle. He balanced for three days between advance and retreat. At length, he resolved upon retiring to Leipsic; and the orders to Regnier and Bertrand to proceed towards Berlin were recalled. Leaving Davous behind him in garrison at Hamburg, Lamarois at Magdeburg, Lapoye at Wittenberg, and Narbonne at Torgau, the emperor reached Leipsic, where he re-

ceived the welcome news that his whole force would in twenty-four hours be under its walls; that the grand army of Austria was fast approaching, but that Blücher alarmed by the demonstrations against Berlin would be longer in coming up, so that there might be an opportunity of fighting one army before the arrival of the other. There had already been a skirmish of cavalry, in which Murat had narrowly escaped from a young Prussian officer, who was cut down by an orderly dragoon of the king's.

The town of Leipsic has four sides and four gates. On the north those of Halle and Ranstadt, on the east the gate of Grimma, and on the south that called St. Peter's, led out of the city into extensive suburbs. To the west are two rivers, the Pleisse and the Elster, which, flowing through marshy grounds, are only passable by a succession of bridges, the first of them leading to the villages of Lindenau and Mark-ranstadt, and commencing close to the city-gate of that name. This road forms the only communication between Leipsic and the banks of the Rhine. On the east the river Partha makes a large semi-circular bend, enclosing an extensive plain: on the south is the rising ground called the Swedish camp, and another called the sheep-walk, bordering on the banks of the Pleisse. To this quarter the grand army of the allies was seen advancing on the 15th of October. Bonaparte made his arrangements accordingly. Bertrand and Poniatowski defended Lindenau and the east side of the city, by which the French must retreat. Augereau was posted further to the left, on the elevated plain of Wachau; and, on the south, Victor, Lauriston, and Macdonald confronted the advance of the allies, with the imperial guards placed as a reserve. On the north, Marmont was placed between Mœckern and Euterist, to make head against Blücher, should he arrive in time to take part in the battle. On the opposite quarter the sentinels of the two armies were within musket-shot of each other, when evening fell. "But neither side seemed willing to begin a strife which was to decide the great question—whether the princes of Europe should be put in a situation to dictate laws and a government to France, or fail (as they had so often and so justly hitherto done), incurring the penalty which they thought this object was worth, not only of disgrace and discomfiture, but of their own and their people's subjugation?"

The number of men who engaged the next morning was estimated at 136,000 French and 230,000 on the part of the allies. All the accounts assign a preponderating force to the latter of 80,000 or 100,000 men. Napoleon himself visited all the posts, gave his last orders, and took occasion, as he frequently did on the eve of a battle, to distribute eagles to the newly raised regiments. The soldiers were made to swear never to abandon them: and the emperor concluded by saying aloud, "Yonder lies the enemy: swear that you will rather die than permit France to be dishonoured." And they so swore, and they did and would to the last have kept their word, in spite of the superiority of numbers, but for the treachery of their confederates, who thought to set themselves free, when indeed they became most slaves! The greatest preparations for defence were made on the southern side of Leipsic, as the attack on the north was less certain. Rockets were, however, seen ascending in the night, which were supposed to be signals of the approach of Blücher and the crown

prince. Napoleon remained all night in the rear of his own guards behind the central position, facing a village called Gossa, occupied by the Austrians. At day-break on the 16th of October the battle began. The French position was assailed along all the southern front with the greatest fury. On the French right, the village of Markleberg was fiercely assaulted by Kleist, while the Austrian division of Mehrfeldt, making their way through the marshes, compelled Poniatowski to give ground, till the emperor made Marmont send Souham, who had joined during the night, to his assistance. Marshal Victor defended the village of Wachau against Prince Eugene of Wirtemberg. Lauriston repulsed Klenau. The allies having made six desperate attempts on these points, all of them unsuccessful, Napoleon in turn assumed the offensive. Macdonald was ordered to attack Klenau and beat him back from Liebertwolkowitz with the cavalry of Sebastiani; while two divisions proceeded to sustain General Lauriston. This was about noon. The village of Gossa was carried by the bayonet. Macdonald made himself master of the Swedish camp; and the eminence called the Sheep-walk was near being taken in the same manner. The impetuosity of the French had fairly broken through the centre of the allies, and Napoleon sent the tidings of his success to the king of Saxony, who ordered all the bells in the city to be rung, the peal of which mingled with the roar of the cannon. The king of Naples, with Latour-Maubourg and Kellermann, poured through the gap in the enemy's centre, at the head of the whole body of cavalry, and thundered forward as far as Magdeburg, a village in the rear of the allies, bearing down General Rayefskoi with the grenadiers of the Russian reserve. At this moment, while the French were disordered by their own success, Alexander, who was present, ordered forward the Cossacks of his guard, who with their long lances bore back the dense body of cavalry that had so nearly carried the day. Meantime, as had been apprehended, Blücher arrived before the city, and suddenly came into action with Marmont, being three times his numbers. He in consequence obtained great and decided advantages; and before nightfall had taken the village of Mœckern, together with twenty pieces of artillery and 2000 prisoners. But on the south side the contest remained doubtful. Gossa was still disputed. The Austrians of Bianchi's division came on with dreadful outcries: Poniatowski, even with Augereau's aid, had great difficulty in keeping his ground: but, Schwarzenberg having pushed a body of horse across the Pleisse to take the French in the rear, they were instantly charged and driven back by General Jewel of the guards, and their leader General Mehrfeldt fell into the hands of the French. The battle raged till night-fall, when it ceased by mutual consent. Three cannon-shot, fired as a signal to the more distant points, intimated that the conflict was ended for the time, and the armies slept on the ground they had occupied during the day. The French on the southern side had not relinquished one foot of their original position, though attacked by such superior numbers. Marmont had indeed been forced back by Blücher, and compelled to crowd his line of defence nearer the walls of Leipsic.

Thus pressed on all sides with doubtful issues, Bonaparte availed himself of the capture of General Mehrfeldt to demand an armistice, and to signify his



acceptance of the terms proposed by the allies, but which were now found to be too moderate; as all terms would prove to be that either were or had a chance of being accepted, because there was an ulterior nameless object that drew them on, and from which nothing but despair could wean them. They offered Bonaparte terms which only absolute necessity could make him submit to; and, when that necessity came, they said, "no; we will have more, namely, the original stake we played for, unconditional surrender of the right of nations to choose their own government." Bonaparte thought he could make choice of Count Mehrfeldt as the bearer of a pacific overture with the better grace and more confidence because, after the battle of Austerlitz, it was the same individual who, on the part of the emperor of Austria, had solicited and obtained a personal interview and favourable terms from Napoleon. "Adieu, General Mehrfeldt," said the emperor, dismissing his prisoner:—"When, on my part, you mention the word *armistice* to the two emperors, I doubt not that the voice which then strikes their ears will awaken many recollections." Many recollections indeed; deep scars, which thunder had entrenched, and which required to have all traces of them wiped out by an erasure as complete as it was un hoped for. Woe to him who shows and then expects favour from princes! Napoleon received no answer till his troops had recrossed the Rhine; and the reason assigned is that the allies had pledged themselves solemnly to each other to enter into no treaty with him while a single individual of the French army remained in Germany.

The 17th was spent in preparations on both sides, without any actual hostilities. At eight o'clock in the morning of the 18th they were renewed with tenfold fury. Napoleon had considerably contracted his circuit of defence, and the French were posted on an inner line nearer to Leipsic, of which Probstsheyda was the central point. He himself, stationed on an eminence called Thonberg, commanded a prospect of the whole field. The troops were drawn up behind the villages; cannon were planted in front and on their flanks, and every patch of wooded ground which afforded the least shelter was filled with riflemen. The battle then joined issue. The Poles, with the gallant Poniatowski at their head, to whom this was to be the last of his fields of battle, defended the banks of the Pleisse and the adjoining villages against the prince of Hesse-Homberg, Bianchi, and Collerido. In the centre, Barclay, Wittgenstein, and Kleist advanced on Probstsheyda, where they were opposed by Murat, Victor, Augereau, and Lauriston, under the eye of Napoleon. On the left Macdonald had drawn back his division to a village called Stoetteritz. Along this whole line the contest was maintained furiously on both sides; nor could the terrified spectators from the walls and steeples of Leipsic perceive that it either receded or advanced. About two o'clock the allies forced their way headlong into Probstsheyda; the camp-followers began to fly, the tumult was excessive. Napoleon, in the rear, but yet on the verge of this tumult, preserved his entire tranquillity. He placed the reserve of the old guard in order, led them in person to recover the village, and saw them force their entrance ere he withdrew to the eminence from whence he watched the battle. During the whole of this eventful day this wonderful man continued calm, decided, collected; and supported his diminished and broken

squadrons with a presence of mind and a courage as determined as he had ever shown in directing the tide of onward victory. The allies, at length felt themselves obliged to desist from the murderous attacks on the villages which cost them so dear; and, withdrawing their troops, kept up a dreadful fire with their artillery. The French replied with equal spirit, though they had fewer guns, and besides their ammunition was falling short. Still, however, Napoleon completely maintained the day on the south of Leipsic, where he commanded in person. On the northern side the yet great superiority of numbers placed Ney in a precarious situation; and, pressed hard by Blucher and the crown prince, he was compelled to draw nearer the town, and had made a stand on an eminence called Heiterblik, when on a sudden the Saxons who were stationed in that part of the field deserted from the French and went over to the enemy. In consequence of this unexpected disaster, Ney was unable any longer to defend himself. It was in vain that Bonaparte despatched his reserves of cavalry to fill up the chasm that had been made, and Ney drew up the remainder of his forces close under the walls of Leipsic. The battle once more ceased at all points, and, the same signal being given as before, the field was left to the slain and the wounded.

Although the French army had thus kept its ground up to the last moment of these two days, yet there was no prospect of their being able to hold out much longer at Leipsic. The allies pressed with an enormous force on the city; the ammunition of the French was nearly exhausted; a corps which it was hoped might join from Dresden had not come up, besides which Bonaparte had just learned that the Bavarians had gone over to the allies, and meant to intercept his return to France. All things counselled a retreat, which was destined (like the rest of late) to be unfortunate. The retreat was commenced in the night-time. He appointed Macdonald and Poniatowski (with whom he parted for the last time) to defend the rear. With day-light the allied troops strove to pour into Leipsic in pursuit of the retiring army. The king of Saxony sent proposals to the allies not to enter the city till the French had evacuated it; and Napoleon was advised to set fire to the suburbs to protect his rear-guard, but this he refused to do, out of regard to his old and faithful ally. He took a friendly leave of the monarch and his queen, but their interview was broken off by the new discharge of musketry around them. They urged him to mount his horse and escape; but, before he did so, he formally released the king's body-guard from all ties to himself and France. He parted only just in time; for the streets were so choked up with troops, baggage, and artillery, the wounded and the dead, that he found it was impossible to make his way through them, and was obliged to turn down the bye-streets, and, leaving the city through a different gate, gained the bridge of Ranstadt by a circuitous route.

A temporary bridge which had been erected had given way, and the old bridge on the road to Lindenau was the only one that remained for the passage of the whole French army. But the defence of the suburbs had been so gallant and obstinate that time was allowed for that purpose. At length the rear-guard itself was about to retreat, when, as they approached the banks of the river, the bridge

blew up by the mistake of a sergeant of a company of sappers, who, in the absence of his principal, hearing the shouts of the Cossacks, and seeing the confusion that prevailed, imagined the retreat of the French cut off, and set fire to the mine of which he had the charge before the proper moment. This catastrophe effectually barred the escape of all those who still remained on the Leipsic side of the river, except a few who succeeded in swimming across, among whom was Marshal Macdonald. Poniatowski, after making a brave resistance, and refusing to surrender, was drowned in making the same attempt. In him, it might be said, perished the last of the Poles. About 25,000 French were made prisoners of war, with a great quantity of artillery and baggage.

The triumph of the allied monarchs was complete. They met in the great square, together with that "base foot-ball player," the crown prince of Sweden, to congratulate each other on the event, and to receive the sword of General Bertrand as commandant of the city. No interview took place with the king of Saxony, who was sent (as a recreant to the cause of thrones) under a guard of Cossacks to Berlin. The bridge which had been destroyed was as necessary to the advance of the allies as it had been to the retreat of Napoleon, and the pursuit was but slack.

Meantime Bonaparte continued his retrograde steps to Lutzen, and thence to Erfurt, which he reached on the 23d of October. The troops, it is said, soured by misfortune, marched with a fierce and menacing air, but his own courage was unabated; he seemed thoughtful, but calm and composed; indulging in no vain regrets, still less in useless censures and recrimination. At Erfurt he counted his losses, which were greater than he expected, heard of new defections among his allies, and parted for the last time with Murat, who, under pretence of bringing up forces from the French frontiers, hastily set off for his own dominions. The Poles who were in Bonaparte's army showed a spirit worthy of a people wishing to be free, but therefore (as it should seem) not trusted with freedom. The emperor gave them their option whether they would adhere to his broken fortunes or forsake him at this crisis, when it might be of advantage to themselves; but they to a man refused to avail themselves of the alternative. He passed two days at Erfurt, where his re-assembled force amounted to about 80,000 men. These, with 80,000 more, which had been left behind in the garrisons, were all that remained of 280,000 at the commencement of the campaign. Instructions were sent to the commandants, after the battle of Leipsic, to evacuate the fortresses and form a junction with the emperor; but it is supposed that they never received the orders. Most of them soon after capitulated, and the troops were to return to France, on condition of not serving for six months, but they were immediately after made prisoners of war.

Bonaparte, while he was recruiting and collecting his forces, received news that his old ally, the Bavarian general, Wrede, was waiting for him at Wurtzburg-on-the-Maine, to intercept his way to France, and that the Austrians and Prussians were closing on his rear, in the direction of Weimar and Laugensalza. Urged by these circumstances, he left Erfurt in very boisterous weather. Wrede, notwithstanding the inferiority of his force, took up a position at Hanau, where he was joined by some Cossack chiefs, while

the Bavarians occupied the wood of Lambo', and were drawn up in a line on the right bank of a small river, the Kintzig, near Newhow. A sharp skirmish took place in the wood, which was disputed, tree by tree, till Bonaparte ordered two battalions of the Guard, under General Curial, to advance in support of the *tirailleurs*, when the Bavarians, at sight of their grenadier-caps, imagining themselves attacked by the whole corps, turned and fled. A successful charge of cavalry being at the same time made on Wrede's left, he found it necessary to retreat behind the Kintzig. The line of retreat was left open to Napoleon, who proceeded forward towards the Rhine, leaving three corps of infantry with Marmont, to protect the rear-guard of 18,000 men under Mortier, which was not yet come up, but which made good their defence the next day against Wrede in a skirmish, in which he himself was wounded, and his son-in-law, the prince of Altingen, killed on the spot. They then hastened to rejoin the emperor. The French are reckoned to have lost 6000 men in these two actions and the Bavarians 10,000. A German miller is said to have performed a signal service in the last day's battle, by turning the water into his mill-stream just in time to prevent a body of French cavalry from pursuing a body of Bavarian infantry, who were in danger of being cut to pieces by them. Bonaparte reached Frankfurt on the 30th, which he left to other guests on the 1st, and passing through Mentz, where he stopped for some days, arrived in Paris on the 9th of November.

At the beginning of the year 1814 the wrecks of the force that Napoleon had brought from Hanau had been gradually withdrawn from the Rhine to positions within the frontiers, in proportion as the allied troops advanced. Aware of the imminent dangers which threatened him, the emperor taxed his faculties to the utmost. Free corps, as they were termed (that is, bodies of men who subsisted themselves, and were to carry on a desultory warfare against the allies, nearly in the same manner as the Guerilla parties had been accustomed to act in Spain), were organized in those departments which had become the theatre of the war. The best troops he could collect from different quarters were assembled under his own immediate command; and, at the head of about 70,000 men, he fought at St. Dizien, on the 27th of January 1814, the first battle of this campaign. In that action he was defeated with the loss of 176 pieces of cannon; but he retreated slowly and in good order towards Paris. So desperately was this battle contested that Napoleon had two horses shot under him.

The plan of the allies in this campaign was nearly similar to that which had proved so eminently successful in Germany, namely, first to harass and distract the enemy, and then to surround and crush his army. In furtherance of this plan the allied troops, whose collective force was probably not much inferior to 200,000 men, advanced towards Paris in two lines. That proceeding through the northern part of Champagne was composed of Prussians and Russians, commanded by Blücher, Kleist, Langeron, &c.; the other, an Austrian army, took the lower or southern road. The army under Napoleon acted between these great bodies, and his policy was to take advantage of any error they might commit. Such an opportunity was soon presented. The Prussian army had incautiously extended its front, and thereby weakened the



centre. The military eye of Napoleon immediately discovered this fault, of which he hastened to take advantage.

At Montmirail, Champaubert, and La Ferte, villages in Champagne, he attacked the Prussians with the greatest vigour, having first defeated their centre with great loss. He followed up the blow, and compelled Blücher to retire with his army, considerably diminished, to Chalons. But his attention was now recalled to the defence of Paris, by the advance of the Austrian army, which had reached the forest of Fontainebleau, and approached within thirty-five miles of the capital city. He traversed with amazing rapidity Champagne; and uniting the imperial guards, and some small divisions he had brought with him, to the force which had been left to hold in check the Austrian army, he attacked the advanced guard of that army, commanded by the prince royal of Wirtemberg, at Nangis, in the neighbourhood of Melun, and defeated them with great loss. Disconcerted by this movement, Prince Schwartzburg retired, and retraced his steps as far as the ancient town of Troyes, still vigorously pressed by Napoleon. It was abandoned without much resistance; and into this town Napoleon entered as a conqueror. The situation of the allies now became critical. The season of the year, the rapidity of their march, and the untaken and well-garrisoned fortresses in their rear, had prevented the formation of magazines. Napoleon's scheme for establishing free companies had to a certain degree succeeded, since their convoys were subject to interception. The flank and rear of the Austrian army were moreover menaced by Augereau's corps, originally destined to defend Lyons, but which might now be brought to act in such a manner as to render the Austrian position no longer tenable.

Influenced by these weighty considerations, and also by the negotiation for a general peace between Napoleon and the whole of the allied powers, which was actively carried on at Chatillon, propositions were made for an armistice, and nearly agreed upon. The skill, activity, and fortitude he had shown in contending so successfully against such powerful odds, had exalted his military character. Indeed, the actions we have enumerated are perhaps the most splendid of his whole career. Negotiations for an armistice, and for a general peace (the latter of which was so far advanced that Napoleon was actually on the point of signing it) ceased; and hostilities, which had never been suspended, were carried on with greater vigour and animosity. From that moment the fortune of Napoleon declined. The indefatigable Blücher having re-assembled and reinforced the different divisions of his army, renewed his hostile movement in the north. Napoleon left as strong a force at Bar-sur-Aube as he could spare, followed Blücher, and fought, at the village of Craon, about fifty miles from Paris, a sanguinary battle, which lasted two days. On the first day the advantage seemed to incline to the French, but on the second Napoleon was repulsed, and withdrew. Napoleon now formed one of the boldest designs which military history records. Having appointed his brother Joseph his lieutenant in Paris, thrown up intrenchments, increased the number of troops in the capital, and prepared it to withstand an assault for some days, he determined, with the remainder of his army, to pass between the Austrian and Russian forces, and by that means get into their rear, communicate with

his fortresses, seize upon the military stores of the allies, and either compel them to capitulate from the total want of provisions or to retire towards the Rhine.

Acting upon this project, Napoleon passed the Austrian army at St. Dizier, and proceeded to the eastward, an operation which was not accomplished without loss. On this occasion he refused the Austrians' offer of battle. The allies, in their turn, now formed a bold and masterly design. They resolved to unite their forces and march to Paris. On their arrival at the heights of Montmartre, they were vigorously opposed. The youths of the Polytechnic school served the artillery with such effect as to produce a very serious loss to the assailants, who were bravely withstood likewise by the regular troops. The battle lasted for many hours, but was at length terminated in the complete defeat of the French, who lost all their artillery. The duke of Ragusa (Marmont) then sent a flag of truce to treat for the surrender of Paris. The terms were soon agreed upon, and, on the 31st of March, 1814, the allies took possession of the metropolis. This great event decided the fate of Napoleon. In every stage of the revolution, the example of the metropolis had divided a vast majority of the provincials; whilst it remained firm to the French emperor, it was an immense magazine, whence he drew continual supplies of money, troops, and military stores. Undeceived at length as to the real object of the allies, he hastened by forced marches towards Paris, and arrived at Fontainebleau with an army of about 40,000 men. But he arrived too late; the blow had been struck, and the following declaration was put forth by the emperor of Russia:—

"The armies of the allied powers have occupied the capital of France; the allied sovereigns receive favourably the wishes of the French nation.

"They declare that if the conditions of peace ought to contain stronger guarantees when the question was to bind down the ambition of Bonaparte, they may be more favourable when, by a return to a wise government, France herself offers the assurance of this repose.

"The sovereigns proclaim, in consequence, that they will no more treat with Napoleon Bonaparte, nor with any of his family.

"That they respect the integrity of ancient France, as it existed under its legitimate kings: they may even do more, because they profess it as a principle that, for the happiness of Europe, France must be great and strong.

"That they will recognize and guarantee the constitution which France shall adopt. They therefore invite the senate to name immediately a provisional government, which may provide for the wants of the administration, and prepare the constitution which shall suit the French people.

"The intentions which I have just expressed are common to all the allied powers.

(Signed) ALEXANDER.

"Paris, March 31st, 3 o'clock in the afternoon."

The negotiations which ensued terminated in the consignment of Napoleon to the island of Elba, with the title of ex-emperor, and a pension of 2,000,000 of livres. He displayed no unbecoming want of firmness on the occasion, and on the 20th of April, after embracing the officer commanding the attendant grenadiers of his guard, &c., he departed to his destination.

The empress Josephine, the early friend and companion of Napoleon, died in 1814. Her death took place at Malmaison, where she had long resided and which had been the scene of her happiest days with the emperor. This unassuming and retired residence is represented in the subjoined sketch, which was taken at the time she was visited by the emperor Alexander.



On the arrival of Napoleon at Elba, he devoted himself for some time, to all appearance, exclusively to the administration of the affairs of his little empire, projecting and originating various improvements, and amusing himself with the occasional society of strangers of high rank, who crowded to see and converse with him. In these colloquies he was often facetious, rarely seen dejected. He seemed to have discarded all recollections of that towering eminence to which fortune and talents had conducted him. His little fleet safely navigated the Mediterranean; and it is likely that he might have been permanently reconciled to his destiny had not the discontents in France held out a temptation which a haughty and aspiring spirit like his could not withstand. Besides, he complained that his allowance, stipulated in the treaty of abdication, had been very irregularly paid, and that the emperor of Austria had sequestered the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, which were by that treaty to be the inheritance of his son.

In the mean time, a powerful conspiracy was forming in France, which was carried on with great skill by the friends of Napoleon. The result was the return of Bonaparte from Elba, which event forms a most interesting epoch in his life—indeed it is unparalleled in the annals of history. Hurlled from the sovereignty of half the world, his star had lost its ascendancy, apparently to rise no more, when, lo! the captive of Elba returns; the purple is offered to him by the united voice of the empire; and, as if legions sprung at his bidding from the earth, he takes the field again, the leader of a devoted army. Nor was it attachment to Napoleon's person alone which spurred on the military portion of the empire to that enthusiastic display of feeling with which they marked the return of the exiled emperor. National vanity and wounded pride were undoubtedly exciting causes. In the last disastrous years of Napoleon's power the French armies had been driven from the scenes of their brightest triumphs by an enemy they had formerly humbled and despised; and those who had once dictated terms to half the sovereigns of Europe, within the walls of their respective capitals, had been driven for shelter to their own. They saw a mighty

territory, acquired by years of victory, torn from their grasp, their kingdom lessened to its ancient limits, and beautiful France despoiled of conquests and denuded of glory.

Had it been ever doubted that Bonaparte was the idol of the French nation, the strange events which occurred from his landing in the Gulf of Juan to his departure from Paris to join the army of the north would have dispelled it.

His march upon the capital was only delayed to receive the homage of the towns he traversed; and the temporary suspension of his power appeared to have more closely united him to the soldiery and people. He entered the palace of Fontainebleau in less than a fortnight from the time his landing at Cannes had been promulgated to the Parisians.

Three hours before Napoleon's arrival, Louis had abandoned his capital. Every thing connected with his flight betrayed imbecility and dismay. The *secrétaire* containing the private correspondence of his late brother and the duchess of Angoulême was forgotten in his haste; and the private memorials of family affection, with the secret state-papers of his minister de Blacas, were found in the Thuilleries after his departure. He hurried from a kingdom unwilling to obey his feeble rule, and, crossing the French frontiers, entered Ghent attended by a single dragoon.

Early that morning the news of his rival's flight was communicated to Napoleon at Fontainebleau. It would have been expected that Bonaparte would have hastened to resume his abdicated throne, and with all the splendour of military display announce his triumphal return to the good citizens of Paris; but he declined the parade; and, while thousands were waiting to hail his approach, that master-spirit calmly passed through the long line of equipages formed by the dignitaries of the court, and the representatives of the municipal bodies, and alighted from his travelling carriage at the Thuilleries. Pressing with difficulty through the immense crowd, who thronged the halls and staircase to testify their devotion, he was borne in the arms of his aides-de-camp to his private apartments, where his sisters, and the chief officers of the household, had assembled to receive the exile of Elba.

Although the fatigue of a rapid march from the Gulf of Juan might have required a season of repose, the night of his return was spent in consultation with his ministers and friends. On the next morning he reviewed the troops, who received him with rapturous plaudits: forming them into squares, he harangued them with his customary animation; and heard, in return, his address answered by oaths of fidelity and assurances of unaltered attachment to his family and himself.

The first care of the French emperor was to restore the military power of the kingdom, which the disastrous campaigns of Russia and Leipzig had greatly abridged. The memory of past victories was recalled, and martial glory, that powerful touchstone to national feeling, was displayed in tempting lustre to win the people to his standard. The male population capable of bearing arms was called out by ordinances and decrees; while the veteran army gladly assembled again beneath the eagles, which they had followed so often in the proudest days of their success.

While these events took place in the interior of France, the allied sovereigns, by repeated proclamations, designated Napoleon as a usurper and out-



law, declared their fixed determination to oppose him by force of arms, and to enter into no treaty which should leave him on the throne of France. As energetic in action as decided in words, the allied sovereigns (by whom we are to understand chiefly the monarchs of Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria) assembled their forces. The troops in the Netherlands (now united with Holland by the treaty of Vienna, and governed by the prince of Orange, with the title of king) were strongly reinforced, and large armies, under the orders of the duke of Wellington and Marshal Blücher, were organizing for the invasion of Picardy and Lorraine.

Justly alarmed at the power and hostile spirit of the confederacy formed against him, the ex-emperor adopted every measure which the most refined policy could suggest to conciliate the affection and insure the support of the people; and he devoted all the energies of his mind unceasingly to the welfare of France.

From Napoleon's indefatigable activity a large army, amounting to 130,000 men, the best disciplined, equipped, and devoted that France had ever sent into the field, was assembled in cantonments within the French frontier, on the side of the Netherlands. Very few of the principal marshals espoused the cause of Napoleon: amongst those actively employed we only discover the names of the princes of Eckmühl and of the Moskwa, and the dukes of Dalmatia, Treviso, and Albufera (Suchet).

The emperor quitted Paris to join his hastily raised levies on the 12th of June, and reached Avesnes on the following day. His army was composed of three divisions, and consisted of 130,000 men, supported by 350 pieces of cannon. On the 14th Napoleon issued the following address to his army:—"Soldiers! this is the anniversary of Marengo and of Friedland. Then, as after Austerlitz and Wagram, we were too generous. We gave credit to the protestations and oaths of the princes whom we suffered to remain on their thrones. Now, however, coalesced among themselves, they aim at the independence, and at the most sacred rights of France. They have commenced the most unjust of aggressions. Are we no longer the same men? Soldiers! at Jena, when fighting against these very Prussians, now so arrogant, you were as one to two, and at Montmirail as one to three. Let those among you who have been in the hands of the English recite the story of their prison-ships, and the evils which they suffered in them. The Saxons, Belgians, and Hanoverians, the soldiers of the confederation of the Rhine, groan at the thought of being obliged to lend their arms to the cause of princes enemies of justice and of the rights of nations. They know that this coalition is insatiable: after having devoured 12,000,000 of Poles, 12,000,000 of Italians, 1,000,000 of Saxons, 6,000,000 of Belgians, it will, if permitted, also swallow up the states of the second class in Germany. Fools that they are! A moment of prosperity blinds them. The oppression and the humiliation of the French people are out of their power. If they enter France, there will they find their tomb. Soldiers! we have forced marches to make, battles to wage, perils to encounter; but with constancy the victory will be ours. For every Frenchman who has a heart the moment has now arrived either to conquer or perish!"

At this period the allied troops were very tranquil

in their cantonments. The Prusso-Saxon army formed their left, the Anglo-Belgian army their right. The first, commanded by Marshal Blücher, was 120,000 strong, viz. 85,000 infantry, 20,000 cavalry, 15,000 artillery, with 300 pieces of cannon. It was divided into four corps. The first, under General Zeittén, was next to the English, having its head-quarters at Charleroi; the second, General Pirch, was at Namur, further back; the third, under General Thielman, was in the environs of Dinant, and was to rally at Liney, to the southward: the fourth, under Bulow, was behind the three others at Liege. The whole of these were to assemble at Fleurus behind Charleroi, and eight leagues from Namur, fourteen from Liney, and sixteen from Liege. Marshal Blücher's head-quarters were at Namur, sixteen leagues from the duke of Wellington's at Brussels. The Anglo-Belgian army, under the command of the latter, was formed of twenty-four brigades, of which nine were English, ten German, five Dutch and Flemish; and of eleven divisions of cavalry, consisting of sixteen English regiments, nine German, and six Dutch, besides a battalion at Ostend, and four regiments in the Flemish fortresses. The proportions were 37,000 English, 42,000 Germans, 25,000 Dutch and Belgians, in all 104,000 men. They were divided into two grand corps of infantry. The first, under the orders of the prince of Orange, composed of two English and three Belgian divisions, were at Enghien, Soignes, Braine-le-Comte, and Nivelles. The second corps, commanded by Lord Hill, and composed of four English divisions and one of Brunswick troops, was quartered at Brussels, Ath, Halle, and Ghent. Lord Uxbridge commanded the cavalry, and was at Grammont. The great park of artillery was at Ghent. The rallying point for the whole army was at Quatre-Bras, two leagues on the right of the Prussians; and, from the distance between these scattered points, it would take two whole days to assemble both armies on the same field of battle.

The three French columns commenced their march at day-break on the 15th. The advanced guard of the left, under Prince Jérôme, met and routed the advanced guard of the Prussian corps of General Zeittén, and took possession of the bridge of Marchiennes, driving the Prussians on Charleroi. The cavalry of General Pajol, forming the advanced guard of the centre, commenced its march at three in the morning; it was to have been sustained by General Vandamme's infantry, which did not, however, set out in time. The emperor therefore took the lead with his guard; and entered Charleroi, preceded by the light cavalry of Pajol, which followed the enemy sword in hand. The right of the army, commanded by Count Gérard, surprised the bridge of Châtelet at an early hour; the whole column came up in the evening. From Charleroi to Brussels is fourteen leagues: the road passes by Gosselies, Frasnes, Quatre-Bras, Gemappe, and Waterloo. Not far from Charleroi another causeway passes through Gilly to Namur. The corps of Zeittén had hastily evacuated Charleroi by these two, one division retiring by the road to Brussels and the other on Namur. They were followed by the French on each. Count Reille and Count d'Erlon marched on Gosselies and were to push on to Quatre-Bras. Marshal Grouchy with the reserve of cavalry followed by the third corps marched on Gilly, between which

and Fleurus, General Zeitten had taken post, backed by a wood. General Reille gained possession of Gosselies after a slight resistance. Marshal Ney having just arrived on the field of battle, the emperor immediately ordered him to proceed to Gosselies, to take the command of the whole of the left wing, composed of the first and second corps, with the cavalry of Lefebvre Desnouettes and General Kellerman's heavy cavalry—he was to attack whatever troops he met on the road from Gosselies to Brussels, and to take post across that route beyond Quatre-Bras, keeping military possession of the ground by placing strong advanced guards on the three openings to Brussels, Namur, and Nivelles, so as to cut off completely, if possible, the communications between the English and Prussian armies. The division of Zeitten's corps which had defended Gosselies wheeled to the right on Fleurus: Count Reille caused it to be followed by General Gerard's division, while he himself, with his cavalry and three other divisions, marched on Quatre-Bras. Prince Bernard of Saxony, who had the command of 4000 of the troops of Nassau, hearing the firing in the direction of Charleroi, went and posted himself at Frasne before Quatre-Bras; but he was dislodged by General Lefebvre Desnouettes, who threatened to turn and cut off his retreat, and he was obliged to retire to Gemappe.

Vandamme and Grouchy were stopped at Gilly by a report that there were 200,000 Prussians behind the woods in front of Fleurus. The emperor went to reconnoitre; and judging that there could be no more than from 18,000 to 20,000 of the enemy, gave orders to advance. A successful charge of the four squadrons on duty, conducted by General Letort, pierced through two squares, and almost destroyed the 28th Prussian regiment; but the intrepid Letort was mortally wounded. This general was one of the most distinguished of the French cavalry officers. He had not an equal in the art of conducting a charge or in communicating the electric spark to the men as well as to the horses: at his voice and example all fear vanished. At night Vandamme and Grouchy occupied the woods of Trichenaye and Lambusart near Fleurus. During the night between the 15th and 16th, the French head-quarters were at Charleroi; Blücher was still at Namur, Wellington at Brussels. The first Prussian corps under Zieten, enfeebled by the loss of 2000 men, retired to Sombref behind Fleurus. The second and part of the third corps marched all night from Namur, and joined the first on the morning of the 16th. The remainder of the third corps came up during the battle, and the fourth corps under Bulow did not reach Gembloux, ten leagues from Sombref, till it was over.

The duke of Wellington received a despatch from Marshal Blücher on the 15th, to state that hostilities had commenced, and that a strong French reconnoitring party had sabred some of his advanced posts. This did not prevent the English general from going to a ball, where a second despatch found him at eleven o'clock the same evening with the intelligence, that "the French had entered Charleroi that morning, and continued to march in order of battle on Brussels, that they were 150,000 strong, and that the emperor was at their head." This seemed to rouse the duke from his apathy, so far at least as to give over the dance, and to issue orders to

the army to break up its cantonments, and be in readiness to march towards the scene of action.

Napoleon's army bivouacked on the night between the 15th and 16th in a square of four leagues, the left under Marshal Ney having its head-quarters at Gosselies, with its out-posts at Quatre-Bras and General Gerard's division on the route to Fleurus, the centre, with the cavalry of reserve and the guard, between Charleroi and Fleurus, and the right in front of the bridge of Chatelet. It was equally in its power to press on the Prusso-Saxon or the Anglo-Belgian army, being already placed between them, and their communications being in a great measure cut off. All the Emperor's manoeuvres had succeeded to his wishes; he could henceforth attack his enemy in detail, unless they chose to abandon their ground and unite again at Brussels. Marshal Ney received an order in the night to push on at day-break beyond Quatre-Bras, and occupy a strong position there; General Flahaut was the bearer of this order. General Gerard's division was ordered to remain where it was, that it might be ready to act under the immediate directions of the emperor, who with the centre and right marched to engage the Prussians, before the fourth corps under Bulow could come up, or the English collect their scattered forces. The skirmishers met at the village of Fleurus; and those of the enemy having fallen back showed their army drawn up in order of battle, their left at Sombref, the centre at Ligny, the right at St. Amand, with the reserves on the heights of Bry, occupying a line of nearly four miles in extent. It was about ten in the morning when the French army halted and formed, having the third corps in front of Fleurus, with Gerard's division a mile and a half to its left, and the fourth corps (Gerard's) in the centre; Marshal Grouchy, the cavalry of Pajol and Excelmans forming the right, the guard and Milhaud's cuirassiers being placed in reserve. The emperor, with a few attendants, visited the chain of out-posts on the heights, and from the windmills attentively reconnoitred the position of the allied army. It presented a force certainly exceeding 80,000 men. Its front was covered by a deep ravine, but its right was exposed and had the troops at Quatre-Bras in its rear.

It was evident Marshal Blücher did not expect to be attacked so soon, and that the Anglo-Belgians would not have time to come up to the support of his right. A staff-officer now arrived from Ney to say that he had not executed the prescribed movement, in consequence of reports which made him apprehensive of being turned, but that he was ready to execute it if still required to do so. The emperor blamed him for having already lost eight hours, repeated his orders, and added that as soon as he had taken position he should detach a column of 8000 infantry, with Lefebvre Desnouette's cavalry, and twenty-eight pieces of cannon (still leaving him 32,000 men to keep the English in check) by the causeway of Namur to the village of Marchais, whence it should attack the heights of Bry in the Prussian rear. Ney received this order at half-past eleven; the detachment might set off at noon, and reach the village of Marchais by two. At two o'clock, therefore, Napoleon ordered a change of front on Fleurus, with the right in advance. This movement extended all along the line, and was calculated to enclose the



enemy between two fires, on the arrival of the succours in the rear. Every thing indicated the ruin of the Prussian forces. Count Gerard having approached the emperor to ask for some instructions respecting the attack on the village of Ligny, the latter observed, "The fate of the war may be decided in three hours. If Ney executes his orders well, not a gun of the Prussian army will escape." Ney did his duty but the result was fatal.

The French army, including the sixth corps, which remained constantly in reserve, was 70,000 men; less than 60,000 were engaged. The village of Ligny was taken and retaken four times. It was here that Count Gerard showed the greatest intrepidity and talent. St. Amand was contested in like manner, but was carried by General Gerard, who, having received an order to attack on the left, overthrew all that opposed his passage with the bayonet, and had gained possession of half the village when he fell, mortally wounded. He had distinguished himself at the passage of the Tesino in 1800, and contributed much to the victory of Lutzen in 1813, where, though twice wounded, he refused to be carried off the field of battle till he learnt that the enemy were routed. The third corps maintained itself on the other side of St. Amand. It was now half-past five, and the emperor was manœuvring with the guard on Ligny, when General Vandamme sent word that a column of 30,000 of the enemy was advancing on Fleurus. This was a false alarm. An hour afterwards, this supposed English column turned out to be that of Count D'Erlon, who, having been left in reserve not far from Quatre-Bras, hastened to support the attack on St. Amand. The guard then resumed its movement upon Ligny; General Pecheux, at the head of his division, passed the ravine, supported by Count Gerard's division, the infantry, cavalry, artillery, and Milhaud's cuirassiers. The reserves of the enemy were repulsed by the bayonet; the centre of his line was pierced; forty pieces of cannon, eight stand of colours, and a number of prisoners, were the trophies of this day. Marshal Grouchy, generals Excelmans and Pajol, excited the highest admiration by their behaviour. The emperor, satisfied with Count Gerard, who commanded the fourth corps, intended to have given him a marshal's staff, and regarded him as one of the hopes of France. General Montholon was charged with the pursuit of the Prussian left wing. They estimated their loss at 25,000 killed, wounded, or prisoners, without including several thousands who disbanded, and ravaged the banks of the Meuse to Liege. Many of the allied generals were killed or wounded. Marshal Blucher was thrown down by a charge of cuirassiers, and trampled on by their horses; but they passed on without seeing him. It was already night, to which circumstance this officer owed his escape, though much bruised and hurt. The total loss of the French was 6950 men killed or wounded. The disproportion between these losses arose from two causes; viz., 1. The reserves of the French were kept out of the reach of the Prussians' cannon. 2. The third and fourth corps, which were in the front of the battle, were sheltered by inequalities of ground, while the Prussian soldiers were heaped together in large masses on the amphitheatre of hills from St. Amand and Ligny to the heights of Bry. The bullets from the French batteries, which missed the first lines,

struck the reserves, so that not a single shot was thrown away.

The prince of Orange, who was at Braine-le-Comte, did not receive the duke of Wellington's order to unite his troops before day-break on the 16th. He then hastened to Quatre-Bras to support Prince Bernard of Saxony, who had taken post between Quatre-Bras and Gemappes. Sensible of the importance of this position, he had remained there all the morning with 8000 or 9000 Belgians and troops of Nassau. If, therefore, Ney had marched on this point at day-break, he would have anticipated the movement of the prince, and have been able to attack the divisions of the English army on their march, and while advancing on the separate causeways of Nivelles and Brussels. At noon, having received fresh orders, he marched forward with little more than half his force, leaving the remainder to watch Fleurus, and secure his retreat. He commenced skirmishing at two, but it was not till he heard the cannonade at Ligny that he attacked the Belgians in good earnest. The prince of Orange was soon overthrown; but he was supported by the division of Brunswick and the fifth English division, who arrived in great haste and some disorder, having marched eight leagues that morning, and having neither cavalry nor artillery. The contest was warmly renewed, and many were left dead on the field, particularly the reigning duke of Brunswick. The forty-second Highland regiment, having formed in a square to sustain a charge of cuirassiers, was broken through and cut to pieces. The French sharp-shooters had reached the farm of Quatre-Bras, where the first division of the English guards, and Alten's division (the third) arrived, marching in double-quick time along the causeway of Nivelles. It was then that Marshal Ney felt the want of his second line, which he had left three leagues behind him, and sent for it; but it was then too late. He, however, fought on with his usual intrepidity, and sustained the conflict till night, taking up his head-quarters at Frasne, a mile and a quarter from Quatre-Bras.

The final struggle now approached as the British and Prussian forces were advancing on Bonaparte's position as a common centre. The bulletins of the emperor announced two victories of the most dazzling description, for such he called the battles of Quatre-Bras and Ligny. During the four days that hostilities had commenced, by a brilliant victory he had surprised and separated the two armies, the English and the Prussians. This was much for his glory, but not enough for the situation in which he was placed. Had it not been for three hours' delay, which his left, under Marshal Ney, had been placed in, on the afternoon of the 17th, he would have attacked Wellington and the allies on that day, which might have crowned the success of the campaign. As it was, the emperor went out on foot, about one in the morning, accompanied by his grand marshal. He visited the whole line of main guards. The forest of Soignes, occupied by the British, appeared like one continued blaze; the horizon between that spot and the farms of La Belle Alliance and La Haye was brightened with the fires of numerous bivouacs: the most profound silence reigned. The Anglo-Belgian army was wrapped in sleep, owing to the fatigues it had undergone on the four preceding days. Arrived near the wood of Hougomont, he heard the

noise of a column in march, which soon ceased, and the rain fell in torrents. Several officers sent to reconnoitre, and others, who returned to head-quarters at half-past three, confirmed the opinion that the British had made no movement. At four o'clock, the scouts brought in a peasant, who had served as a guide to a brigade of English cavalry, which went to take a position on the left, at the village of Ohaim. Two Belgian deserters who had just quitted their regiments reported that their army were preparing for battle, and that no retrograde movement had taken place, that Belgium prayed for the success of the emperor, while the English and the Prussians were equally unpopular there.

The French troops bivouacked in the midst of a deep mud, and the officers thought it impossible to give battle on the following day; the grounds were so moistened that the artillery and the cavalry could not possibly manœuvre in them, and it would require twelve hours of fine weather to dry them. The dawn having begun to appear, the emperor returned to his head-quarters. At eight o'clock the emperor's breakfast was served up; to this many general officers sat down. "The enemy's army," said Napoleon, "is superior to ours by nearly a fourth; there are notwithstanding ninety chances in our favour to ten against us." "Without doubt," said Marshal Ney, who had just entered, "if the duke of Wellington were simple enough to wait for your majesty; but I come to announce that his columns are already in full retreat, and are disappearing in the forest of Soignes." "You have seen badly," replied the emperor; "it is too late. He would expose himself to certain ruin by such a step. He has thrown the dice; they are now for us." At this moment some officers of artillery, who had rode over the plain, stated that the artillery could manœuvre, though with difficulty, which would be greatly diminished in another hour. The emperor mounted immediately, and went to the skirmishers opposite La Haye Sainte, again reconnoitred the enemy's line, and directed Haxo, the general of engineers, a confidential officer, to approach it nearer, in order to ascertain whether any redoubts were thrown up, or entrenchments made, and who soon returned saying he had not observed the least trace of any fortifications. After some moments' reflection, the emperor dictated the order of battle, which was taken down by two generals seated on the ground. The aid-de-camps took it to the different corps already under arms; the army then moved forward, marching in eleven columns, which formed with so much precision that no confusion whatever arose. The emperor now went through the ranks; it would be difficult to express the enthusiasm which animated all the soldiers; the infantry elevated their caps on their bayonets; the cuirassiers, dragoons, and light cavalry, their helmets on their sabres. Meanwhile the emperor gave his last orders, and proceeded at the head of his guard to the heights of Rossomme. From this spot he had a complete view of the two armies, the prospect extending far to the right and left of the field of battle. Marshal Ney obtained the honour of commanding the grand attack of the centre. He sent one of his aid-de-camps to say that every thing was ready. Before giving the final order the emperor wished to cast another glance over the whole, and perceived, in the direction of St. Lambert, a dark mass which appeared to him like troops.

Upon this he asked the adjutant-general what he saw near St. Lambert? "I think I see 5000 or 6000 men," replied the general; "it is probably Grouchy." All the glasses of the staff were now fixed in that direction. The weather was rather foggy. In a quarter of an hour, a Prussian hussar was brought in, who was the bearer of a letter, was very intelligent, and gave all the information required. It then appeared that the column at St. Lambert was the advanced guard of the Prussian General Bulow, who was coming up with 30,000 men. The duke of Dalmatia immediately despatched the intercepted letter, and the report of the hussar, to Marshal Grouchy, to whom he reiterated the order to march, without delay, on St. Lambert, and to take General Bulow's corps in the rear. It was now eleven o'clock; the officer had only to proceed four or five leagues to reach Marshal Grouchy, and he promised to be with that officer in an hour. A short time after, General Daumant sent to say that some well-mounted scouts that preceded him had met patrols of the enemy in the vicinity of St. Lambert, and that he had sent chosen patrols, in various directions, to communicate with Marshal Grouchy for the purpose of conveying orders and reports. The emperor immediately ordered Count Lobau to cross the causeway of Charleroi, and to support the light cavalry towards St. Lambert choosing a good intermediate position, where he might with 10,000 men check 30,000 Prussians, if necessary, or to attack them briskly the moment he should hear the first cannon shots of the troops, which it was supposed Marshal Grouchy had detached in their rear. These events caused some change in the emperor's first plan of the battle; he was already deprived of 10,000 men, whom he was thus obliged to send against General Bulow. "We had ninety chances for us in the morning," said he to the duke of Dalmatia: "the arrival of Bulow makes us lose thirty; but we have still sixty against forty, and if Grouchy repairs the horrible fault he has committed, by amusing himself at Gembloux, the victory will be thereby the more decisive; for the corps of Bulow must, in that case, be entirely lost."

The position of the duke of Wellington was before the village of Mont St. Jean, about a mile and a half in advance of the small town of Waterloo, on a rising ground, having a gentle and regular declivity before it, beyond this a plain of about a mile in breadth, and then the opposite heights of La Belle Alliance, on which their opponents would of course form their line. The duke had now with him about 75,000 men in all, of whom about 30,000 were English. He formed his first line of the troops on which he could most surely rely, the greater part of the British foot, the men of Brunswick and Nassau, and three corps of Hanoverians and Belgians. Behind this the ground sinks and then rises again. The second line, formed in rear of the first, was composed of the troops whose spirit and discipline were more doubtful, or who had suffered most in the action of Quatre-Bras; and behind them all lay the horse. The position crosses the two highways from Nievelles and Charleroi to Brussels, nearly where they unite: these roads gave every facility for movements from front to rear during the action; and two country roads running behind and parallel with the first and second lines favoured equally movements from wing to wing. The line was formed convex, dropping back towards



the forest at either extremity, the right to Marke Braine, near Braine-la-Leude, the left to Ter-la-Haye. The chateau and garden of Hougomont, and the farm-house and enclosures of La Haye Sainte, about 15,000 yards apart on the slope of the declivity, were strongly occupied, and formed the important outworks of defence. The opening of the country road leading directly from Wavre to Mont St. Jean, through the wood of Ohaim, was guarded by the British left; while those running through Souhain and Friche-mont, further in advance, might be expected to bring the first of the Prussians on the right flank of the French during their expected attack.

The field was open and fair; and, in case the enemy should force the duke from his position, the village of Mont St. Jean behind, still further back the town of Waterloo, and lastly the great forest of Soignes, offered successively the means of renewing his defence, and protecting his retreat. The British front extended in all over about a mile. It was Wellington's business to hold the enemy at bay until the Prussian advance should enable him to charge them with superior numbers: it was Napoleon's to beat the English ere Blucher could disengage himself from Grouchy, and come out of the woods of Ohaim, which being accomplished, he doubted not to have easy work with the Prussians amidst that difficult country.

It is generally estimated that Napoleon had in the field about 70,000 men—all French veterans, each of whom was, in his own estimation, worth one Englishman, and two Prussians, Dutch, or Belgians. But, on the other hand, the troops under the command of Wellington having all been in position over night, had had, notwithstanding the severe weather, some hours to repose and refresh themselves; whereas the army of Napoleon had been on the march all through the hours of tempestuous darkness, and the greater part of them reached not the heights of Belle Alliance until the morning of the 18th was considerably advanced.

It was noon when the skirmishers were engaged on all the line; but there was no severe action except on the left, in the wood, and at the castle of Hougomont. The emperor sent an order to Marshal Ney to commence the fire of his batteries, to take possession of the farm of La Haye Sainte, occupy the village, and thus intercept all communication between the enemy and Bulow's corps. Eighty guns soon made an immense havoc over all the left of the English line: one of its divisions was entirely destroyed by round and case shot. The emperor now perceived that the English general was preparing a grand charge of cavalry on the left, and he galloped to the spot; the charge had been made, and repulsed a column of infantry which advanced in the low ground, taken two eagles, and disorganized seven pieces of cannon. A brigade of Milhaud's cuirassiers being ordered to charge the enemy's horse, they were broken in their turn, and the greatest part remained on the field; the guns were re-taken, and the infantry protected. Many charges of infantry and cavalry followed; and, after three hours' fighting, the farm of La Haye Sainte, in spite of the resistance of the Scotch regiments, was occupied by the French infantry. The sixth and fifth English divisions were destroyed, and the brave general Picton was killed. During the combat the emperor rode through the line of cuirassiers and that of the guard in the mid-

dle of the discharges of the enemy's musketry and artillery; General Devaux was killed by his side. General Lallemand succeeded him, and was wounded soon after.

Disorder at this time began to prevail in the English army; the baggage, waggon train, and wounded, seeing the French approach the causeway of Brussels, and the principal opening of the forest, hastened to effect their retreat; all the English, Belgians, and Germans, who had been sabred by the cavalry, precipitated themselves on Brussels. It was now four o'clock, and victory might then have decided for Napoleon had not General Bulow's corps effected its powerful diversion. At two o'clock, the emperor learned from Gembloux that Marshal Grouchy, instead of setting out from that place at dawn of day, had not quitted his camp there at ten o'clock.

As the Prussians now approached, the fire from their field-pieces fell on the causeway in front and rear of La Belle Alliance, where the emperor was standing with his guard, and the Prussian case-shot ploughed up the ground. The emperor then ordered General Duhesme to advance with the young guard. In a quarter of an hour their formidable artillery commenced its fire, and soon acquired the superiority: undulations were observed in the Prussian lines, but they still continued outflanking the French right, till opposed by Lieutenant-general Moraud, with four battalions of the old guard, and sixteen pieces of cannon. General Bulow was repulsed, and by degrees his whole line fell back: it was now seven o'clock.

Two hours had elapsed since the Count D'Erlon had taken possession of La Haye Sainte, out-flanked all the English left, and the right of General Bulow. The English cavalry, being repulsed by the cuirassiers and the chasseurs of the guard, abandoned all the field of battle between La Haye Sainte and Mount St. John, which the whole of their left had occupied, and were deprived of all means of retreat on the right. On seeing these brilliant charges, cries of victory were heard all over the field, upon which the emperor said, "It is too soon by an hour; but we must support what is done." He then sent an order to the cuirassiers of Kellerman, who were on the left, to move briskly to support the cavalry on the low grounds. At this moment, General Bulow threatened the flank and rear of the army: it was important not to make any retrograde motion, and to maintain this position, though prematurely taken. At this critical moment, the rapid advance of 3000 cuirassiers defiling under the cannonade of the Prussians, and shouting "Live the Emperor!" made a powerful diversion. The cavalry advanced as if in pursuit of the English army; but the army of General Bulow still made some progress on the French flank and rear. The soldiers and officers sought to divine, in the look of the chief, whether they were conquerors or in danger, while he breathed nothing but confidence. It was the fiftieth battle in which Napoleon had commanded within twenty years. In the meantime the division of the heavy cavalry of the guard, in the second line, under General Guyot, behind Kellerman's cuirassiers, followed at a brisk trot to the low ground. On perceiving this movement, the emperor sent Count Bertrand to recall it, *for it was his reserve*; but it was too late, and a retrograde movement was still dangerous. Thus was the emperor deprived of his reserve of cavalry from

five o'clock. This reserve, if properly applied, might have given him the victory; whilst these 12,000 select horse performed prodigies of valour, overthrowing all the more numerous cavalry of the enemy, broke through many squares of infantry, disorganized their ranks, took possession of sixty pieces of cannon, and seized six stands of colours in the midst of the squares. These trophies were presented to the emperor at Belle Alliance, by three chasseurs of the guard and three cuirassiers. The English believed the battle lost a second time. Ponsonby's brigade being charged by the red lancers of the guard, commanded by General Colbert, was broken through, and its general overthrown by several lance wounds. The prince of Orange was severely wounded, and on the point of being taken; but the brave cavalry not being supported, as a strong mass of infantry was still necessary to repel General Bulow's attack, they were obliged to confine themselves to the preservation of the field of battle which had been conquered.

About seven o'clock, when Bulow's division was repulsed, the cavalry still keeping their ground, the victory appeared to have been gained, as the French had beaten their opponents. Joy was in every countenance, and hope in every heart.

But this state of exultation was not to continue: the Prussian Marshal, Blücher, was rapidly approaching the scene of action with 31,000 fresh troops. Wellington, who was in full retreat, now halted. He is said to have repeatedly wished "that either night or the Prussians would come;" but now, instead of defeat, he saw his safety. The brigade of English cavalry, which was at Ohain, also joined him, while the French saw the victory snatched out of their hands by the arrival of Marshal Blücher with fresh troops. Perceiving these numerous columns arrive, some regiments made a retrograde movement. The emperor perceived this. It was of the highest importance to restore firmness to the cavalry; and, seeing that it would take him a quarter of an hour more to rally his guard, he put himself at the head of four battalions, and advanced on the left in front of La Haye Sainte, sending aide-camps along the whole line to cheer the troops, by pretending that Marshal Grouchy had arrived, and that with a little firmness victory would be restored. But, in a word, all the efforts of the French were useless; the plain they had been in possession of was soon inundated by the enemy; La Haye was retaken; 2000 English cavalry penetrated between General Reille and the guard. The disorder now became dreadful throughout the field of battle. The emperor put himself under the protection of one of the squares of his troops. The night greatly augmented the disorder. If the troops could have seen the emperor, they might have rallied, whereas nothing could be done with certainty. The guard retreated; the fire of the enemy was only 400 toises in the rear of the army, and the causeways cut off. Four pieces of cannon which were planted there kept up a brisk fire upon the plain; the last discharge wounded Lord Uxbridge. The emperor could not retreat, except through the fields. There was no time to be lost. Cavalry, artillery, infantry, were all confusedly mingled together. The staff only gained the little town of Gemappe, hoping to be able to rally a rear-guard there; but the disorder was horrible: all its efforts were made in vain.

Never did the French army fight better than on this occasion; it performed prodigies of valour, and the superiority of the troops, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, over the English and their allies, was such that had not Blücher arrived, with his second corps of Prussians, the victory over the Anglo-Belgian army would have been complete, though aided by Bulow's 30,000 Prussians; that is to say, it would have been gained by about 70,000 men opposed to nearly double their number.

About nine o'clock the French gave up the field, leaving behind them more than 150 pieces of cannon, besides ammunition, &c.

On the 19th, the British troops began their march towards Paris, by way of Nivelles. The duke of Wellington, who was in constant correspondence with Louis XVIII., invited him to repair to Cambray, whither he accordingly proceeded with his court and troops on the 26th. From this place, two days after his arrival, he issued a proclamation, in which, while he pronounced pardon to the nation, he declared vengeance to the guilty few by whom it had been betrayed. The allied generals, meanwhile, continued their march towards the French capital. The army of Blücher was one day's march before the British, in consequence of the duke of Wellington being obliged to halt for his pontoons and stores, besides the delay incident upon the capture of Cambray and Peronne. On the 29th, Blücher was in the front of the lines between St. Denis and Vincennes (which the enemy had repaired, and occupied with their whole disposable force), and the duke of Wellington at Orville.

This was the day on which Bonaparte quitted Paris, never to return. He arrived at the palace d'Elysée towards the evening of June 20th, accompanied by his brother Jerome, General Drouet, and other officers. Great part of the night was consumed in preparing the bulletin which announced to the French the extent of their calamities. With 60,000 disciplined troops Napoleon was now to meet the shock of confederated Europe; for at Waterloo he had encountered little more than its advanced guard. It would be absurd to attempt a narration of the altercations and disputes of the two legislative bodies. The majority demanded the abdication of Napoleon, who, unwilling to wait until compulsory measures were proposed, agreed to abdicate the throne of France in favour of his son (declaring that his own "political life was terminated"), whom he proclaimed under the title of Napoleon II. On the 23d a commission of government was appointed, consisting of five individuals, Fouché, Carnot, Caulincourt, Grenier, and Quinette. The next day a proclamation announced that plenipotentiaries had set off from Paris to treat with the allies for peace; they also adopted measures to provide for the defence of the capital. After a noisy and quarrelsome debate in the Chamber of Deputies, it was agreed that Napoleon II. should be proclaimed.

Bonaparte remained in Paris as long as was compatible with his personal safety: but Fouché had been deputed to acquaint him that even his presence in the French metropolis was an impediment to any pacific arrangement with the allies. He therefore consented to withdraw; and he departed June 29th for Rochefort. Fouché immediately communicated the important fact to the Chamber of Peers, observing "that the commission of government had authorised the minister of marine to arm two frigates



for conveying Napoleon to the United States, and that General Becker was entrusted with the safety of his person during his journey."

The French still continued their preparations for the defence of Paris. The allies advanced, and on 1st July the British took up a position with their right on the height of Rochebourg, and their left upon the forest of Bondy, while the Prussian army had its third corps near St. Germain, on the left bank of the Seine, and its first on the right. The fourth also arrived during the night in that neighbourhood. Blucher was strongly opposed by the enemy, particularly on the heights of St. Cloud and Meudon; but the gallantry of the Prussian troops enabled them not only to establish themselves upon the heights of Meudon, but also in the village of Issy. On the 3d July the latter place was attacked by the French, 10,000 strong; but they were, in the end, repulsed. Perceiving that a communication was established by a bridge between the two armies, which the duke of Wellington had erected at Argenteuil, and that a British corps was moving towards Pont de Neuilly, they sent a flag of truce to desire the firing might cease on both sides of the Seine, with a view to the conclusion of a military convention.

The terms of the treaty were soon agreed upon. On the 7th of July, 1815, Paris was finally evacuated by the troops of Napoleon, and on the following day Louis XVIII. once more entered the capital of France. On the 10th of July, the king went to mass at Notre Dame; the procession was grand and imposing, and the church filled to excess in a few minutes. After the ceremony, at least 30,000 people moved *en masse* towards the bridges, to see that they were safe, as they had been threatened by the Prussians; for the care with which the Parisians watched over these monuments of their glory was like that of a fond mother brooding over her children; and then beginning to triumph, in the hope that Blucher would not dare to put his threats into execution, they turned their attention to their own pecuniary affairs. The British troops were encamped in the Bois de Boulogne and the Champs Elysées, and towards this sure market the prudent Parisians bent their steps. It was quite a *jour de fête*, and nothing could be prettier than the *ensemble* of the scene. The English had tastefully laid out their encampment in avenues, arcades, and leafy canopies; whilst, with their usual national attention to comfort, they had contrived for themselves a thousand conveniences that the other troops never dreamed of; and, as they met and mingled with the Parisian *marchands*, the whole looked like a moving wood, or splendid *fête champêtre*.

Rapid changes of feeling were, however, the order of the day; and the very evening after this picturesque market some skirmishing took place in the Boulevard du Temple, during which many Prussians were wounded and some killed. This was called the battle of the Pinks, from the circumstance of pinks being worn in the button-holes of the Bonapartists. Scarcely any notice was taken of the affair in the public journals, as the French press was then so crippled that half Paris might have been massacred *sub silentio*.

The next event which appalled the Parisians was the information that Blucher had placed a strong guard over the Louvre, a precaution, how-

ever, rendered absolutely necessary by the fact that the French, fearing lest they should be deprived of the treasures it contained, had actually succeeded in abstracting some of the most valuable of the cabinet pictures and substituting copies in their stead. Retribution was at hand. It had been agreed by treaty that all the works of art taken from other powers should be restored; and day after day Blucher was seen parading the gallery of the Louvre, catalogue in hand, calling over the pictures and statues, and condemning all that appeared foreign. The agony of the French artists was at its height. A thousand schemes were resorted to in order to deceive the inexorable Prussian; but their ingenuity was in vain, he pierced through all their devices, and his decree was fate. "Down with that picture!" "Remove that statue!" were the sole words that issued from his lips.

The climax of their woes was yet to come; they were condemned to assist in packing up the treasures which they had shown that they valued far more than their liberty. Stifled groans burst from their lips, as they gazed for the last time upon the graceful forms of the Venus and the Apollo; and it was only the recollection of the bayonets of their enemies, and the cannon yet planted on the bridges, which restrained their wrath. They "sighed, but dared not speak." Still their cup of bitterness was not full. Orders were issued that the Venetian horses attached to the triumphal car in the Place du Caroussel should be taken down. The spirit of the nation was roused, and the French engineers declared, *en masse*, that it was impossible they could be removed. However, the English staff corps attached to headquarters in Paris undertook the task, and the following day these splendid trophies of Grecian art were lowered uninjured into waggons, in the presence of an imposing array of Austrians, drawn up to cover the operation. Whilst they were being taken down, no language can depict the expression betrayed in the countenances of the Parisians; they ground their teeth, and their eyes glistened with savage hatred. When the statues began to totter, they could bear no more; they clenched their hands, and curses not loud but deep burst from their quivering lips. There was something indescribably striking in this smothered fury, particularly when it was contrasted with the comparative indifference with which they had changed their sovereigns; this being remarked to a Frenchman, he made the following characteristic reply: "We *must* have lost our emperor in course of time by death, but we hoped to retain these monuments of our glory *for ever!*"

The French did not readily forgive the insult they had received, and it soon became dangerous to walk the streets after dark. Spies were planted in all the public places, hotels, and cafés, and arrests were taking place every hour. However, the Parisians scowled gloomily as they passed the innumerable soldiers which thronged their streets; for depriving them of their stolen treasures was like striking Achilles on his heel. There alone they were vulnerable. "They were ours by conquest," said they. "And now they are ours by the same right," replied the Allies. The response was worn-wood. The emperor of Russia was the only person who retained his popularity, and he found the

admiration he excited rather annoying; he was overwhelmed with deputations. The market-women implored him to protect their provisions from the merciless appetites of the soldiers, and the dealers in forage begged him to watch over their hay, straw, and corn. He was the referee on all occasions, and, in short, was so tormented by his *adorateurs* that, like the Roman virgin Tarpeia, or the Athenian Draco, he was in imminent danger of being smothered beneath the weight of their favours.

In the mean time, the *lex talionis* was being exercised with unexampled rigour. A Prussian general, who was lodged in the house of Marshal Ney, ordered his servants to select nine of the most valuable horses and three carriages from the stables of the marshal, in order that they might be sent to Prussia. Ney's servants attempted to resist. "Why should you?" asked the general coolly; "your master took the same number from me when he was at Berlin!"

In the mean time Bonaparte retired to the town of Rochefort, with the avowed intention of emigrating to the United States of North America, and to effect this object several plans were resorted to, all of which, however, the vigilance of the British cruisers rendered abortive. When he heard of the capitulation of Paris, Napoleon began to be alarmed for his own safety. He applied to the British squadron for permission to pass, giving a solemn assurance that he intended to retire to the United States. This request was, however, refused. His only alternative therefore was to surrender to the British or remain till he was seized by the agents of Louis XVIII. He preferred the former, and after finding that he could obtain no other terms from Captain Maitland than that he should be conveyed to England and remain there at the final discretion of the prince regent, to whom he addressed a letter, in which he compared himself to Themistocles. July 15th, he was received on board the *Bellerophon* (Captain Maitland), which immediately set sail, and arrived at Torbay on the 24th. The most urgent solicitations were made to obtain for Bonaparte the privilege of remaining in England. These were however ineffective, and it was at length resolved that he should be conveyed to St. Helena. Against such a decision it was sufficiently natural for him to remonstrate. He desired to be considered as the guest of England, but this country refused to consider him in any other light than as a prisoner. After mature deliberation with her allies, she undertook to provide him an asylum, where his life at least would be secure. On 11th of August, 1815, therefore, he was removed from the *Bellerophon* to the *Northumberland*, in which vessel he was immediately conveyed to St. Helena, where he arrived with his small suite on the 17th of October, 1815.

Previously to his removal from the *Bellerophon*, Bonaparte was recommended to select three of his suite to accompany him to St. Helena. Count Bertrand was at that time supposed to be particularly proscribed; but Lord Keith took upon himself the responsibility of including him in the number of the exiled emperor's attendants. The others were Count Las Casas, and General Count Montholon and Lieutenant-General Gourgaud, his two aides-de-camp, who were especially attached to his person.

We subjoin the following code of instructions, drawn up by the British minister, for the guidance of Admiral Sir George Cockburn, to whom the care of Bonaparte was entirely consigned, until the arrival

at St. Helena of the new governor, Sir Hudson Lowe.

### INSTRUCTIONS.

"When General Bonaparte leaves the *Bellerophon* to go on Board the *Northumberland*, it will be the properest moment for Admiral Cockburn to have the effects examined which General Bonaparte may have brought with him.

"The admiral will allow all the baggage, wine, and provisions which the general may have brought with him to be taken on board the *Northumberland*.

"Among the baggage, his table-service is to be understood as included, unless it be so considerable as to seem rather an article to be converted into ready money than for real use.

"His money, his diamonds, and his valuable effects (consequently bills of exchange also), of whatever kind they may be, must be delivered up. The admiral will declare to the general that the British government by no means intends to confiscate his property, but merely to take upon itself the administration of his effects, to hinder him from using them as a means to promote his flight.

"The examination shall be made in the presence of a person named by the general: the inventory of the effects to be retained shall be signed by this person as well as by the rear-admiral, and by the person whom he shall appoint to draw up the inventory.

"The interest or the principal (according as his property is more or less considerable) shall be applied to his support, and in this respect the principal arrangements to be left to him.

"For this reason he can, from time to time, signify his wishes to the admiral, till the arrival of the new governor of St. Helena, and afterwards to the latter; and, if no objection be made to his proposal, the admiral or the governor can give the necessary orders, and the disbursement will be paid by bills on his majesty's treasury.

"In case of death, he can dispose of his property by a last will, and be assured that the contents of his testament shall be faithfully executed.

"As an attempt might be made to cause a part of his property to pass for the property of the persons of his suite, it must be signified that the property of his attendants is subject to the same regulations.

"The disposal of the troops intended to guard him must be left to the governor. The latter, however, has received a notice, in the case which will be hereafter mentioned, to act according to the desire of the admiral.

"The general must be constantly attended by an officer appointed either by the admiral or the governor. If the general is allowed to go out of the bounds where the sentinels are placed, one orderly man at least must accompany the officer. When ships arrive, and as long as they remain in sight, the general must be confined to the limits where the sentinels are placed. During this time all communication with the inhabitants is forbidden. His companions in St. Helena are subject, during this time, to the same rules, and must remain with him. At other times it is left to the judgment of the admiral or governor to make the necessary arrangements concerning them.

"It must be signified to the general that, if he makes any attempts to fly, he will be put under close confinement; and it must be notified to his attendants that, if it should be found they are plotting to



prepare for the general's flight, they shall be separated from him, and likewise put under close confinement.

"All letters addressed to the general, or to persons in his suite, must be delivered to the admiral or governor, who will read them before he suffers them to be delivered to those to whom they are addressed. Letters written by the general or his suite are subject to the same rule.

"No letter that does not come to St. Helena through the secretary of state must be communicated to the general or his attendants, if it is written by a person not living in the island. All their letters, addressed to persons not living in the island, must go under the cover of the secretary of state.

"It will be clearly expressed to the general that the governor and admiral have precise orders to inform his majesty's government of all his wishes and representations which he may desire to address to it; in this respect they need not use any precaution: but the paper on which such request or representation is written must be communicated to them open, that they may both read it, and, when they send it, accompany it by such observations as they may judge necessary.

"Till the arrival of the new governor, the admiral must be considered as entirely responsible for the person of General Bonaparte; and his majesty has no doubt of the inclination of the present governor to concur with the admiral for this purpose.

"The admiral has full power to detain the general on board his ship, or convey him on board again, when, in his opinion, the secure detention of his person cannot be otherwise effected.

"When the admiral arrives at St. Helena, the governor will, upon his representation, adopt measures for sending immediately to England, the Cape of Good Hope, or the East Indies, such officers or persons in the military corps of St. Helena as the admiral, either because they are foreigners or on account of their character or dispositions, shall think it advisable to dismiss from the military service in St. Helena.

"If there are strangers in the island, whose residence in the country shall seem to be with a view of becoming instrumental in the flight of General Bonaparte, he must take measures to remove them.

"The whole coast of the island, and all ships and boats that visit it, are placed under the surveillance of the admiral. He fixes the places which the boats may visit: and the governor will send a sufficient guard to the points where the admiral may consider this precaution to be necessary.

"The admiral will adopt the most vigorous measures to watch over the arrival and departure of every ship, and to prevent all communication with the coast, except such as he shall allow.

"Orders will be issued to prevent, after a certain necessary interval, any foreign mercantile vessel from going in future to St. Helena.

"If the general should be seized with a serious illness, the admiral and governor will each name a physician, who enjoys their confidence, in order to attend the general, in common with his own physician: they will give them strict orders to give in every day a report of the state of his health.

"In case of his death, the admiral will give orders to convey his body to England."

*"Given at the War Office, July 30th, 1815."*

On the 12th of April, Lieutenant-general Sir Hudson Lowe was appointed governor of the island of St. Helena, to whom the custody of Bonaparte's person was consigned, under similar regulations to those quoted above. The governor of the island was under heavy penalties, including the compromise of his character as well as the forfeiture of his situation, not to allow of the escape of his prisoner. Sir Hudson Lowe was furnished with unequivocal orders from this government, from which it was not at his option to deviate without exhibiting a dereliction of his duty in the important responsibility which had been vested in him. The frequent remonstrances of Bonaparte and his dependents to the governor against the restrictions which had been imposed by the British government, upon him and his suite, might probably have indisposed the former to show him any indulgence inconsistent with the letter of the instructions under which he acted.

In 1817 a memorial was addressed by Bonaparte, through the count de Montholon, to Sir Hudson Lowe, which excited much attention and sympathy, but it produced no beneficial result to Bonaparte. With regard to the actual degree of healthfulness of Napoleon's residence on the island of St. Helena, it may be enough to state that the thermometer during the year rarely varies more than from 61° to 73° of Fahrenheit, and the island is constantly refreshed by sea breezes, which blow with little intermission here. The site of Longwood, the place selected by Napoleon as his place of residence, is carefully delineated in the subjoined sketch.



Of the last years of Napoleon's life we have nothing of importance to record. For some time previous to his death he had considered himself attacked by an internal disease, which would speedily prove fatal to him. He often mentioned it, accompanied with sombre presentiments; but it was supposed to be nothing more than the wanderings of an active imagination left unemployed. Some weeks before his death, he laboured with a spade in his garden so long and so severely as almost to faint from fatigue. Somebody suggested to him the probable injury to his health: "No," said he, "it cannot hurt my health—that is lost beyond all hope. It will but shorten my days." He gave but little time to the composition of the memoirs of his life. Bertrand one day urged him to labour with more assiduity. "It is beneath me," said he, "to be the historian of my own life. Alexander had his *Quintus Curtius* and I shall have mine. At all events, my life is recorded in my achievements."

It only now remains for us to mention the death of Napoleon, which took place on the 6th of May, 1821, after an illness of six weeks' duration. The immediate cause of his death was a cancer in the stomach, a disease which had been fatal to his father. After his death the body was opened, and a cancer of considerable magnitude was found. The body was laid out on a bed, in a room of middling size, hung with black, and well lighted up. He was dressed in full field-marshal's uniform, that said to have been worn by him at the battle of Marengo. His person seemed small, and rather diminutive (exact height five feet seven inches); but the fineness of the countenance much exceeded expectation. The face appeared to be large compared with the body; the features pleasing, and extremely regular, still retaining a half-formed smile; and must have been truly imposing, when enlivened by a penetrating pair of eyes.

Bonaparte died on Saturday, and the funeral took place the following Wednesday. A grand procession was formed of the officers, soldiers, and marines, which altogether made a very striking exhibition. The troops were drawn up two men deep on the road side, out of Longwood gates; each man resting the point of his musket on his foot, with the left hand on its butt, and the left cheek leaning on his hand in a mournful position, the band stationed at the head of each corps playing a dead march.

He was buried at the head of Rupert's Valley, about half way between James' Town and Longwood, under the shade of a large willow tree, near a small spring, the water in which is both good and pleasant.

The sculptured effigies of Napoleon are rarely successful as works of art—indeed, though there are several fine busts of the emperor, there is still but one whole-length statue which at all resembles him. It is placed on the top of a splendid column in La Place Vendome, and its elevation in July 1833 was the signal for a grand fete [throughout Paris. It is represented beneath.



BONAVENTURA, JOHN OF FIDANZA, a learned scholastic philosopher, born in 1221, in Tuscany.

He became in 1243 a Franciscan monk, and in 1255 teacher of theology at Paris, where he had studied. Shortly after, he became head of his order, which he ruled with a prudent mixture of gentleness and firmness. He died in 1274, at the age of fifty-three. At that time he was a cardinal and papal legate at the council of Lyons. On account of his blameless conduct from his earliest youth, and of some miracles ascribed to him, he enjoyed during his life the greatest veneration, and was canonized by Pope Sixtus IV. The elevation of thought in his writings, and his dignity as general of the Seraphic order, procured him the name of *Doctor Seraphicus*. The Franciscans opposed him as their hero to the Dominican scholastic Thomas Aquinas. He wrote for the honour and improvement of his order and for the promotion of the worship of the virgin, on celibacy, transubstantiation, and other doctrines. He is frequently obscure by his attempts to support the creed of the church with arguments drawn from the Aristotelian and new Platonic philosophy, and by his mystical views in treating of the moral and intellectual perfection of the human character. Yet he is distinguished from other scholastics by perspicuity, avoidance of useless subtleties, and greater warmth of religious feeling.

BONDI, ELEMENTE, ABBATE, one of the best Italian poets of the eighteenth century. He was born at Mantua, and entered early in life into the order of the Jesuits, a few years before its abolition. After his talents became known to the archduke Ferdinand, governor of Milan, and his lady, Maria Beatrice of Este, a princess worthy of that name, which has been immortalized by Ariosto and Tasso, he was appointed tutor of their children, and appeared successively as a lyric, descriptive, satirical, and elegiac poet, often also as a poetical translator. By the elegance, flow, and harmony of his versification, and by the nobleness of his style, disfigured neither by extravagance nor by affectation, he became a favourite in Italy. We possess all the poetry of Bondi in an elegant edition. The first volume contains the longer poems, "La Conversazione," "La Felicità," "Il Governo Pacifico," "La Moda," and "La Giornata Villereccia." The second and third contain sonnets, epistles, elegies, "Canzoni," "Cantatas," and other small poems. The third concludes with the translation of "Virgil's Georgics."

BONIFACE.—Several individuals bearing this name have at different periods filled the papal chair. Pope Boniface VIII. was the most distinguished of them. He was born at Anagni, and after receiving a careful education studied jurisprudence. He afterwards became a canon at Paris and Lyons, advocate of the consistory, and prothonotary of the pope at Rome. After Martin IV. had elevated him to the dignity of a cardinal, he went as legate to Sicily and Portugal, and was entrusted with embassies to several courts, in particular with the charge of reconciling the king of Sicily with Alphonso of Aragon, and Philip the Fair with Edward I. of England. After Cælestine V. had resigned the papal dignity, at Naples, in 1294, at the instigation of Boniface, the latter was chosen pope. He met with opposition from the cardinals of the Colonna family, and revenged himself by excommunicating them. His induction was magnificent. The kings of Hungary and Sicily held his bridle on his way to the Lateran, and served him at table with their crowns on their



heads. This pope, however, was not successful in his first efforts for the increase of his power. The sovereignty of Sicily was denied him, and Frederic II. was crowned king there in spite of his excommunication. He was equally unsuccessful in his attempt to arbitrate between England and France. The bulls which he issued at this time against king Philip the Fair of France obtained no consideration. This was also the case with the interdict which he pronounced against him at the council of Rome, in 1302. Supported by the states and the clergy of France, Philip defended his royal rights against the encroachments of the pope. The pope was accused of duplicity, of simony, of usurpation, of heresy, and of unchastity; and it was resolved to condemn and depose him at a general council at Lyons. Philip went still further: he sent Nogaret to Italy, in order to seize his person, and bring him to Lyons. Nogaret united himself for this purpose with Sciarra Colonna, who, with his whole family, had been oppressed by Boniface, and was in consequence his enemy. The pope fled to Anagni, where Nogaret and Colonna surprised him. Boniface, however, on this occasion acted with spirit. "Since I am betrayed," said he, "as Jesus Christ was betrayed, I will die at least as a pope." He assumed the pontifical robes and the tiara, took the keys and the cross in his hand, and seated himself in the papal chair. But the insignia of his holy office did not save him from arrest. Nay, Colonna went so far as to use personal violence. Boniface remained in a disagreeable confinement for two days, when the Anagnese took up arms and delivered him. After this he departed to Rome, where he died a month later, in 1303. From fear of poison, he had not taken any food during his captivity. This abstinence brought on a fever, which terminated fatally. Boldness in his views, and perseverance in his resolutions, cannot be denied to Boniface; but these qualities were stained by ambition, vanity, a spirit of revenge, and a mean pliability. Dante assigns to him, as guilty of simony, a place in hell between Nicholas III. and Clement V. Boniface founded in 1300 the centennial jubilee, and enriched his treasury by the frequent sale of indulgences. He was an accomplished man for the times in which he lived.

**BONIFACE, ST.**, the apostle who first preached Christianity, and spread civilization among the Germans. He was born in England in 680, and his original name was Winfrid. In his thirtieth year he was consecrated a priest, and as great part of Europe, at this period, was inhabited by heathens, several missionaries set out from England to convert them. In 716 St. Boniface conceived the plan of preaching Christianity among the Frieslanders; but was prevented by the war between Charles Martel and the king of Friesland. He therefore returned to England, where he was chosen abbot of his convent. In 718 he went to Rome, where Gregory II. authorised him to preach the gospel to all the nations of Germany. He commenced his labours in Thuringia and Bavaria, passed three years in Friesland, and journeyed through Hesse in Saxony, baptizing every where, and converting the pagan temples to Christian churches.

In 732 Gregory III. made him archbishop and primate of all Germany, and authorised him to establish bishoprics, the only existing bishopric being the one at Passau. He founded those of Freisingen,

Ratisbon, Erfurt, Barabourg (transferred afterwards to Paderborn), Wurtzburg, and Aichstadt. After the death of Charles Martel, he consecrated Pepin the Short king of the Franks, in Soissons, by whom he was made bishop of Mentz. He held eight ecclesiastical councils in Germany, founded the celebrated abbey of Fulda, and undertook, in 754, new journeys for the conversion of the infidels; but he was killed at Dockum, in West Friesland, by some barbarians, in 755, in his seventy-fifth year. In Fulda a copy of the Gospels in his own hand-writing is to be seen, and at the place where Boniface built, in 724, the first Christian church in northern Germany, near the village of Altenburg, in the Thuringian forest, a monument has been erected to his memory.

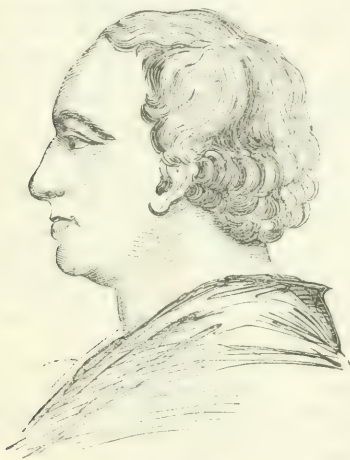
**BONINGTON, RICHARD**, an ingenious artist, who was born at the village of Arnold, in Nottinghamshire, in 1801. His talents were first known to the public in 1826, when some of his pictures were exhibited in the British Gallery. His death occurred in 1828.

**BONNER, EDMUND**, an English prelate of infamous notoriety, who was the son of a peasant at Hanley in Worcestershire. He was educated at Pembroke College, Oxford, where he was made doctor of common law in 1525. For his skill in business he was patronised by Cardinal Wolsey, from whom he received several clerical preferments. On the death of Wolsey, he acquired the favour of Henry VIII., who made him one of his chaplains, and sent him to Rome to advocate his divorce from Queen Catharine. Here he conducted himself with so much intemperance that the pope is said to have threatened to throw him into a caldron of boiling lead, on which he thought it better to return. In 1538 he was nominated bishop of Hereford, being then ambassador at Paris; but before his consecration he was translated to the see of London. At the time of the death of Henry, he was ambassador to the emperor Charles V., but returned the same year, when, refusing to take the oath of supremacy, he was deprived of his bishopric, to which, however, he was restored on making submission. Still continuing to act with contumacy, he was, after a long trial, once more deprived of his see and committed to the Marshalsea; from which prison, on the accession of Mary, he was released, and once more restored by commission.

During this reign Bonner distinguished himself by a most sanguinary persecution of the Protestants, 200 of whom he was instrumental in bringing to the stake, whipping and torturing several of them with his own hands. When Elizabeth succeeded he went, with the rest of the bishops, to meet her at Highgate, but at the sight of him she averted her countenance with an expression of horror. He remained, however, unmolested, until his refusal to take the oath of supremacy, on which he was once more committed to the Marshalsea, where he remained a prisoner for nearly ten years, until his death in 1569. He was buried at midnight, to avoid any disturbance on the part of the populace, to whom he was extremely obnoxious. Bonner was well versed in the canon law, and was an able diplomatist. He cannot, says a Catholic writer, be defended from the charge of extreme rigour and cruelty; yet he deserves credit for his firmness of principle, for his courage when in disgrace, and for the calmness and resignation with which he supported a long imprisonment.

**BONNER, GEORGE WILMOT.**—The labours of this ingenious engraver have produced a most important effect on that branch of art to which his attention was particularly directed, and the numerous graphic illustrations which adorn the British Cyclopædia form a lasting monument of his skill as an artist. He was born at Devizes in Wiltshire May the 24th, 1796, and, after he had received a good education in the city of Bath came to London, and was apprenticed to his uncle Mr. Branston, who then lived at Holloway. Mr. Bonner soon exhibited considerable skill as an engraver, and displayed marked proofs of his future eminence. He married in 1822, and at the time of his death, which occurred January the 3rd, 1836, he had a family of three children: indeed his death appears to have been mainly produced by anxiety of mind arising from the death of his eldest daughter.

Much of Mr. Bonner's success, as an engraver on wood, may be ascribed to his skill as a draftsman. He sketched with great rapidity, and by means of the slightest memoranda could transfer to the surface of the block the most complicated and beautiful effects. He also succeeded very fully in that difficult branch of the art which consists in the combination of a series of blocks so as to produce the effect of a tinted drawing.



**BONNET, CHARLES.**—This eminent naturalist was born at Geneva in 1720, and his attention was first drawn to the subject of natural history by perusing "*Le Spectacle de la Nature*." In compliance with his father's desires, he applied himself, though with much reluctance, to the study of the law. The works of Burlamaqui pleased him the most, on account of the perspicuous and philosophic manner in which the subject was treated; the institutes of Heinneccius gave him some courage also, as he perceived order and connection; but the Roman law alarmed him. Notwithstanding his application to these authors, he still continued attached to natural history, and was very active in making experiments. Some experiments respecting tree-lice happening to be communicated by Reaumur to the academy of sciences, occasioned an epistolary correspondence between M. Bonnet and that great naturalist, a circumstance, doubtless, very flattering to a youth of twenty years.

Animated by this mark of approbation, he diligently employed every moment he could steal from the study of jurisprudence to experiments on the respiration of caterpillars and butterflies, to an examination of the construction of the tinea, or tape-worm, and in assisting Trembley in his discoveries and publication concerning millepedes, &c. Having in 1743 obtained the degree of doctor of laws, he relinquished a pursuit which he had commenced with so much reluctance. In the same year he was admitted a member of the Royal Society of London, to which he had communicated a treatise on insects.

In 1747 he undertook a very difficult work on the leaves of plants, which, of all his publications in natural history, bore the strongest marks of originality, both with respect to the manner in which his experiments were made, and the discoveries resulting from them. But, from this extreme attachment to natural history, he was gradually led to a study of a very different nature, and speculative philosophy now engaged his whole attention. The first result of his meditations in this department was his "*Essay on Psychology*," in which the principal facts observable in human nature, and the consequences resulting from them, are stated in a concise and perspicuous manner. He contemplated man, from the first moment of his existence, and pursued the development of his senses and faculties from simple growth up to intelligence. This work, which was published without his name, met with great opposition, and was criticised with severity, but the censures were directed more against his expressions than his principles, nor were they of sufficient importance to impede the general acceptance of the performance. His "*Analysis of the Mental Faculties*" was simply a development of the ideas contained in the preceding work. It engaged his incessant attention for the space of five years, nor was it completed before 1759. It is somewhat singular that both he and the abbé de Condillac should have illustrated their principles by the supposition of a statue, organized like the human body, which they conceived to be gradually inspired with a soul, and the progressive enlargement of whose powers they carefully traced. In 1760 this work was published at Copenhagen by order and at the expense of Frederic V., and it was followed in 1762 by "*Considerations on Organized Bodies*," in which the author had three principal objects before him, the first was to give a concise view of every thing which appears interesting in natural history, respecting the origin, growth, and re-production of organized bodies; the second was to confute the two different systems founded upon the Epigenesis; and the third was to explain the system of "germs," indicate the ground upon which it was founded, its correspondence with facts, and the consequences resulting from it. This work was received with much satisfaction by natural philosophers. The academy of Berlin, which had proposed the same subject as a prize-question for 1761, declared that they considered this treatise as the offspring of close observation and profound reasoning, and that the author would have had an undubitable right to the prize if he had confined his labours to the precise statement of the question, and Malesherbes reversed the interdict which the public censor had laid upon this book, as containing dangerous principles.

The "*Contemplations of Nature*" appeared in 1764. In this work the author first enlarged upon



the common conceptions entertained concerning the existence and perfections of God, and of the order and uniformity observable in the universe. He next descends to man, examines the parts of his composition, and the various capacities with which he is endowed. He next proceeds to the plants, assembles and describes the laws of their economy; and finally he examines the insects, indicates the principal circumstances in which they differ from large animals, and points out the philosophical inferences that may legitimately be deduced from these differences; and he concludes with observations respecting the industry of insects. This work being of a popular nature, the author spared no pains in bestowing upon it those ornaments of which it was susceptible. The principles which he thus discovered and explained induced him to plan a system of moral philosophy, which, according to his ideas, consisted solely in the observance of that relation in which man is placed, in connection with all the beings that surround him. The first branch would have comprehended various means, which philosophy and the medical science have discovered for the prevention of disease, the preservation and augmentation of the corporeal powers, and the better exertion of their force; in the second, he proposed to show that natural philosophy has a powerful tendency to embellish and improve our mind, and augment the number of our rational amusements, while it is replete with beneficial effects respecting society at large. To manifest the invalidity of opinions merely hypothetical, he undertook in the third place to examine whether there were not truths within the compass of human knowledge to which the most sceptical philosopher must be compelled to yield his consent, and which might serve as the basis of all our reasonings concerning man and his various relations. He then would have directed his attention to a first cause, and have manifested how greatly the idea of a deity, and supreme law-giver, favoured the conclusions which reason had drawn from the nature and properties of things; but his ill health, impaired by incessant labour, would not permit him to complete the design. His last publication was the "Palingenesis," which treats of the prior existence and future state of living beings.

In 1783 he was elected honorary member of the academy of sciences at Paris, and of the academy of sciences and the belles lettres at Berlin. Much of his time was employed in a very extensive correspondence with some of the most celebrated natural philosophers and others. Of this number were Reaumur, De Geer, the Reaumur of Sweden, Du Hamel, the learned Haller, the experimental philosopher Spallanzani, Van Swieten, Merian, and that ornament of Switzerland, the great Lambert. He never answered remarks that were made to the prejudice of his writings, but left the decision with the public; yet, ever ready to acknowledge his errors, he was sincerely thankful to every one who contributed to the perfection of his works. He used to say that one confession, "I was in the wrong," is of more value than a thousand ingenious confutations. His literary occupations, and the care he was obliged to take of his health, prevented him from travelling. He delighted in retirement, and every hour was occupied in the improvement of his mind. The last twenty-five years of his life were spent in the same rural situation where he had passed the greater part of his early days; yet, notwithstanding the pursuit

of literature was his supreme delight, he never refused to suspend his studies, when the good of his country seemed to demand his services.

In the year 1788, evident symptoms of a dropsy of the chest manifested themselves; and from this time he gradually declined. He sustained his indisposition with unremitted cheerfulness and composure. After various fluctuations, usual in that complaint, he died on the 20th of May, 1793, in the seventy-third year of his age, retaining his presence of mind to the last moment.

BONNEVAL, CLAUDE ALEXANDER, COUNT OF, or ACHMET PACHA, born in 1672, at Coussac, in Limousin, of an illustrious French family. He entered in his sixteenth year the body-guard of the king, but showed an extravagant propensity for pleasure. In war he was an able and successful partisan, beloved by those under his command. In the war of the Spanish succession, he obtained a regiment, with which he marched to Italy, and distinguished himself by his valour as well as by his excesses. On his return he was obliged to fly, in consequence of some violent expressions against the minister and madame de Maintenon. He was in 1706 appointed major-general by prince Eugene, and fought against his native country. At the peace of Rastadt, in 1714, by the interference of prince Eugene, the process against him for high treason was withdrawn, and he was allowed to return to his estates. In 1716 he was lieutenant-field-marshal of the Austrian infantry and distinguished himself by his valour against the Turks at Peterwarden. In 1718 Bonneval was made a member of the imperial council of war, but his licentiousness and indiscretion induced Prince Eugene to get rid of him, by appointing him in 1723 master-general of the ordnance in the Netherlands. To revenge himself on Eugene he sent complaints to Vienna against the governor, the marquis of Prie; but the latter, who, on his side, had not been inactive, received an order to arrest Bonneval, and to imprison him in the citadel of Antwerp. On being afterwards ordered to appear at Vienna, and give an explanation of his conduct, he spent a month at the Hague before he chose to comply with the summons. He was therefore confined in the castle of Spielberg, near Brunn, and condemned to death by the imperial council of war; but the sentence was changed by the emperor into one year's imprisonment and exile. Bonneval now went to Constantinople, where the fame of his deeds and his humanity towards the Turkish prisoners of war procured him a kind reception. He consented to change his religion, received instruction in Mohammedanism from the mufti, submitted to circumcision, and received the name of *Achmet Pacha*, with a large salary. He was afterwards made a Pacha of three tails, commanded a large army, defeated the Austrians on the Danube, and quelled an insurrection in Arabia Petrea. His exertions as commander of the bombardiers to improve the Turkish artillery were opposed by the jealousy of powerful pachas, the irresolution of Mohammed V., and the dislike of the Turkish troops to all European institutions. He enjoyed, however, the pleasures of his situation for many years, and died in 1747.

BONNEYCASTLE, JOHN, a learned professor of mathematics at the royal military academy at Woolwich. He was born in Buckinghamshire. Though his education was not neglected, yet he was



chiefly indebted to his own exertions for the various and extensive knowledge which he acquired. While young, he became private tutor to the two sons of the earl of Pomfret. After two years he quitted that situation on being appointed one of the mathematical masters at Woolwich. Here, for more than forty years, he devoted his time to the duties of his profession, and to the composition of elementary mathematical works. His first production was the "Scholar's Guide to Arithmetic," which has passed through many editions. His guides to algebra and mensuration are useful school books. He likewise wrote a "Treatise upon Astronomy," the "Elements of Geometry," and a "Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry," besides several valuable articles in "Rees's Cyclopædia." Mr. Bonneycastle died in May, 1821.

BOON, DANIEL, an officer in the service of the United States of America, who was the founder of Boonsborough, the first settlement in Kentucky. Such was the singular predilection of this gentleman for a solitary life that when the province began to be stocked with inhabitants, and other settlements took place in his neighbourhood, he plunged deeper into the wilderness, as if to avoid the society of man. His death was as remarkable as his life. Accustomed to wander alone in the woods with his gun, he continued this practice till he was quite old and infirm, and was at length found dead at a distance from his residence, some time towards the close of the year 1822 or the beginning of 1823.

BOOTH, BARTON, an actor of great celebrity in the reigns of queen Anne and George I. He was born in 1681, and placed under doctor Busby, at Westminster school. An early attachment for the drama was fostered by the applause he met with while performing a part in one of Terence's plays at the annual exhibition in that seminary. He eloped from school at the age of seventeen, and joined Ashbury's company of strolling players, with whom he went to Dublin. After performing three years in the Irish capital with great applause, he returned in 1701 to London, and, engaging with Betterton, met with similar success. On the death of that manager, he joined the Drury Lane company, and, on the production of Cato, in 1712, raised his reputation as a tragedian to the highest pitch by his performance of the principal character. It was on this occasion that Lord Bolingbroke presented him from the stage-box with fifty guineas, an example which was immediately followed by that nobleman's political opponents. Declamation, rather than passion, appears to have been his forte, though Cibber speaks of his Othello as his finest character. He became a patentee and manager of the theatre in 1713, in conjunction with Wilks, Cibber, and Doggett, and died in May 1733. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, where there is a monument to his memory. He was the author of Dido and Æneas, a mask, various songs, &c., and the translator of several odes of Horace.

BORA, CATHARINE VON, wife of Luther. She was born in 1499, but her birth-place is not known, and of her parents we only know that her mother, Anna, was descended from one of the most ancient families of Germany, that of Hugewitz (Haugewitz). The daughter took the veil, very early, in the nunnery of Nimptschen, near Grimma. Notwithstanding her devout disposition, she soon felt very unhappy in her situation, and, as her relations would not listen

to her, she applied, with eight other nuns, to Luther, whose fame had reached them. Luther gained over a citizen of Torgau, of the name of Leonard Koppe, who, in union with some other citizens, undertook to deliver the nine nuns from their convent. This was done the night after Good Friday, April 4, 1523. He brought them to Torgau, and from thence to Wittenberg, where Luther provided them a decent abode. At the same time, to anticipate the charges of his enemies, he published a letter to Koppe, in which he frankly confessed that he was the author of this enterprise, and had persuaded Koppe to its execution, that he had done so in the confident hope that Jesus Christ, who had restored his gospel, and destroyed the kingdom of antichrist, would be their protector, though it might cost them even life. He also exhorted the parents and relations of the nine virgins to admit them again into their houses. Some of them were received by citizens of Wittenberg; others, who were not yet too old, Luther advised to marry. Among the latter was Catharine, whom Philip Reichenbach, at that time mayor of the city, had taken into his house. Luther proposed to her doctor Kasper Glaz and others in marriage. She declined these proposals, but declared her willingness to bestow her hand on Nicholas von Amsdorf, or on Luther himself. Luther, who in 1524 had laid aside the cowl, was not averse to matrimony, yet appears to have been led to the resolution of marrying by reason rather than by passion. Besides, he was not then favourably inclined towards Catharine, because he suspected her of worldly vanity. He says, however, that he found in her a pious and faithful wife. There could be no want of disadvantageous rumours on this occasion, some of them as shameful as they were unfounded. The domestic peace of the pair was also drawn into question, and Catharine in particular was accused of being peevish and domineering, so that her husband was often obliged to correct her. Although this last story is without foundation, yet Luther seems not to have been fully satisfied with her; for he speaks with great sincerity of the sufferings, as well as of the happiness, of his marriage. When, after Luther's death, in 1547, Charles V. entered Wittenberg in triumph, Catharine saw herself obliged to leave this place, and to remove to Leipsic, where she was compelled to take boarders for her support. She afterwards returned to Wittenberg, and lived there till 1552 in want. When the plague broke out in this place, and the university was removed to Torgau, she went thither also, arrived there sick, and died December 27, 1552. In the church of Torgau her tomb-stone is still to be seen, on which is her effigy of the natural size.

BORDA, JEAN CHARLES, a learned mathematician, born at Dax, in the department of Landes, in 1733. In 1756 he was chosen a member of the academy of sciences, and occupied himself in making experiments on the resistance of fluids, the velocity of motion, and other topics relating to dynamical science. In 1767 he published a dissertation on hydraulic wheels, and afterwards one on the construction of hydraulic machinery. In 1771, with Verdune and Pingré, he made a voyage to America, to determine the longitude and latitude of several coasts, isles, and shoals, and to try the utility of several astronomical instruments. In 1774 he visited the Azores, the Cape Verde islands, and the coast of Africa, for the same purpose. In the American



war he was very useful to the count d'Estaing, by his knowledge of navigation. In later times he visited a second time the Azores, the Cape Verde islands, and the coast of Africa; but the observations which he made in this voyage have not been published. Borda was the founder of the schools of naval architecture in France. He invented an instrument, of a very small diameter which measures angles with the greatest accuracy, and which has been used in measuring the meridian, the reflecting circle, which has made his name immortal, besides an instrument for measuring the inclination of the compass needle, and many others.

On the establishment of the national institute, he became one of its members, and was occupied, with other men of science, in framing the new system of weights and measures adopted in France under the republican government. Among the latest of his labours was a series of experiments to discover the length of a pendulum which should vibrate seconds in the latitude of Paris. Among his writings the principal are his "Voyage," published in two volumes in 1778, and his "Tables Trigonométriques Décimales," which have been edited by Delambre. Borda died at Paris, in 1799.

**BORROMEO, CARLO, COUNT**, a distinguished ecclesiastic, born October 2d, 1538, at Arona, on Lago Maggiore, the family-seat of his parents. At the age of twelve he studied the law at Pavia; in 1559 he was made doctor, and, in 1560, was successively appointed by his uncle, Pius IV., apostolical protonotary, referendary, cardinal, and archbishop of Milan. From his earliest youth, grave, pious, and severe towards himself, the young ecclesiastic, at the age of twenty-two, devoted himself to the duties of government with a conscientious zeal. As legate over Romagna, the march of Ancona, and Bologna, he had a great share in the civil government: as protector of Portugal, of the Netherlands, of Switzerland, of the Franciscans, Carmelites, and of the knights of Malta, he administered several important branches of the spiritual government of the pope, who created him his grand penitentiary, and did nothing of importance without his advice.

The re-opening and the results of the council of Trent, so advantageous to the papal authority, were chiefly effected by the great influence of Borromeo, which was felt during the whole sitting of the council. He did much for the embellishment of the papal buildings, employing even his own fortune for that purpose, and established many good institutions, as archbishop of Milan, improved the discipline of the clergy, founded schools, seminaries, a regular order of secular divines, libraries, hospitals, and was indefatigable in doing good. All his virtues, however, could not save him from persecution and calumny; he was even severely attacked by the government, but no charge could be proved against him. He died in November 1584, at the age of forty-six, exhausted by mental sufferings, the accusations of his enemies, and his monastical penances. Miracles were immediately said to have been wrought at his tomb, and his canonization took place in 1616. Posterity will venerate the purity of his life, the energy and grandeur of his character, his exemplary administration, and the noble works which he accomplished, and, in spite of the bigotry which is to be attributed to the spirit of his age and to his clerical relations, must acknowledge his truly Christian and apostolic character.

**BORGHESE**, a Roman family, which derives its origin from Sienna. They have held the highest offices in this republic, from the middle of the 15th century. Pope Paul V., who belonged to this family, and ascended the papal chair in 1605, loaded his relations with honours and riches. In 1607 he appointed his brother, Francesco Borghese, leader of the troops sent against Venice to maintain the papal claims, bestowed the principality of Sulmone on Marco Antonio Borghese, the son of his brother Giovanni Battista, granted him a revenue of 150,000 dollars, and obtained for him the title of a grandee of Spain. Another of his nephews, Scipione Caffaelli, he created cardinal, and made him adopt the name of Borghese. From Marco Antonio, prince of Sulmone, is descended the rich family of Borghese, which is continued in the prince Camillo and his brother Francesco, prince Borghese Aldobrandini.

**BORGHESE, CAMILLO PHILIP LOUIS, PRINCE**, formerly duke of Guastalla, prince of France, &c. born 1775, at Rome. He was the son of Marco Antonio Borghese. When the French invaded Italy, he entered their service, showed great attachment to the cause of France, in particular to general Bonaparte, went in 1803 to Paris, and married the second sister of Napoleon, Pauline, widow of General Leclerc. In 1804 he became a French prince, and grand cross of the legion of honour, and, at the breaking out of the war against Austria, in 1805, commander of a squadron of the imperial guard. At its termination, his wife received the duchy of Guastalla, and he was created duke of Guastalla. After having served, in 1806, in the campaign against the Prussians and Russians, and after having been sent to Warsaw, to prepare the Poles for a revolt, the emperor appointed him governor-general of the provinces beyond the Alps. He fixed his court at Turin, and became very popular among the Piedmontese. After the abdication of Napoleon, he broke up all connection with the Bonaparte family, and separated from his wife. The prince sold to the French government, for the sum of 8,000,000 francs, 322 works of art, which ornamented the palace of his ancestors, known under the name of the *villa Borghese*. Among them were several masterpieces. Bonaparte provided for the payment out of the national domains in Piedmont, which the king of Sardinia confiscated in 1815; at the same time, in consequence of the second invasion of France, the prince received back part of these treasures of art.

**BORGHESE, MARIE PAULINE, PRINCESS**, originally Bonaparte, sister of Napoleon, born at Ajaccio, in October, 1780. She went, when the English occupied Corsica, in 1793, to Marseilles, where she was on the point of marrying Fréron, a member of the convention, and son of that critic whom Voltaire made celebrated, when another lady laid claim to his hand. The beautiful Pauline was then intended for general Duphot, who was afterwards murdered at Rome, in December, 1797; but she bestowed her hand, from choice, on General Leclerc, then at Milan, who had been, in 1795, chief of the general staff of a division at Marseilles, and had there fallen in love with her. When Leclerc was sent to St. Domingo, with the rank of captain-general, Napoleon ordered her to accompany her husband with her son. She embarked in December, 1801, at Brest, and was



called, by the poets of the fleet, the *Galatea* of the *Greeks*, the *Venus marina*. Her statue, in marble, has since been made by Canova, at Rome—a successful image of the goddess of beauty.

She was no less courageous than beautiful, for when the negroes, under Christophe, stormed Cape François, where she resided, and Leclerc, who could no longer resist the assailants, ordered his lady and child to be carried on shipboard, she yielded only to force. After the death of her husband, which took place in 1802, she married, at Morfontaine, in 1803, the prince Camillo Borghese, and her son died at Rome soon after. With Napoleon, who loved her tenderly, she had many disputes, and as many reconciliations; for she would not always follow the caprices of his policy. Yet even the proud style in which she demanded what her brothers begged made her the more attractive to her brother. Once, however, when she forgot herself towards the empress, whom she never liked, she was obliged to leave the court.

She was yet in disgrace, at Nice, when Napoleon resigned his crown in 1814, upon which occasion she immediately acted as a tender sister. Instead of remaining at her palace in Rome, she set out for Elba, to join her brother, and acted the part of mediatrix between him and the other members of his family. When Napoleon landed in France she went to Naples, to see her sister Caroline, and afterwards returned to Rome. Before the battle of Waterloo she placed all her diamonds, which were of great value, at the disposal of her brother. They were in his carriage, which was taken in that battle, and was shown publicly at London. He intended to have returned them to her. She lived, afterwards, separated from her husband, at Rome, where she occupied part of the palace Borghese, and where she possessed, from 1816, the villa Sciarra. Her house, in which taste and love of the fine arts prevailed, was the centre of the most splendid society at Rome. She often saw her mother, her brothers Lucien and Louis, and her uncle Fesch. When she heard of the sickness of her brother Napoleon, she repeatedly requested permission to go to him at St. Helena. She finally obtained her request, but the news of his death arrived immediately after. She died, June 9th, 1825, at Florence. She left many legacies, and a donation by the interest of which two young men of Ajaccio will be enabled to study medicine and surgery. The rest of her property she left to her brothers, the count of St. Leu and the prince of Montfort. Her whole property amounted to 2,000,000 francs.

BORGIA, CÆSAR, the natural son of an ecclesiastic, who afterwards became Pope Alexander VI., and of a Roman lady, named Vanozza. At a time when the court of Rome was a school of falsehood and licentiousness, and compacts and oaths afforded no security, he reduced crime to a system. Other princes have shed more blood, have exercised more atrocious cruelty; but his name is stigmatized with the greatest infamy, for with Borgia all was calculated with cool reflection. He profaned whatever was most holy for the attainment of his purposes. His father, who had become pope in 1492, invested him with the purple. When Charles VIII. of France made his entry into Rome, Alexander was obliged to treat with him, and delivered Cæsar Borgia into his hands as a hostage, who escaped, however, after a few days, from the camp of the king.

In 1497 Alexander bestowed the duchy of Benevento, together with the counties of Terracina and Ponte-corvo, on his eldest son, who had already received from the king of Spain the duchy of Gandia. Cæsar became jealous of his elevation, and, when the duke of Gandia was murdered, a week after his investiture, public opinion accused his brother Cæsar of the deed. His father permitted him to lay aside the purple, and devote himself to the profession of arms, and sent him to France, to carry to Louis XII. the bull for divorce and dispensation for marriage which he had long desired to obtain. Louis rewarded Borgia for the compliance of his father with the duchy of Valentinois, a body-guard of 100 men, and 20,000 livres a year, and promised to aid him in his projects of conquest. In 1499 Cæsar married a daughter of King John of Navarre, and accompanied Louis XII. to Italy. He first undertook the conquest of Romagna, expelled the lawful possessors of the land, caused them to be treacherously murdered, and himself to be appointed, by his father, duke of Romagna in 1501. In the same year he wrested the principality of Piombino from Jacopo d'Apiano. He also endeavoured, though in vain, to make himself duke of Bologna and Florence. In 1502 he announced that he was about to attack Camerino, and demanded, for that purpose, soldiers and artillery from Guidobaldo of Montefeltro, duke of Urbino. Camerino was taken by storm, and Julius of Barona, the lord of the city, with both his sons, was strangled at the command of Borgia. This fate he prepared for all whom he had robbed. Those who did not fall into his hands he pursued with poison or the dagger.

Meanwhile, all the petty princes had united, and collected the soldiery for their defence; but Cæsar Borgia terrified some by means of 3000 Swiss, whom he called to Italy, and gained over others by advantageous offers. Thus he dissolved their alliance, seized their lands, and saw no further obstacle to his being made, by his father, king of Romagna, of the Marches, and of Umbria, when Alexander VI. died, in 1503. At the same time Cæsar Borgia was attacked by a severe disease, at a moment when his whole activity and presence of mind were needed. He found means, indeed, to get the treasures of his father into his possession, assembled his troops in Rome, and formed a closer alliance with France.

But he only recovered to outlive his fortune and grandeur, to see himself depressed, and his enemies exalted; for he was soon after divested of all his acquisitions, and sent a prisoner to Spain, in order to free Italy from an incendiary, and the Italian princes from those dangers which his turbulent and restless spirit made them fear, even though he was unarmed. From Spain he escaped to Navarre to King John his brother-in-law, where he met with a very friendly reception. From hence he designed to go into France; and there, with the assistance of Louis, to try if he could once more re-establish his fortune, but Louis refused to receive him, not only because he and Spain had concluded a truce, but because they were also at enmity with the king of Navarre. The French king also, in order to gratify Spain, had confiscated Cæsar's duchy of Valentinois, and taken away the yearly pension which he had from France. So that this fallen tyrant, in a poor and abandoned condition, without revenue or territory, was forced to be dependent upon his brother-in-law, who was then at war with his subjects. Borgia served as a



volunteer in that war, while the armies were engaged in battle, and fighting under the walls of Vienna, he received his death wound, and died on the 12th of March, 1507.

**BORY-DE-SAINT-VINCENT.**—This distinguished individual was born at Agen in 1772, and displayed, from his earliest youth, an excessive ardour both on literary and political subjects. As a youth, he was full of zeal for natural history, and, as a man, his political views, though often erroneous, were always marked with genius. His treatise on the cryptogamic plants, are full of original views. He accompanied Captain Baudin, in 1798, in his voyage round the coast of New Holland, examined closely the volcanoes of the island of Bourbon, and was led to form many geological hypotheses. When military intendant of the general staff of Marshal Soult, he showed much severity towards the commissaries. In 1815 he served as colonel in the campaign under Napoleon. And, after the battle of Waterloo, he proposed to his colleagues of the chamber of representatives not to submit voluntarily to the Bourbons.

In consequence of the royal decree of 1816, he emigrated, and lived in Aix-la-Chapelle and Halberstadt, and afterwards in Brussels, where, in conjunction with van Mons, he edited a journal dedicated to natural science. He wrote, also, an excellent work on the subterranean quarries in the lime mountains near Maestricht.

**BORDONE, PARIS**, a celebrated painter of the Venetian school, who was born at Treviso in 1500, and died in 1570. Under Titian he made rapid progress in painting. The execution of many works for his native city and for Venice spread his fame as far as France, whither he was invited by the king. The galleries of Dresden and Vienna possess several of his works. His most celebrated picture is the "Old Gondolier presenting a ring to the Doge;" it is painted in oil, and is now at Venice.

**BORELLI, JOHN ALPHONSO**, a celebrated mathematical and medical writer of the seventeenth century. He was a Neapolitan by birth, and studied at Rome, after which he became professor of mathematics at Messina in Sicily. He then travelled for improvement through various parts of Italy, and joined to his former studies that of physic. Subsequently he was appointed professor of natural philosophy and mathematics at Pisa and Florence, and was elected a member of the academy del Cimento. He distinguished himself by his philosophical experiments and researches, especially those relating to the gravity of the air. Notwithstanding he was much favoured by the princes of the Medici family, his love of change induced him to return to Messina in 1667. He continued there till 1674, when he was banished for being concerned in some political commotions which took place in that city. He retired to Rome, and was patronised by Christina, the ex-queen of Sweden, who made him a member of her academy of learned men. He engaged as mathematical teacher in the convent of the regular clergy of St. Pantaleon, called the *pious schools*. In this situation he continued till his death, which was occasioned by pleurisy, and took place December 31st, 1679, at the age of seventy-two. His principal work is a treatise entitled "*De motu Animalium*," finished shortly before his death, and published at the expense of Queen Christina, the first volume in 1680 and the second in 1681. It was afterwards repub-

lished in Holland. Borelli has in this work attempted to apply mathematics to the illustration of the animal economy; and he has demonstrated by curious calculations the immense force of muscular action. He left many other publications on astronomy, mathematics, and medicine.

**BORLASE, WILLIAM**, an eminent English antiquary and topographer. He was born in Cornwall in 1696, and was educated at Exeter College, Oxford, where in 1719 he took the degree of M. A., and the same year entered into holy orders. He was presented to the rectory of Ludgvan in Cornwall in 1722, where he resided during the remainder of his life, as the only additional preferment he ever obtained was the vicarage of St. Just in the same county. The parish of Ludgvan is rich in fossils, and the whole county of Cornwall exhibits antique monuments, usually supposed to be Druidical. To the investigation of these local curiosities of nature and art Borlase dedicated all the time he could spare from his professional duties. In 1749 he was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society in consequence of his having communicated to that learned body an essay on the crystal spar called Cornish diamonds. In 1754 he published "*The Antiquities Historical and Monumental of the County of Cornwall*," in folio, of which an enlarged edition appeared in 1769. This was succeeded by "*Observations on the Ancient and Present State of the Islands of Scilly*;" and in 1758 was published the "*Natural History of Cornwall*," folio, a work comprising much curious information relative to the civil history of the county, the stannary courts, boroughs, and Cornish dialect, besides the accounts of its natural productions. In 1766 he received from the University of Oxford the diploma of LL.D. He died in 1772, leaving prepared for the press a "*Treatise on the Creation and Deluge*," which was never published. As an antiquary, Dr. Borlase has the merit of having described with accuracy the objects of his speculations, and of dealing less in fanciful and far-fetched hypotheses than most preceding writers on British antiquities.

**BOSCAN, ALMOGAVER, JUAN**, a Spanish poet, born towards the close of the fifteenth century, at Barcelona. His parents, who belonged to the most ancient nobility, gave him a careful education. He followed the court of Charles V., and in 1526 was attached to it for some time in Grenada. The education of the duke of Alba was committed to him, and his instructions developed the great but severe qualities which the duke afterwards displayed. After his marriage Boscan lived at Barcelona, occupied in publishing his works, together with those of his deceased friend Garcilaso, in which he was employed at the time of his death. Boscan was persuaded to attempt Italian measures in the Spanish language by Antonio Navagero an Italian scholar and ambassador of the republic of Venice at the court of the emperor. Thus he became the creator of the Spanish sonnet, and, with Garcilaso, first used the *terzine* in his poetical epistles and elegies. In general, he distinguished himself by introducing Italian forms into Spanish poetry, which met with great opposition, and not less applause. Boscan died in 1540.

**BOSCAWEN, HON. EDWARD**, a British admiral of the last century, who was born in 1711. He particularly distinguished himself at Porto Bello and at Carthage, where he stormed a battery

at the head of a part of his crew. In 1744 he was promoted to the *Dreadnought*, a sixty-gun ship, in which he took the *Media*. Three years afterwards he signalized himself under Anson at the battle of Cape Finisterre, and towards the close of that year he was raised to the rank of rear-admiral, and despatched with a squadron to the East Indies. Though he failed in an attempt on Pondicherry, he succeeded in making himself master of Madras and returned to England, where he obtained a seat at the admiralty board. In 1755 he again sailed for North America, and, in an action with a French squadron, two ships of the line fell into his hands. In 1758, in conjunction with Lord Amherst, who commanded the land forces, he succeeded in reducing Louisbourg and Cape Breton, and the year following, having then the command in the Mediterranean, pursued the Toulon fleet, under De la Clue, through the straits of Gibraltar, and, coming up with it in Lagos Bay, completely defeated it, burning two ships and taking three. For these services he received the thanks of parliament and £3000 a year, with the rank of general of marines. He died in the following year. Admiral Boscawen sat in the parliament of 1743 as member for Truro, in his native county.

BOSCOVICH, ROGER JOSEPH, an astronomer and geometrician of distinguished eminence in the eighteenth century, who was a native of Ragusa in Dalmatia. He was educated among the Jesuits, and entering into their order was appointed professor of mathematics in the Roman college, before he had entirely completed the course of his studies. He was employed by Pope Benedict XIV. in various undertakings, and in 1750 began the measurement of a degree of the meridian in the ecclesiastical states, which operation occupied him for two years. He afterwards visited the Pontine marsh, to give advice respecting its drainage. He was then entrusted by the republic of Lucca with the defence of its interests, in a dispute about boundaries with the government of Tuscany. This affair obliged Boscovich to go to Vienna, and, having terminated it with success, he visited Paris and London. He was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and to that learned body he dedicated a Latin poem on eclipses. Returning to Italy, he was appointed mathematical professor in the university of Pavia, whence in 1770 he removed to Milan, and there he erected the celebrated observatory at the college of Brera. On the suppression of the order of Jesuits, he accepted an invitation to France from Louis XV., who gave him a pension of 8000 livres, with the office of director of optics for the navy. This appointment induced him to pay particular attention to that part of optical science which treats of the theory of achromatic telescopes, on which subject he wrote a treatise of considerable extent. He was obliged to leave Paris in 1783 on account of ill health, when he retired to Milan, where he died in February, 1787.

BOSSU, RENE LE, an eminent French critic, who was born at Paris in 1631. He received his early education at Nanterre, and some years afterwards entered a member of the religious fraternity of St. Genevieve. He at first studied philosophy and theology, but was afterwards made professor of *belles lettres*, and taught in that capacity in several of the houses of the society. At length, allowed to live in lettered tranquillity at St. Genevieve, he published

his "Parallel of the Philosophy of Descartes and of Aristotle," which was followed by his popular "Treatise on Epic Poetry." Bossu possessed a penetrating mind, and his treatise on the epic contains many acute and sensible remarks; but he refined too much in his discoveries; and his theory, that Homer first fixed on a moral and then composed a narrative to illustrate it, has been justly exposed by Drs. Blair and Warton.

BOSSUET, JACQUES BENIGNE, born at Dijon, 1627, and was six years old when his father became member of the parliament at Metz. The son remained at Dijon in the college of the Jesuits, and by chance the boy obtained possession of a Latin Bible, which made an indelible impression upon him. At the age of fifteen he was sent to Paris, where he entered the college of Navarre, the president of which, Nicholas Cornet, took pleasure in forming his mind. Bossuet, under the direction of this worthy teacher, studied Greek and the holy scriptures, read the ancient classics, and investigated the Cartesian philosophy. He was made doctor of the Sorbonne and canon in Metz. Here he edified his hearers by his preaching and example, and was commissioned by his bishop to refute the catechism of the protestant minister Paul Ferry, and did it in such a way that even his antagonists were obliged to respect him. The queen mother (Anne of Austria) was induced by this work to employ Bossuet in the conversion of the protestants in the diocese of Metz. This business often called him to Paris, where his sermons met with great approbation. The sermon which he delivered in 1668 on the occasion of Marshal Turenne's joining the Catholic church procured him the bishopric of Condom. In 1670 the king charged him with the education of the dauphin, and, in consequence of this appointment, he resigned his bishopric in 1671, because he thought it inconsistent with his duty to retain it during a continual absence from his diocese. At this time he delivered his sermon at the funeral of madame, the duchess of Orleans, a princess who, in the midst of a brilliant court, of which she was the ornament, died suddenly in the bloom of youth. His last sermon of this kind (that at the tomb of the great Condé) is considered as a masterpiece. The manly vigour which characterised his orations is seen also in the "Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle," designed for the instruction of his royal pupil. The care which he took of the education of this prince was rewarded, in 1680, by the office of the first almoner of the dauphin, in 1681 by the bishopric of Meaux; in 1697 he obtained the dignity of a counsellor of state, and a year afterwards that of the first almoner of the duchess of Burgundy. His practice and his doctrine were equally severe. All his time was divided between his studies and the execution of his official duties; he seldom allowed himself any recreation. The last years of his life he passed among his flock, in the midst of whom he died in 1704.

BOSWELL, JAMES, the friend and biographer of Johnson, was born at Edinburgh in 1740, studied in his native city in Glasgow and in the Dutch university of Utrecht. He afterwards resided several times in London, and cultivated the acquaintance of the most distinguished men of his time. Here he became acquainted with Johnson, a circumstance which he himself calls the most important event of



his life. He afterwards visited Voltaire at Ferney, Rousseau at Neuchâtel, and Paoli in Corsica, with whom he became intimate. He then returned by the way of Paris to Scotland, and devoted himself to the bar. In 1768, when Corsica attracted so much attention, he published his valuable "Account of Corsica," with "Memoirs of Paoli." At a later period he settled at London, where he lived in the closest intimacy with Johnson. In 1773 he accompanied him on a tour to the Scottish Highlands and Hebrides, and published an account of the excursion after their return. After the death of Johnson he became his biographer. The minuteness and accuracy of his account, and the store of literary anecdote which it displays relative to the habits, manners, and conversation of Johnson, and the romantic attachment of the author to his subject, render this book one of the most entertaining pieces of biography in the English language. The only appointment Boswell obtained in the line of his profession was that of recorder of Carlisle. He seems indeed to have neglected legal occupation for the sake of his great literary connection. Besides the works mentioned he was the author of a political pamphlet, a series of essays in the London Magazine entitled "The Hypochondriac," and several fugitive pieces in prose and verse. He died May 19, 1795, leaving two sons and three daughters by his wife, whose maiden name was Montgomery.

**BOTTA, CARLO GIUSEPPE GUGLIELMO**, a celebrated member of the academy of sciences at Turin, was born in 1766 at San Giorgio in Piedmont. In 1794 he was a physician in the French army which passed the Alps, and that service carried him to Corfu. In 1799 he became a member of the provisory government of Piedmont, and was one of those who favoured the incorporation of Piedmont with France. After the battle of Marengo he was a member of the Piedmontese *consulté*. In the *corps législatif* he displeased Napoleon because he openly censured the despotism of his administration. In 1814 he was one of the members of the *corps législatif*, which pronounced that Napoleon had forfeited his throne. After the restoration he was struck out of the list of members of the legislative body, because he was a foreigner and not naturalized. In 1815 Napoleon appointed him director of the academy at Nancy. At the restoration he resigned this post, and lived as a private individual. He died in 1835.

**BÖTZARIS, MARCO**, a distinguished modern Greek. There is but little known of him prior to 1821, when he was appointed to a very high office in his native country. After struggling successfully with the Turks till the middle of 1823, he was mortally wounded in battle, and died sincerely regretted by every lover of freedom.

**BOUDINOT, ELIAS**, was born in Philadelphia, in May 1740. He was descended from one of the Huguenots, who sought refuge in America from religious persecution in France. At an early period of the revolutionary war, he was appointed, by congress, commissary-general of prisoners. In the year 1777 he was chosen a member of congress, and in 1782 was made president of that body. After the adoption of the constitution, he entered the house of representatives, where he continued six years. He afterwards retired from public life, and devoted himself earnestly to Biblical literature, and, being possessed of an ample fortune, made muni-

ficent donations to various charitable and theological institutions. The American Bible Society, of which he became president, was particularly an object of his bounty. He died at the age of 82, in October 1821.

**BOUFFLERS, MARSHAL DE**, one of the most celebrated generals of his age. He was born in 1644, and became an *élève* of the great Condé, of Turenne, Crequi, Luxembourg, and Catinat. His defence of Namur in 1695, and of Lille in 1708, were very celebrated. The siege of the former place was conducted by King William in person, and cost the allies more than 20,000 men. An order was sent from Louis XIV., signed by his own hand, commanding Boufflers to surrender; but he kept it secret until all means of defence were exhausted. The retreat of the French after the defeat at Malplaquet, under the direction of Boufflers, was more like a triumph than a defeat. He died in 1711.

**BOUFFLERS, STANISLAUS, CHEVALIER DE**, a son of the marchioness of Boufflers, mistress of Stanislaus, king of Poland, who was born at Luneville, 1737. He was destined for the church, but declared that his love of pleasure would interfere with the duties of this profession. He therefore entered the military service, and was soon appointed governor of Senegal, and, while in this office, made many useful regulations. After his return he devoted himself to that light kind of literature which distinguished the age of Louis XV. He was much admired in the higher circles of the capital, as well as in the foreign courts which he visited. His reputation gave him a seat in the states-general, where he was esteemed for his moderation and his good intentions. After August, 1792, he left France, and met with a friendly reception from prince Henry of Prussia, at Reinsberg, and Frederic William II., and a large grant was made to him in Poland for establishing a colony of French emigrants. In 1800 he returned to Paris, where he devoted himself to literary pursuits, which, in 1804, procured him a seat in the French institute. He died January 18, 1815. He lies buried near the abbé Delille, and on his tomb is this inscription written by himself, and characteristic of his lively disposition: "Mes amis, croyez que je dors."

**BOUGAINVILLE, LOUIS ANTOINE DE**, count of the empire, was born in 1729 at Paris. At first a lawyer, afterwards a distinguished soldier, diplomatist, and scholar, he was always remarkable for his energy of character. He fought bravely in Canada, under the marquis of Montcalm, and it was principally owing to his exertions in 1758 that a body of 5000 French withstood successfully an English army of 16,000 men. The governor of Canada, finding himself unable to defend the colony, sent Bougainville to France for reinforcements. He set off in November 1758, and returned January 1759, after the king had made him colonel and knight of St. Louis. After the battle of September 1759, in which Montcalm was killed and the fate of the colony decided, Bougainville returned to France, and served with distinction under Choiseul Stainville, in the campaign of 1761, in Germany. After the peace he entered the navy, and became one of the greatest naval officers in France. He persuaded the inhabitants of St. Malo to fit out an expedition for the purpose of establishing a colony in the Falkland islands, and undertook the command of

the expedition himself. But, as the Spaniards had a prior claim to the islands, France was obliged to surrender them, and Bougainville, having returned to France, was commissioned to carry the surrender into execution, on receiving from Spain a remuneration for his expenses. For this purpose he set sail with one frigate and a merchant ship from St. Malo. After the immediate object of his voyage was accomplished, he circumnavigated the world, and returned to St. Malo in March, 1769. He enriched the science of geography by a number of new discoveries. In the American war he commanded several ships of the line with great honour, was, in 1779, *chef d'escadre*, and, in the following year, field-marshal in the land forces. He was a man of the most engaging manners, obliging, liberal, and in every respect worthy of the greatest esteem. He retained the natural liveliness of his disposition to a very advanced age. He died in 1811.

BOUILLE, FRANCIS CLAUDE AMOUR, MARQUIS DE, one of the most celebrated of the generals of Louis XVI., was born in 1739 at Auvergne, and early entered on a military life. He distinguished himself in the seven years' war, and was appointed governor of Guadaloupe in 1768, and conquered Dominica, St. Eustatia, Tobago, St. Christopher, Nevis, and Montserrat. After the peace of 1783 he returned to Paris, and was appointed lieutenant-general. He afterwards travelled in England, through Holland, and a great part of Germany, until he was made chief of the province Trois-Evêchés. In the assembly of notables he declared for the proposed reforms of Calonne, which however were defeated by Cardinal Brienne. At the breaking out of the revolution he supported the existing government, both in his former province and in Lorraine, Alsace, and Franche-Comté, and it was only at the urgent desire of the king that he swore allegiance to the constitution of 1791. He repressed in 1790 the rebellion of the garrisons of Metz and Nancy; and, although the national assembly decreed him a vote of thanks for the bravery and ability he had displayed on this occasion, still the revolutionists distrusted him. Shortly afterwards he made preparations to assist Louis XVI. in his escape. He had made his arrangements well, and, had not the king forbidden any bloodshed, he would certainly have rescued him. Being thus compelled to leave the king at Varennes to his fate, he fled from the dangers to which he himself was exposed by the attacks of the revolutionists. From Luxembourg he wrote a threatening letter to the national assembly, and then exerted himself to excite the foreign powers against the republic. He succeeded well at Vienna, gained over Gustavus III., and obtained the promise of 30,000 men from the empress Catharine II., to be put under the command of the king of Sweden and the French general. But Gustavus was murdered, the empress forgot her promises, and Bouillé came over to England in 1796. Here he wrote his "Memoirs of the Revolution," which appeared in an English translation in London, 1797, and, after his death, in the original. Bouille died at London in 1800.

BOULTON, MATTHEW, a celebrated engineer born at Birmingham in 1728. After being educated at a grammar-school, he was instructed in drawing by Worlidge, and he also studied mathematics. He engaged in business as a manufacturer of hardware,

and, as early as 1745, he is said to have invented and brought to great perfection inlaid steel buckles, buttons, watch-chains, &c., of which large quantities were exported to France, whence they were repurchased with avidity by the English, as "the offspring of French ingenuity." In 1762, finding his manufactory in Birmingham too confined for his purposes, Mr. Boulton purchased a lease of the Soho, about two miles distant, in the county of Stafford. This spot, then a barren heath, was gradually converted into an extensive manufactory and school of the mechanical arts, where ingenious men found ample employment for their talents from the liberal patronage of the patriotic proprietor. The introduction of that important machine the steam-engine at Soho, led to a connection between Mr. Boulton and James Watt of Glasgow, who became partners in trade in 1769. Among the many great undertakings in which these gentlemen were engaged, one of the most useful and important was the improvement of the coinage. In beauty and accuracy of execution, the copper coins struck at the Soho manufactory have rarely been surpassed, and the reform thus effected in the state of our national currency confers the highest honour on those with whom it originated. About the year 1773 was invented at the establishment of Boulton and Watt a method of copying, by a mechanical process, paintings in oil, so as to produce fac-similes of the originals, sufficiently accurate to deceive a practised connoisseur. The various mechanical inventions and improvements which originated more or less directly from the genius and application of Mr. Boulton are too numerous to admit of specification. His long life was almost uninterruptedly devoted to the advancement of the useful arts, and the promotion of the commercial interests of his country. He died at Soho, August 17, 1809, and was interred in the parish church of Handsworth. 600 of his workmen attended his funeral, each of whom had a silver medal presented to him, which had been struck for the occasion. He was a fellow of the royal societies of London and Edinburgh, and an associate of several scientific institutions abroad. His manners and conversation are said to have been highly fascinating, and his private character was extremely respectable. He left an only son, who succeeded him in his establishment at Soho.

BOURBON, LOUIS, cardinal and archbishop of Toledo. He was a son of the infant Louis, brother of King Charles III. of Spain, and the duchess of Chinchon, and born in 1777. The marriage was concluded with the royal assent; nevertheless, it was doubted, after the death of Charles III., whether the prince would be lawful heir to the throne if a male descendant of the old line should be found. He therefore entered the church, and a cardinal's hat was given to him in 1800. After the imprisonment of Ferdinand VII. at Valençay, he joined the party of the cortes, and became very influential. He offered in 1814 the constitution of the cortes to Ferdinand VII., for his signature; and, the king having altered his determination, Bourbon lost his favour, and was deprived of the archbishopric of Seville. After the events which took place on the insurrection of the army at the Island of Leon, he engaged in the revolution, and was created president of the provisional junta, before which the king swore at Madrid, on the 9th of March 1820, to abide by



the constitution of the cortes. Bourbon died on the 19th of March, 1823.

**BOURBON.**—The founder of this long line of princes which has governed France, Spain, the two Sicilies, Lucca, and Parma, was Robert the Strong, who, in 861, became duke of Neustria, and in 866 lost his life in a battle against the Normans. Some trace his descent from Pepin of Herstel, others from a natural son of Charlemagne, and others from the kings of Lombardy. One thing is certain, that the two sons of this Robert were kings of France. The elder, named Eudes, ascended the throne in 888, and died in 898; the younger, Robert, began to reign in 922, and died in 923. The eldest son of this Robert was Hugh the Great, duke of the Isle of France, and count of Paris and Orleans. Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the Great (great grandson of Robert the Strong), founded the third French dynasty, in 987. One of his descendants, named Robert, was the root of the elder line of the dukes of Burgundy, which became extinct in 1361. A descendant of Robert, Henry of Burgundy, was first regent of Portugal in 1095, where his legitimate descendants became extinct in 1383. Pierre de Courtenay, a descendant of Hugh Capet in the fifth generation, was father and ancestor of many of the emperors of Constantinople. The house of Anjou, which was descended from Hugh Capet in the eighth generation, possessed the throne of Naples for two centuries, and for some time that of Hungary. Another descendant of Hugh Capet in the tenth degree founded the house of Navarre, which continued from 1328 to 1425. A second family of Anjou, descended from Hugh Capet in the thirteenth degree, gave some distinguished princes to Provence. In the same degree the younger line of the powerful dukes of Burgundy derived its origin from him. This line became extinct with the death of Charles the Bold, in 1477, whose successor, Maria, married Maximilian, archduke of Austria, and became grandmother of Charles V. All these lines, with the exception of that of Burgundy, are descended from Anna Jeroslawna, a Russian princess, who became the wife of Henry I. in 1051. Robert, earl of Claremont, second son of St. Louis, married Beatrice duchess of Bourbon. In this way the city of Bourbon l'Archambaud or Bourbon les Bains, in the department of Allier (formerly *Bourbonnais*), became the birthplace of the house of Bourbon, and Louis I., duke of Bourbon, son of Robert and Beatrice its founder. Two branches took their origin from the two sons of Louis who died in 1341. The elder line was that of the dukes of Bourbon, which became extinct at the death of the constable of Bourbon, in 1527, in the assault of the city of Rome. The younger was that of the counts of La Marche, afterwards counts and dukes of Vendome. Of these, Charles duke of Vendome, who died in 1537, had two sons, who became the founders of the following lines. Anthony of Navarre, father of Henry IV., is the origin of the royal house of Bourbon which reigned with the exception of the period that Napoleon was emperor of the French, till the expulsion of Charles X. in 1830. Louis Philip is a descendant from branches of the same rule in Spain, in the Two Sicilies (where a branch of the Spanish Bourbons was established in 1735), and in Lucca, the younger line of the ducal house of Orleans. From the other son, Louis, is derived the ducal family of Condé,

which is divided into the houses of Condé and of Conti. The French revolution overthrew the house of Capet from 1792 to 1814 in France, from 1808 to 1814 in Spain, from 1806 to 1815 in Naples, from 1801 to 1817 in Parma, and also in Etruria, where a Bourbon ruled by means of Napoleon from 1801 to 1807. The throne of Ferdinand IV. alone was upheld by this country at Palermo. After the fall of Napoleon, in 1814, the Bourbons succeeded again to the throne of France. The history of the Bourbon race is connected with a great part of the history of Europe.

We shall here give a general view of this family. After the death of Charles IV. the Fair, the last of the old branch of the Capets, in 1328, the house of Valois came to the throne in the person of Philip IV. This house became extinct in 1589, by the murder of Henry III. Henry IV. king of Navarre, a descendant of Louis I. duke of Bourbon in the eighth degree, succeeded to the throne by right of inheritance, and maintained his power by his own personal greatness.

His father Anthony had obtained the kingdom of Navarre through his wife, who inherited it, and Henry now added it to the French dominions. Anthony's younger brother Louis, prince of Condé, was the founder of the line of Condé. There were, therefore, two chief branches of the Bourbons—the royal, and that of Condé. The royal branch was divided by the two sons of Louis XIII., the elder of whom, Louis XIV., continued the chief branch, which, under his descendants Louis (the dauphin) and Philip V. was separated into the elder or royal French branch, and the younger or royal Spanish branch; whilst the younger, Philip, founded the house of Orleans, and he received the duchy of Orleans from Louis XIV. The kings of the elder or French line of the house of Bourbons run in this way:—Henry IV., Louis XIII., XIV., XV., XVI., XVII., XVIII., and Charles X.

The collateral branch of the royal French line of Bourbon-Orleans, which by the revolution lost the peerage of that name, and which derives its origin from Philip I. brother of Louis XIV., is the following:—Louis Philip, duke of Bourbon-Orleans, born 1773, now king of the French, and Eugénie Adélaïde Louise, *mademoiselle d'Orleans*, sister of the duke of Orleans, born 1777.

**BOURBON, CHARLES, DUKE OF, or CONSTABLE OF BOURBON**, son of Gilbert, count of Montpensier, and Clara of Gonzaga, was born in 1489, and received from Francis I. in the twenty-sixth year of his age the sword of constable. By the coolness with which he faced death in posts of the greatest hazard, he excited the admiration of his fellow-soldiers, and, when viceroy of Milan, he won all hearts by his frankness and affability. His fame was not yet tarnished, when the injustice of his king deprived him of his offices, banished him from France, and brought the family of Bourbon into disgrace, in which state it continued until the conclusion of the reign of Henry III. Some historians declare that the duchess of Angoulême, mother of Francis I., had fallen in love with the young constable, and could not endure the contempt with which he treated her passion; others relate that, influenced by avaricious motives, she laid claim to the estates of Charles of Bourbon, and obtained possession of them by a judicial process. Whatever may have been the



true cause of her conduct, it is certain that she strove to invalidate a formal donation of Louis XII. The constable, enraged at seeing himself deprived of his estates by the mother of the king whom he had served with so much fidelity and zeal, listened to the proposals made him by Charles V. and the king of England.

He experienced the usual fate of deserters: he was well received while his services were needed, but narrowly watched to secure his fidelity. Exposed as he was to the contempt of the Spanish nobility, and the jealousy of the generals of Charles V., nothing remained to him but his courage and repentance. His ability, however, induced the emperor to bestow upon him the command of an army, and to treat him with honour. He was already beyond the confines of France, when Francis I. sent to demand the sword which he bore as constable, and the badge of his order. His answer displays the anguish of his heart:—"The king took from me my sword at Valenciennes, when he gave to d'Alençon the command of the vanguard, which belonged to me; the badge of my order I left under my pillow at Chantelles." Having been appointed to the command of the imperial troops, he made an unsuccessful attack upon Marseilles, but contributed greatly to the victory of Pavia. When Francis was carried a prisoner to Madrid, he went there in person, that he might not be forgotten in the treaties between the two monarchs; but Charles V. delayed concluding them, and Bourbon discovered that he could not trust the emperor, who had even promised him his sister in marriage. Compelled to smother his resentment, he returned to Milan, maintained possession of Italy by the terror of his arms, and obtained so much authority as to become an object of suspicion to the emperor, who, in order to weaken him, refused to grant him the necessary supplies. In order to prevent the dispersion of his army, he led the soldiers to the siege of Rome, the plunder of which city he promised them. He was the first to mount the breach, and was killed May 6, 1527, by a ball shot, it is said by Benvenuto Cellini. He died excommunicated without issue, in the thirty-eighth year of his age. His body being conveyed to Gaeta, his soldiers erected over it a splendid monument which was afterwards destroyed.

**BOURDALOUE, LOUIS.**—This learned reformer of the pulpit, and founder of genuine pulpit eloquence in France, was born at Bourges in 1632, and was sixteen years old when he entered the society of Jesuits. His instructors successively entrusted to him the chairs of polite letters, rhetoric, philosophy, and moral theology. In 1669 he entered the pulpit, and extended his reputation by attacking with a powerful and religious eloquence, free from the bad taste of the age, the passions, vices, and errors of mankind. The dignity of his delivery, and the fire of his language, made him distinguished amidst the victories of Turenne and the feasts of Versailles, among the master-spirits of the arts and of literature, in the time of Corneille and Racine. Louis XIV. invited him at the time of Advent, in 1670, to preach before the court, and Bourdaloue acquitted himself with so much success that he afterwards received invitations at ten different times. After the repeal of the edict of Nantes, he was sent to Languedoc, in order to explain to the protestants the doctrines of the catholic faith, and he succeeded in this diffi-

cult business in reconciling the dignity of his office with the rights of mankind. In his latter days he renounced the pulpit, and devoted himself to the care of hospitals, prisons, and religious institutions. He well knew how to accommodate his manner to the capacity of those to whom he gave instruction, advice, or consolation. With the simple he was simple, with the learned he was a scholar, with free-thinkers he was a logician, and came off successful in all those contests in which the love of his neighbour, religious zeal, and the duties of his office involved him. Beloved alike by all, he exercised authority over the minds of all, and no consideration could make him give up his openness and integrity of character. He died in 1704. His sermons have been translated into several languages.

**BOURDON, SEBASTIAN,** a celebrated French painter, born at Montpellier in 1616. Being poor and without occupation, he enlisted as a soldier, but, afterwards receiving his dismissal, he visited Italy, and studied under Sacchi and Claude Lorraine. In 1652 he was driven from the French kingdom by the religious troubles. He afterwards became distinguished in his own country by many great works, among which are the following:—the "Dead Christ," the "Adulteress," the "Old Kings of Burgundy in the Senate House at Aix." He died in 1671, while engaged in painting the ceiling of the Thuilleries.

**BOURGEOIS, SIR FRANCIS,** was born in London in 1756, and originally intended for the army; but, being instructed when a child in the rudiments of painting, he became so attached to that art that he devoted himself entirely to it. He was placed under the tuition of Louthembourg, and, having access to the finest collections, soon distinguished himself by his landscapes and sea-pieces. In 1791 he was appointed painter to the king of Poland, who at the same time created him a knight of the order of merit, which was confirmed by George III. who appointed him his landscape painter in 1794. By the will of his friend, Noel Desenfans, a celebrated picture-dealer, he became possessed of the fine collection, which he left to Dulwich College with 10,000*l.* for the purpose of building a gallery, and keeping the pictures in order. He died in 1811, and is buried at Dulwich.

**BOURNE, VINCENT,** a modern Latin poet, distinguished for the taste and elegance of his compositions. He was educated at Westminster School, whence he removed to Trinity College, Cambridge, and took the degree of M. A. in 1721. He occupied for some years the situation of under-master at Westminster till his death, which took place in 1747. His character was highly respectable, but his habits and manners, which were those of a retired scholar little attentive to the common affairs of life, occasionally exposed him to the pleasantry of his pupils. Few modern writers of Latin poetry have been so often or so deservedly praised as Vincent Bourne, whose works manifest a degree of classic beauty and felicity of expression almost unrivalled.

**BOUTERWEK, FREDERIC,** a celebrated professor of moral philosophy at Gottingen. He was a man of much merit as an academical instructor and writer on literature. Frederic Bouterwek was born April 15, 1766, at Oker, a village not far from Goslar, in North Germany. After applying himself to many departments of learning, jurisprudence, poetry, &c., he at last became entirely devoted to



philosophy and literary history. He was at first a follower of Kant, but finally attached himself to Jacobi. His "*Idee einer Ipodiktik*" was the immediate fruit of his intimate acquaintance with the philosophical views of Jacobi. This work was published in two volumes, 1799. It was afterwards completed by the *Manual of Philosophical Knowledge*, and by the *Religion of Reason*. In this work, as well as in his "*Ästhetik*," he had to contend with many powerful antagonists. Bouterwek has gained a permanent reputation by his "*History of Modern Poetry and Eloquence*," published 1801—1821, a work which, though unequal in some respects, and in parts, especially in the first volume, partial and superficial, is an excellent collection of notices and original observations, and may be considered one of the best works of the kind in German literature. Among his minor productions, a selection of which he published in 1818, are many essays, which are superior to the best of his larger speculative works; for instance, the "*Introduction to the History*," in which he gives an account of his literary labours until that period, with great candour, and with almost excessive severity against himself. Bouterwek died in 1828. His history of Spanish literature has been translated into Spanish, French, and English.

BOWDICH, THOMAS EDWARD, a modern traveller who became a victim to his attempt to explore the interior of the African continent. He was born in Bristol, in June, 1793, and was sent to Oxford, but was never regularly matriculated. At an early age he married, and engaged in trade at Bristol, but, finding the details of business irksome, he obtained the appointment of writer in the service of the African company. In 1816 he arrived at Cape Coast Castle. It being thought desirable to send an embassy to the Negro king of Ashantee, Mr. Bowditch was chosen to conduct it, and he executed with success the duties of his situation. After remaining two years in Africa, he returned home, and soon after published his *Mission to Ashantee*, with a statistical account of that kingdom, and geographical notices of other parts of the interior of Africa.

Having offended the company in whose service he had been engaged, and having therefore no prospect of further employment, yet wishing ardently to return to Africa for the purpose of visiting its hitherto unexplored regions, he resolved to make the attempt with such assistance as he could obtain from private individuals. He, however, previously went to Paris, to improve his acquaintance with physical and mathematical science. His reception from the French literati was extremely flattering. A public eulogium was pronounced on him at a meeting of the institute, and an advantageous appointment was offered him by the French government. To obtain funds for the prosecution of his favourite project, Mr. Bowdich also published a translation of "*Mollier's Travels to the Sources of the Senegal and Gambia*," and other works, by the sale of which he was enabled, with a little assistance from other persons, to make preparations for his second African expedition. He sailed from Havre in August, 1822, and arrived in safety in the river Gambia. A disease, occasioned by fatigue and anxiety of mind, here put an end to his life on the 10th of January, 1824. Bowdich is said to have been a profound classic and linguist, an excellent mathematician, well versed in most of the physical sciences, in ancient and modern history, and

in polite literature. He was a member of several literary societies in England and abroad.

BOWDLER, HANNAH, a lady who distinguished herself by her literary productions at a very early age and ultimately attained considerable celebrity as a poet. Her "*Sermons on the Christian doctrines*" are very excellent, and she was actively engaged as a writer till her seventy-sixth year. Mrs. Bowdler died at Bath, February 25, 1830.

BOWDOIN, JAMES.—This distinguished American, who was born in the year 1727, at Boston, in the United States, was the son of an eminent merchant. In 1753 he was elected a representative to the general court, and in 1756 became a member of the council. In this situation he continued until 1769, when he was removed by Governor Bernard, on account of his decided whig principles, but afterwards accepted by Hutchinson, because he thought his influence more prejudicial "in the house of representatives than at the council board." In consequence of his being a member of the committee who prepared the answer to the governor's speeches, which asserted the right of Great Britain to tax the colonies, he was removed by General Gage, in the year 1774. In the same year he was elected a delegate to the first congress, which was to meet at Philadelphia, but was prevented from attending by the state of his health. In 1775 he was moderator of the meeting in which the inhabitants consented to deliver up their arms to General Gage, on condition of receiving permission to depart from the city unmolested, which agreement, however, was violated by the British commanders. Shortly after he was appointed chief of the Massachusetts council, and in 1778 was chosen president of the convention which formed the constitution of that state.

In 1785 he was appointed governor of Massachusetts, and had the good fortune to crush, without a single execution, an insurrectionary movement against the government. Governor Bowdoin was a member of the convention of Massachusetts assembled to deliberate on the adoption of the constitution of the United States, and exerted himself in its favour. He was ever an ardent lover of learning and science, and a benefactor to others of the same character. The university of Edinburgh honoured him with the degree of doctor of laws, and the royal societies of Dublin and London, with several other foreign societies, admitted him among their members. He was the first president of the academy of arts and sciences, which was established in 1780 at Boston, in North America, in a great measure through his influence and exertions, and to which he contributed several papers, printed in the first volume of their *Transactions*. His letters to Dr. Franklin have likewise been published. He died at Boston, in 1790.

BOYCE, WILLIAM, a distinguished musical composer of the last century. He was for some years a pupil of Dr. Maurice Greene, organist of St. Paul's, who at his death bequeathed him a valuable collection of church music, which served as the basis of a splendid publication of that class by Boyce, in three volumes folio. Notwithstanding he was afflicted with deafness, which increased to such a degree as to render him almost insensible of sound, he acquired an uncommon degree of skill in his profession. In 1736 he was chosen organist to the church of St. Michael, Cornhill; and was also appointed or-

ganist and composer to the Chapel Royal. On his setting to music an ode performed at the installation of his patron the duke of Newcastle, as chancellor of Cambridge university, in 1749, he was honoured with the degree of doctor of music, and in 1757 succeeded Dr Greene as master of the king's band. He was the author of many admired pieces for the theatre, and for other places of public entertainment; but his fame chiefly depends on his sacred compositions. Dr. Burney observes that "there is an original and sterling merit in his productions, founded as much upon the study of our own old masters as on the best models of other countries, that gives to all his works a peculiar stamp and character of his own for strength, clearness, and facility, without any mixture of styles or extraneous ornaments." Dr. Boyce died of the gout in 1779, at the age of sixty-eight, and was interred in St. Paul's cathedral.

BOYDELL, JOHN, an engraver who was born in Staffordshire in 1719 and was educated for a land-surveyor. By accident however he became possessed of "Baddeley's Views of different Country Seats." He conceived so strong an inclination for engraving that he determined to adopt it as a profession; and accordingly, when above twenty, he bound himself apprentice for seven years to Toms, a London engraver. In 1745 he published six small landscapes, and afterwards executed as many more views of places in and near London as formed a volume, which he published by subscription. With the profits of this work he commenced trade as a printseller, and by his liberality to artists in general established a high reputation as a patron of ingenious men. Woollett was employed by him to engrave the celebrated pictures of "Niobe" and "Phaeton," and he furnished other eminent artists with occupation, and was thus enabled to carry on an extensive foreign trade in English prints, which tended greatly to his own emolument and to the credit and advantage of his native country. Having at length established what might be termed an English school of engraving, he next turned his attention to the improvement of the art of painting. With that view he engaged the first artists in the kingdom to furnish the collection of pictures forming the well-known "Shakspeare Gallery." The wars arising out of the French Revolution having obstructed his continental trade, he was induced in 1804 to solicit an act of Parliament to permit him to dispose of his gallery and paintings by lottery. This he obtained, and lived long enough to see every ticket disposed of, but died before the lottery was drawn on the 12th of December 1804, of inflammation of the lungs, occasioned by standing in a damp room. Mr. Boydell was an alderman of the city of London, and in 1790 held the office of lord mayor. He was succeeded in business by his nephew Josiah Boydell, who also practised the art of engraving. He too was a member of the court of aldermen, but resigned his gown some time before his decease, which occurred in 1818.

BOYELDIEU, ADRIAN, one of the most celebrated opera composers of France. He was born at Rouen in 1775, and at seven years of age studied music with Broche, the organist of the cathedral of that place. About 1795 he went to Paris, and soon made himself known and esteemed by the composition and execution of his ballads, and was in consequence appointed professor of the piano-forte at the conservatory. At this time he wrote several operas,

among which "Ma tante Aurore" and the "Calife de Bagdad" are the most celebrated. In 1803 he went to St. Petersburg. His reputation obtained him a favourable reception, and the emperor Alexander appointed him his chapel-master. For the theatre of the hermitage at St. Petersburg, he wrote his "Aline, Queen of Golconda," and the opera "Telemachus," which is considered his masterpiece. In 1811 he returned to Paris, and, political events retaining him in France, he devoted his talents entirely to the *théâtre Feydeau*. The most esteemed operas which he afterwards composed were, "La dot de Susette, Jean de Paris," which had the greatest success of all his pieces, "Le Nouveau Seigneur de Village," and "La Fête du Village Voisin." A later opera, "Le Chaperon Rouge," has lively music, but is not equal to John of Paris in originality. His last opera, "La Dame Blanche," met with great applause. A sweet and natural melody, simple but agreeable accompaniments, an expressive gaiety and great variety, are the characteristic excellences of Boyeldieu's compositions.

BOYER, JEAN PIERRE.—This well-known individual was born at Port au Prince, in the island of Hayti, about the year 1780. His father was a shop-keeper and tailor of good repute and some property in the city of Port au Prince, and his mother a negroress from Congo in Africa, who had been a slave in the neighbourhood. He joined the cause of the French commissioners Santhonax and Polverel, in whose company, after the arrival of the English, he withdrew to Jacquemel. Here he attached himself to Rigaud, set out with him for France, and was captured on his passage by the Americans, during the war between France and the United States. After the conclusion of the war, being released, he resumed his voyage to France, where he remained until Le Clerc's expedition against St. Domingo was organized. Like many other persons of colour, he took part in that expedition; but, on the death of Le Clerc, he joined Petion's party, and continued attached to that chieftain until his death. He rose in the service of Petion from the rank of his private secretary to be general of the *arrondissement* of Port au Prince, and was finally named by Petion to be his successor in the presidency. Petion died March 29th, 1818, and Boyer was immediately installed in his office, and assumed the functions of government. When the revolution broke out in the northern part of the island, in 1820, he was invited by the insurgents to place himself at their head; and, upon Christopher's death, the north and south parts of the island were united under his administration into one government by the name of the *republic of Hayti*.

In the course of the succeeding year, a similar revolution took place in the eastern or Spanish part, the inhabitants of which voluntarily placed themselves under the government of Boyer, who thus became in the course of a few years by mere good fortune, and without any merit on his part, undisputed master of the whole island. Had his wisdom corresponded to his fortune, he might, by fostering the agricultural interests of the island, and strengthening its friendly relations with the United States and Great Britain, have accomplished much towards establishing the prosperity of the republic on a stable foundation. But he was both vain and weak, and, although more amiable in his temper than Christopher, was yet destitute of the energy of character and comprehensive views by which that despot's



policy was directed. The consequence was the gradual decline of the agriculture, commerce, and wealth of Hayti, and finally its total prostration, by the absurd arrangement concluded by Boyer with France in 1825. He foolishly a reed to pay to France an indemnity of 150,000,000 of francs in five equal annual instalments, in consideration of which France merely recognised the actual government of Hayti.

BOYLE, ROBERT, a celebrated natural philosopher, born at Lismore, in Ireland, 1627. He was the seventh son of Richard the great earl of Cork. In 1658 he went to Geneva under the care of a learned French gentleman, where he continued to pursue his studies for several years. In 1641 he made a journey to Italy, but was left at Marseilles destitute of money, on account of the breaking out of the Irish rebellion. This circumstance did not allow him to return to England until 1644, during which period his father had died, leaving him considerable property. He now went to his estate at Stallbridge, where he devoted himself to the study of physics and chemistry. He was one of the first members of a learned society founded in 1645, which at first went under the name of the *Philosophical College*. On account of the political disturbances, this society retired to Oxford, but was revived after the restoration, under the name of the *Royal Society*. Boyle occupied himself at Oxford in making improvements on the air-pump. Like Bacon, he esteemed observation the only road to truth. He attributed to matter merely mechanical properties. Every year of his life was marked by new experiments. We are indebted to him for the first certain knowledge of the absorption of air in calcination and combustion, and of the increase of weight which metals gain by oxidation. He first studied the chemical phenomena of the atmosphere, and was thus the predecessor of Mayow, Hales, Cavendish, and Priestley. In all his philosophical enquiries he displayed an accurate and methodical mind, relying wholly upon experiments. At the same time his imagination was warm and lively, and inclined to romantic notions, which were first produced in his childhood by the perusal of Amadis of Gaul, and always exercised a visible influence on his character. He was naturally inclined to melancholy, and this temper of mind was increased by circumstances. The sight of the great Carthusian monastery at Grenoble, the wildness of the country, as well as the severe ascetic life of the monks, made a deep impression upon him. "The devil," as he said, "taking advantage of his melancholy disposition, filled his soul with terror, and with doubts concerning the fundamental doctrines of religion." This situation was so insufferable that he was tempted to free himself from it by committing suicide, and was only prevented by the fear of hell.

While endeavouring to settle his faith, he found those defences of the Christian religion which had been published before his time unsatisfactory. In order, therefore, to read the original works, which are considered the foundation of Christianity, he studied the Oriental languages, and formed connections with Pococke, Thomas Hyde, Samuel Clarke, Thomas Barlow, &c. The result of his studies was a conviction of its truth, which was manifested not only by his theological writings, but by his benevolence and generous disinterestedness. He instituted public lectures for the defence of

Christianity; and to this endowment we owe the convincing arguments of Samuel Clarke on the existence of a God. Boyle did much for the support of the mission in India, and caused Irish and Gaelic translations of the Bible to be made and printed at his own expense. To his religious principles were united the purest morals, a rare modesty, and an active benevolence. He died in London in 1691, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. An edition of his works was published by Birch in five volumes folio, in 1744.

BOYLSTON, ZABDIEL, was born at Brookline, Massachusetts, in 1684. He studied medicine at Boston, where, in a few years, he rose into extensive practice, and accumulated a considerable fortune. In 1721, when the small-pox broke out in Boston, and filled the whole country with alarm, doctor Cotton Mather pointed out to the physicians of the town an account of the practice of inoculation in the East, contained in a volume of the "Transactions of the Royal Society." This communication was received with great contempt by the whole faculty, with the exception of Mr. Boylston. Although this practice was unexampled in America, and not known to have been introduced into Europe, he immediately inoculated his own son, a child of six years of age, and two servants. Encouraged by his success, he began to extend his practice. This innovation was received with general opposition. The physicians of the town gave their unanimous opinion against it, and the select men of Boston passed an ordinance to prohibit it. But supported by the conviction of the utility of this invention, and the countenance of several intelligent clergymen, he persevered; and, in 1721 and 1722, inoculated 247 persons; thirty-nine more were inoculated by others, and of the whole number only six died. During the same period, of 5759, who had the small-pox the natural way, 844, nearly one-seventh, died. Still, however, his opponents maintained that his practice was wilfully spreading contagion,—that, as the disease was a judgment from God on the sins of the people, all attempts to avert it would but provoke him the more,—and that, as there was a time appointed to every man for death, it was impious to attempt to stay or to avert the stroke. Religious bigotry, being thus called into action, so exasperated many of the ignorant against Boylston that attempts were threatened against his life, and it became unsafe for him to leave his house after dusk. Time and experience at length came in to the aid of truth. Opposition died away, and Mr. Boylston had the satisfaction of seeing inoculation in general use in New England, for some time before it became common in Great Britain. In 1725 he visited this country, where he received much attention, and was elected a fellow of the Royal Society. Upon his return, he continued at the head of his profession for many years, but yet found time for literary and philosophical pursuits, and contributed several valuable papers to the "Transactions of the Royal Society." He died March 1, 1766. His only publications, besides his communications to the Royal Society, are "Some Account of what is said of Inoculating, or Transplanting the Small-pox," and "An Historical Account of the Small-pox Inoculated in New England," &c.

BOYS, WILLIAM, an ingenious naturalist and antiquary, born at Deal in Kent in 1735. He was the son of Commodore Boys, lieutenant-governor of



Greenwich Hospital, who wrote "An Account of the Loss of the *Luxborough Galley* by Fire, on her Voyage from Jamacia to London." The subject of this article was bred a surgeon, and practised as such at Sandwich, and on being appointed surgeon to the sick and wounded seamen removed to Walmer. He died in 1803.

BRACTON, HENRY DE, a celebrated English lawyer of the thirteenth century, who was, according to Mr. Prince, born in Devonshire, and studied at Oxford, where he took the degree of LL. D. Applying himself afterwards to the study of the laws of England, he rose to great eminence at the bar; and in 1244 was by King Henry III. made one of the judges itinerant. At present he is chiefly known by his learned work, "*De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ*:" the first printed edition of it was in 1569, folio. In 1640 it was printed in quarto, and great pains were taken to collate various MSS. One of the most authentic manuscripts of this work was burnt in the fire which consumed a part of the Cottonian library, October 23, 1731. It is a finished and systematic performance, giving a complete view of the law in all its titles, as it stood at the time it was written. It is divided into five books, and these into tracts and chapters. Consistently with the extensiveness and regularity of the plan, the several parts of it are filled with a curious and accurate detail of legal learning, so that the reader never fails of deriving instruction or amusement from the study of this scientific treatise on our ancient laws and customs. It is written in a style much beyond the generality of the writers of that age, being, though not always polished, yet sufficiently clear, expressive, and nervous. The excellence of Bracton's style must be attributed to his acquaintance with the writings of the Roman lawyers and canonists, from whom likewise he adopted greater help than from the language in which he wrote. Many of those pithy sentences which have been handed down from him as rules and maxims of our law are to be found in the volumes of the imperial and pontifical jurisprudence. The familiarity with which Bracton recurs to the Roman code has struck many readers more forcibly than any other part of his character; and some have thence pronounced a hasty judgment upon his fidelity as a writer upon the English law.

BRADLEY, JAMES, a celebrated English astronomer, born at Shireborn in 1692. He studied theology at Oxford and subsequently took orders; but his taste for astronomy soon led him to change his course of life. His uncle instructed him in the elements of mathematics, but his own industry did every thing else, and in 1721 he was appointed professor of astronomy at Oxford. Six years afterwards he made known his discovery of the aberration of light. But, although this discovery gave a greater degree of accuracy to astronomical observations, and although the discrepancies of different observations were much diminished, yet slight differences remained, and did not escape his observation. He studied them during eighteen years with the greatest perseverance, and finally discovered that they were fully explained by the supposition of an oscillating motion of the earth's axis, completed during a revolution of the moon's nodes. He called this phenomenon the "*nutation of the earth's axis*;" and published, in 1748, his account of the apparent motion

of the fixed stars, with its laws, arising from this phenomenon of nutation. D'Alembert afterwards explained the physical causes of this phenomenon, upon the principle of universal attraction. By these two discoveries, astronomers were for the first time enabled to make tables of the motions of the heavenly bodies with the necessary accuracy. Mr. Bradley had already in 1726 explained the method of obtaining the longitude by means of the eclipse of Jupiter's first satellite. In 1741, at the death of Doctor Halley, he received the office of astronomer royal, and removed to the Observatory at Greenwich. Here he spent the remainder of his life, entirely devoted to his astronomical studies, and left thirteen volumes folio of his own observations, in manuscript. Of these, the first volume was published by Horesby, 1798. The whole appeared under the title of "*Astronomical Observations made at the Observatory at Greenwich*." From this rich mine have been taken thousands of observations on the sun, moon, and planets, which, properly arranged, have brought our astronomical tables to great accuracy. It was from this that Mayer drew the elements of his celebrated tables of the moon. In addition to his merit as a man of science, Mr. Bradley was modest, benevolent, humane, and generous in private life. He died in 1762, aged seventy.

BRADSHAW, JOHN.—This individual attained a considerable degree of celebrity from having accepted the office of president to the High Court of Justice which tried and condemned Charles I. of England.

He studied law in Gray's Inn, and obtained much chamber practice from the partisans of the parliament, to which he was zealously devoted. When the trial of the king was determined upon, the resolute character of Bradshaw pointed him out for president, which office, after a slight hesitation, he accepted. His deportment on the trial was lofty and unbending, in conformity to the theory which rendered the unhappy sovereign a criminal and amenable; and every thing was done, both for him and by him, to give weight and dignity to this extraordinary tribunal. He rendered himself obnoxious to Cromwell when the latter seized the protectorate, and was deprived of the chief justiceship of Chester. On the death of Cromwell, and the restoration of the long parliament, he obtained a seat in the council, and was elected president. He died in 1659, and, on his death-bed, asserted that, if the king were to be tried and condemned again, he would be the first to agree to it. He was magnificently buried in Westminster abbey, whence his body was ejected, and hanged on a gibbet at Tyburn, with those of Oliver and Ireton, at the restoration.

BRADY, DR. NICHOLAS, a divine, best known as a translator of the "*Psalms*," in conjunction with Tate. He was the son of an officer in the army of Charles I., and was born at Cork in 1659, and educated at Westminster and Christ Church, Oxford. His first preferment was a prebend in Cork, and he subsequently settled in London, and ultimately became vicar of Richmond and rector of Clapham in Surrey. Besides the *Psalms*, he translated the "*Æneid of Virgil*," which was published by subscription in 1726. He also wrote three volumes of sermons. He died in 1726.

BRADY, ROBERT, a learned physician and historian, was a native of Norfolk, and admitted at



Caius College in 1643, and made doctor of medicine by royal mandate, and elected master of his college in 1660. In 1670 he was appointed keeper of the records in the Tower, and soon after regius professor of physic in the university of Cambridge. He is little known in his profession, which he probably did not pursue, as, besides his historical labours, he sat as a member for the university of Oxford in the parliament of 1681, as also in that of 1685. His principal historical works consist of an "Introduction to the English History," and "A Complete History of England, from the entrance of the Romans unto the end of the reign of Richard II." He died in 1700.

BRAHE, TYCHO, a celebrated astronomer, born at Knudstorp in the province of Scania in 1546. After some previous tuition at Copenhagen, he was sent to Leipsic to study the law. Led by inclination, he devoted himself to mathematical pursuits, to which his attention is said to have been directed by accident. He left Leipsic in 1565, and that year he had the misfortune to have a part of his nose cut off in a duel, which loss he is said so ingeniously to have supplied by an artificial nose that the defect was not perceptible. Brahe ultimately settled at Prague, under the patronage of the emperor Rodolphus, who was a lover of science and learned men. This prince provided for him most magnificently; and he began to occupy himself with his usual pursuits, and gathered around him a number of mathematical students, among whom was the celebrated Kepler. He had not long enjoyed these advantages when he was seized with a disease, which terminated in death, October 24, 1601.

BRAIDWOOD, THOMAS, an ingenious teacher, born at Edinburgh, and said to have been the first in this country who systematically attempted the arduous yet interesting task of communicating general instruction to the deaf and dumb. The art however had been previously practised by Dr. John Wallis, by Henry Baker, and probably by others, though Braidwood may have invented his mode of tuition without being acquainted with the labours of his predecessors. In 1760, about the time that the abbé de l'Épée commenced a similar undertaking in France, Braidwood first conceived the idea of teaching the deaf and dumb, an art which he then supposed to be original, and the most successful realization of which he was permitted to witness, and to bequeath the advantages arising from it to his family. He removed in 1783 from Edinburgh to Hackney, where, in conjunction with his son-in-law John Braidwood, he continued for many years to pursue his profession. He died in 1806. His daughter, Mrs. Isabella Braidwood, having at an early age been bereft of her husband, her first wish was to perpetuate through her family that art which she had seen so beneficially exercised by their father. Circumstances induced her to remove to Edgbaston near Birmingham, where she conducted a seminary for pupils born deaf till her death, which took place in 1819, in the fifty-seventh year of her age.

BRAINERD, DAVID, a celebrated American missionary, born in April 1718, in Connecticut. From an early period he was remarkable for the serious and religious turn of his mind, devotional exercises occupying a considerable portion of his time, though, as he says, his piety was originally prompted by the fear of punishment, and not by the

love of God. In 1739 he became a member of Yale College, where he was distinguished for application and general correctness of conduct; but was expelled in 1742, in consequence of having said, in the warmth of his religious zeal, that one of the tutors was as devoid of grace as a chair—an expression which reached the ears of the rector, who commanded Brainerd to make a public confession in the hall. Thinking the order unjust to humble himself before the whole college for what he had uttered in private conversation, he refused to comply, and on this account, as well as for having gone to the separate religious meeting at New Haven, after being prohibited to do so by the authority of the college, he was dismissed.

In the spring of 1742 he began the study of divinity; and, at the end of July, he was licensed to preach, for which a thorough examination had shown him qualified. He had for some time entertained a strong desire of preaching the gospel among the heathens, which was gratified by an appointment as missionary to the Indians from the Society for propagating Christian Knowledge. At Kaunameek, an Indian village of Massachusetts, situated between Stockbridge and Albany, he commenced his labours in the twenty-fifth year of his age. He remained there about twelve months, at first residing in a wigwam among the Indians, but afterwards in a cabin which he constructed for himself, that he might be alone when not engaged in his duties of preaching and instruction. On the removal of the Kaunameeks to Stockbridge, he turned his attention towards the Delaware Indians.

In 1744 he was ordained by a presbytery at Newark, New Jersey, and took up his habitation near the forks of the Delaware, in Pennsylvania, where he resided for a year, during the course of which he made two visits to the Indians on the Susquehanna River. His exertions, however, were attended with little success, until he went to the Indians at Crossweeksung, in New Jersey. Before the end of a year a complete reformation took place in the lives of the savages, nearly 100 of whom he baptized within that time. They became humble and devout; and it was not unusual for the whole congregation to shed tears and utter cries of sorrow and repentance. In 1747 he went to Northampton, in Massachusetts, where he passed the short residue of his life in the family of the celebrated Jonathan Edwards, where he died in 1747 after great sufferings. Brainerd was a man of vigorous intellect and quick discernment. He was gifted with a strong memory, a happy eloquence, and a sociable disposition, that could adapt itself with ease to the different capacities, tempers, and circumstances of men, which together with an intimate knowledge of human nature, as well as of theology and worldly science, peculiarly fitted him for the business of instruction. He was remarkably composed and resigned during the approaches of death, and left this world in the full hope of a glorious immortality.

BRAITHWAITE, JOHN, an ingenious and enterprising mechanic, celebrated for his successful employment of the *diving-bell* in recovering shipwrecked property. In 1783 he constructed a diving machine, with which he descended into the Royal George sunk off Spithead, and brought up the sheet-anchor and many of the guns. In 1788 he obtained from the Hartwell East Indiaman, lost near one of the



Cape de Verd islands, dollars to the value of 38,000*l*. 7000 pigs of lead, and 360 boxes of tin. He was yet more fortunate in exploring the wreck of the Abergavenny East Indiaman off the Isle of Portland, from which he recovered property worth 105,000*l*. He died in 1818.

BRAMAH, JOSEPH, an English engineer and mechanist of distinguished ingenuity. He was a native of Yorkshire, and was bred a carpenter, in which occupation he was employed first in the country and afterwards in London, displaying in both situations much native talent and industry. He worked in the metropolis for some time as a cabinet-maker, but at length adopted the profession of an engineer, and made himself known as the author of several curious and useful inventions. Among these is a hydraulic machine, producing motion by the uniform pressure of fluids, on the principle of the hydrostatic paradox, for which he took out a patent in 1796, as he also did for an improved kind of lock, which from its general utility and application has contributed chiefly to make his name known. In 1807 he was employed by the governors of the bank of England in constructing machines for printing bank-notes. He was carrying on many other plans of improvement in mechanical works at his premises at Pimlico when he died suddenly, December 9, 1814. Mr. Bramah has left a son who appears to have fully inherited his father's mechanical ingenuity.

BRAND, JOHN, an English antiquary and book-collector of eminence. He was born at Newcastle-on-Tyne in 1743; and, after serving an apprenticeship to a shoemaker, obtained the means of prosecuting his studies at Oxford. He afterwards entered into orders, and was presented to the curacy of Cramlington in Newcastle. Here he continued till 1784, when the duke of Northumberland gave him the rectory of St. Mary Hill, London; and the same year he was chosen secretary to the Antiquarian Society. He died in 1806, at his apartments at Somerset House. His principal publications are—"Observations on Popular Antiquities, including Bourne's Antiquitates Vulgares, with copious Additions," an enlarged edition of which curious work was published after his death, in two volumes quarto; and "The History and Antiquities of the Town and County of Newcastle."

BRANDES, ERNEST, a learned and able German scholar and statesman, born at Hanover in 1758. Happily endowed by nature, and educated under favourable circumstances, he afterwards extended his views by travel, by his connection with public affairs, by his intercourse with the best society, and by an intimate union with the greatest scholars in Germany. From 1775 to 1778 he studied at Göttingen, of which he afterwards became the benefactor, when the government of Hanover appointed him secretary of the cabinet, and entrusted him with the chief direction of the affairs of the university. During a tour which he made through Germany and France, his attention was particularly drawn to the theatres of Paris and Vienna, and he gave his opinion respecting them in his well-known remarks upon the theatres of London, Paris, and Vienna. During his residence in England, in the winter of 1784, 1785, he formed many literary and political connections, besides gaining a complete knowledge of the English constitution. His journey gave his

mind a political turn. After having been appointed to fill a number of honourable offices, he was made a member of the privy council. When the French took possession of Hanover, in 1803, he was one of the delegates appointed to treat with Mortier, and remained a member of the government, until the committee of administration was established by the victors. Brandes had gained so much respect that his death, in 1810, was lamented as a public calamity. Great powers of observation, and an extensive knowledge of the world, are displayed in all his works.

BRANDT, SEBASTIAN, was born at Strasburg in 1458. He studied law at Bâle, where he graduated, and delivered lectures on this science for many years with great applause. He was still more distinguished for his poetical talents, and the emperor Maximilian I. invited him several times to his court. He has immortalized himself by a poem called "The Ship of Fools, or the Ship from the Land of Folly," which satirizes the crimes and follies of his age, first published at Bâle, 1494, and of which four editions appeared in one year. It has since been repeatedly printed and translated into all the languages of Europe. In Germany it was for about a century truly a national book, so well known and esteemed by all classes that the celebrated preacher Geiler of Kaiserberg delivered public lectures upon it from the pulpit at Strasburg. In this work we find a collection of moral instructions, and satires upon the crimes, vices, and abuses, common both in public and private life. The book is divided into 113 chapters, which, however, have no connection with each other. The descriptions are not in general poetic, but still contain many happy and beautiful passages, often display learning, and not seldom vigour; and the "Ship of Fools" will always be a valuable book, full of sound reasoning, pure morality, clear and bold thoughts, and knowledge of mankind.

BRANTOME, PIERRE DE BOURDEILLES, a celebrated French historian born at Perigord about 1527. After the death of Charles IX. he withdrew to his estate, and wrote his memoirs, which have a great deal of vanity and self-complacency mingled with much that is interesting. They form a living picture of his age; for Brantome was personally acquainted with all the great characters of the time, and an eyewitness of all the important events which then took place, and, in some, was an actor. Brantome's character was that of his birth-place (Gascony) and of his rank. He was a courtier, regardless of right or wrong, who does not blame the great, but observes and relates their faults and crimes as ingeniously as if he were uncertain whether they deserve praise or blame, as indifferent about honour and chastity in women as about integrity in men. He describes a scandalous act without being sensible of its offensiveness. He speaks of the *good* king Louis XI., who ordered his brother to be poisoned, and of the *virtuous* ladies, whose adventures no pen but his own could describe. He places us in the middle of that century when expiring chivalry was contending with the forming, and as yet unsettled, manners of later times. Brantome in the midst of his wandering life had acquired more learning than most of his fellow-soldiers. Twelve editions of his works were published from 1666 to 1740, sometimes entire, sometimes in selections.

BRAUER, or BRAUR, ADRIAN, a celebrated



painter of the Dutch school of art. He was born at Haerlem in 1608, or more probably at Oudenarde, where his father was a common house-painter. Poverty contributed to bring forward his talents, for when a child he painted flowers and birds, which were sold by his mother to the embroiderers. Francis Hals, a skilful painter, in the hope of profiting by the skill of the young artist, took him to Haerlem, where, amidst wearisome labour and poor diet, Adriaen Brauer spent the greater part of his life in a garret, occupied in making small paintings, of the value of which he was ignorant, while Hals kept the profits of them for himself. Two pretty paintings of his, "The Five Senses," and "The Twelve Months," are mentioned as belonging to that period. By the advice of Adrian of Ostade, his fellow pupil, he escaped to Amsterdam, where he was surprised to hear that his paintings were esteemed. He now gained considerable sums by his labours; but, instead of devoting himself to his art, he made the inn his workshop, never exerting himself till the hostess insisted upon payment. He threw into the fire a painting for which he did not receive the price demanded, and began a new one with more care.

Having gone to Antwerp during the wars of the Low Countries, he was thrown into prison as a spy. He declared that he was a painter, appealing to the duke of Ahremberg, who was likewise imprisoned there; and, at the prince's intercession, having been provided with materials, he painted his guards engaged in playing cards, with so much expression and truth that Rubens, at the sight of the picture, exclaimed, "This is Brauer's work; none but he can succeed so well in such subjects." Rubens effected his release by standing bail for him, clothed him, and received him into his house and at his table. Brauer, however, instead of being grateful for this generosity, escaped secretly, to plunge into still greater extravagances. He took lodgings with a baker, named Craesbeke, who became a skilful painter by his instructions. This man, whose inclinations agreed with those of Brauer, had a handsome wife, and the connection between these three persons became so intimate that they were obliged to flee from justice. Brauer afterwards went to Paris, but, finding no employment there, returned to Antwerp, where he died in the hospital in 1640. Rubens, who remembered only his talents, caused him to be honourably buried in the church of the Carmelites. All the pictures of Brauer show what sort of places and company this artist frequented. He did not, however, like Tennyers, understand how to give mean objects the variety of which they are susceptible. Nevertheless, his paintings command high prices from amateurs. It would, indeed, be difficult to excel Brauer in power and harmony of colouring, in the management of the *chiaro-oscuro*, and in truth of expression.

**BRATHWAYTE, RICHARD**, an English poet, born at Warcop near Appleby, in 1588. At sixteen he became a commoner of Oriel College, Oxford, whence he removed to Cambridge. He afterwards became deputy-lieutenant for Westmoreland, captain of a company, and a justice of the peace, and died at Appleton in Yorkshire in 1673.

**BRAY, SIR REGINALD**, born in Worcestershire, was an able statesman and favourite of Henry VII. He was present at the battle of Blackheath in 1497, when lord Audley who had joined the Cornish rebels was

taken prisoner, and on the execution and attainder of that nobleman became possessed of part of his property. His conduct as a minister was such as to procure him the confidence of one of the most suspicious of monarchs, the love of the people, and the respect of historians, who style him the father of his country, a sage and grave person, and one who was not afraid to admonish the king when he did any thing contrary to justice and equity. He also rendered himself celebrated by his love of architecture, in which he was not a little skilled. He superintended the building of Henry VII's chapel, Westminster, a work which will honourably carry his name down to posterity. He also finished and perfected St. George's Chapel at Windsor, where he was buried on his death, which happened in 1503.

**BREREWOOD, EDWARD**, a mathematician and antiquary, was born at Chester in 1565. In 1581 he was admitted a fellow of Brazen-nose College, Oxford, and fifteen years afterwards was chosen first professor of astronomy at Gresham College. His works were not published during his life, but they were collected and put in order after his death, which happened in 1613.

**BREITKOPT, JOHN GOTTLÖB EMMANUEL**, was born at Leipsic in 1719, and during his youth pursued a literary career. While at his studies the works of Albert Dürer, in which the proportions of letters are mathematically calculated, fell into his hands. He was pleased with this subject, and during his whole life laboured with zeal to improve the German characters. An attempt was once made to introduce into Germany the Latin characters instead of those commonly used in that country. Breitkopt was one of the most zealous opposers of the plan. In 1755 he essentially improved the art of printing music with movable characters. His invention of a method of printing maps, pictures, and even Chinese characters, by means of movable types, is ingenious, though less useful than the other. Although the pope as well as the academy in Paris testified their great approbation of this invention, yet no practical use has yet been made of it. He was engaged in writing a history of the art of printing, but died in 1794, before his work was finished.

**BRETEUIL, LOUIS AUGUSTE LE TONNELIER, BARON DE**, a celebrated French diplomatist, born in 1733. He was first minister plenipotentiary at the court of the elector of Cologne, afterwards at the Russian court, then successively ambassador in Sweden, Holland, Naples, at Vienna, and the congress at Teschen. His embassy to Vienna exhibits his attachment to the queen Marie Antoinette. As minister and secretary of state, he was a zealous defender of the monarchy; he was, therefore, considered as one of the greatest enemies of the revolution. After the 14th of July, he escaped the fate of Foulon by a hasty flight. In 1790 Louis XVI. entrusted him with several secret negotiations at the principal northern courts. In Bertrand de Moleville's history of the revolution, there is some valuable information with respect to his last diplomatic labours. In 1802 he returned with the permission of the government to France, and died at Paris in 1807.

**BRETSCHNEIDER, HENRY GODFREY VON**.—This singular individual was born at Gera, in March 1739. He was a travelling adventurer, a poet, a writer of songs, a collector of engravings and



pictures, an author of reviews and satires, a *Peregrinus Proteus* in a hundred different colours; yet, withal, an upright friend to what he considered the truth, a sworn enemy to all political and priestly imposture, which he unmasked without mercy, an encyclopedist, without having ever been connected with d'Alambert and Diderot, an instructor and benefactor of his age, in his writings and conversation an enemy of Napoleon, hated by thousands, loved by all who were intimately acquainted with him, and courted on account of his wit and social talents. He received his first instruction in the academy at Ebersdorf, under the care of the Bohemian brethren. He has written a great deal, and no folly of the times escaped him. All were boldly exposed and forcibly attacked. If Bretschneider had written nothing but the Almanac of the Saints, for the year 1788, in which, in compliance with the wish of the emperor Joseph, he unsparingly attacks unsanctified priests and priestcraft, he would deserve for this work alone celebrity as a satirist. He died in November 1810.

BREUGHEL, the name of a celebrated Dutch family of painters, the first of whom adopted this name from a village not far from Breda. This was Peter Breughel, also called, from the character and subject of most of his representations, the *droll*, or the *peasants' Breughel*. He was born in 1510, was a pupil of Peter Koeck van Aelst, travelled into Italy and France, copying the beauties of nature, and, after his return, fixed his residence at Antwerp, where he was received into the academy of painters in that place. He subsequently married the daughter of his instructor Koeck, and removed to Brussels, where he died in 1570. In his rural weddings, his rustic feasts and dances, he strikingly represents the gaiety of the villagers, as he himself had frequently observed them, in disguise, in his youth. He also etched, but many of his pictures have been engraved by others. He left two sons, Peter and John. The former, preferring subjects affording striking contrasts, painted many scenes in which devils, witches, or robbers are the principal figures. This particular turn of genius procured him the name of *hell Breughel*. Among his pieces are "Orpheus playing on his lyre before the infernal deities;" also the "Temptation of St. Anthony." The former picture hangs in the gallery of Florence.

The second brother, John, was distinguished by his landscapes and small figures. From his usual dress he received the title of *velvet Breughel*. He also painted for other masters landscapes, as backgrounds to their pieces, and sometimes little figures in them. In connection with Rubens, he represented Adam and Eve in paradise. The figures in this picture are painted by Rubens. This work and his "Four Elements," with "Vertumnus and Pomona," which were all executed jointly with Rubens, are among his principal performances. He visited Italy, and enriched his imagination with beautiful scenery. He is said to have died in 1640. Other members of this family, belonging to a later period, are Ambrose and Abraham, who, for a time, resided in Italy, and died in 1690; the brother of the latter, John Baptist, who died in Rome, and Abraham's son, Caspar Breughel, is known as a painter of flowers and fruits.

BRIESLAK, SCIPIO, one of the most ingenious geologists of modern times. He was born at Rome in 1768, and became professor of natural philosophy

and mathematics at Ragusa. He afterwards became professor in the *collegio Nazareno* at Rome, made a scientific tour through Naples, and went to Paris, where he formed an intimacy with Fourcroy, Chaptal, Cuvier, &c. Napoleon appointed him inspector of the saltpetre works and powder-mills in the kingdom of Italy. He was also a member of the institute and many other literary societies. The first work by which he made himself known to the public as an observer of nature, his treatise on the *solfatara* in the vicinity of Naples, in the neighbourhood of which he lived for years as director of the establishments for boiling alum, contains indications of the principles which he afterwards developed in his system. The first extensive work which he published at Florence in 1798, was the "Topografia fisica dell Campagna" (Physical Topography of Campania.)

After some time spent in the examination of this region, he returned to Rome, examined the adjoining country in a geological point of view, and confirmed his former opinion, that the seven hills are chiefly the remains of an extinct volcano. Leaving his native city on account of political disturbances, he went to France, where he made himself known to the mineralogists, in 1801, by a new edition of the above-mentioned work, with additional remarks, supplements, and corrections, under the title "Voyages Physiques et Lithologiques dans la Campanie." A topographical-mineralogical description of the environs of Rome is added to it. It contains the results of twelve years' researches. Till then, there had been no systematic treatise on the mineralogy of Mount Vesuvius. Earlier writings on this volcano contained merely the history of single eruptions, and the only mineralogical work on this subject, by Gonni, is nothing but a catalogue. Brieslak was the first who examined geologically the regions described in his work, and this valuable work has been translated into several languages. Brieslak took advantage of his residence in France to examine the regions of Auvergne celebrated for the *Puys* or volcanic mountains, and his observations there contributed not a little to the formation of his theories on the effects of volcanoes. In Milan he wrote his "Arte di Salnitrajo," and in 1811, published his "Introduzione alla Geologia," which was in 1818 followed by an edition in French, almost a new work, under the title "Institutions Geologiques," likewise published at Milan. In 1822, his beautiful geological description of the province of Milan appeared. He died at Turin, February 15, 1826, at the age of seventy-eight. He left his celebrated cabinet of minerals to the family of Borromeo.

BRIGGS, HENRY, an eminent mathematician, was born near Halifax in Yorkshire about the year 1556. He received his first education at a grammar-school, and was thence sent to St. John's College, Oxford, of which he was ultimately elected a fellow. He was particularly attached to the study of mathematics, and when Gresham College was established in London, was appointed the first geometry professor. About this time he constructed a table for finding the latitude from an observation of the variation of the compass. In 1615 he was engaged on the subject of eclipses and the invention of logarithms, then recently discovered, the theory of which he explained to his auditors at Gresham College. He soon after paid a visit to Lord Napier in Scot-



land, to whom he proposed an alteration in the scale of logarithms, from the hyperbolic form of the discoverer to that in which one should be the ratio of ten to one. This proposition was adopted, and on his return from a second visit, in 1616, he published the first chilia or thousand of his logarithms in octavo. In 1619 he was appointed Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford, and settled at Merton College, where he resided for the remainder of his life, employed in the most laborious compilations of logarithms and other useful works. In 1622 he published a small pamphlet on a north-west passage, which production was followed by his great work the "*Arithmetica Logarithmica*," London, 1624, containing the logarithms of 30,000 natural numbers to fourteen places of figures, besides the index. He also completed a table of logarithms, sines, and tangents, for the whole quadrant; for every hundredth part of a degree, to fourteen places of figures, besides the index, with a table of natural sines for the same to fifteen places, &c. These celebrated tables were printed at Gouda, and published in London in 1631, under the title of "*Trigonometria Britannica*." This eminent benefactor to science died at Merton College in 1630, leaving behind him a high character for probity, as well as for genius and scientific invention. In the works already mentioned, we meet for the first time with several important discoveries, which have been deemed of later date; such as the binomial theory, the differential method, &c., as ably pointed out by Dr. Hutton in the preface to his mathematical tables.

BRINDLEY, JAMES, an eminent engineer and mechanic, was born in 1716 at Tunsted in Derbyshire. The poverty of his family prevented his receiving more than the rudiments of education, and at seventeen he became apprentice to a millwright. On the expiration of his indentures, he commenced business as an engineer, and in 1752 displayed great talent in contriving a water-engine for draining a coal-mine. A silk-mill which he constructed on a new plan, and other works of the same description, introduced him to the patronage of the duke of Bridgewater, then occupied in planning a communication between his estate at Worsley and the towns of Manchester and Liverpool by water. This immense work, the idea of which was ridiculed by most of the scientific men of the period as impracticable, Brindley undertook, and, by means of a series of aqueducts over valleys, rivers, &c. completed so as to form a junction with the Mersey. This success caused him to be employed in 1766 to unite the Trent and Mersey, upon which he commenced the "grand trunk navigation canal," but, dying before its completion, the work was finished in 1777 by his brother-in-law Mr. Henshaw. From this main branch Mr. Brindley also cut another canal near Heywood in Staffordshire, uniting it with the Severn in the vicinity of Bewdley, and finished it in 1772. From this period scarcely any work of the kind in the kingdom was entered upon without his superintendence or advice. Among other designs, he prepared one for draining the fens in Lincolnshire and the Isle of Ely, and another for clearing the Liverpool docks of mud, which was especially successful. The variety of his inventions, and the fertility of his resources, were only equalled by the simplicity of the means with which he carried his expedients into effect. He seldom used any model or

drawing, but, when any material difficulty intervened, generally retired to bed, and there meditated on the best mode of overcoming it. On such occasions he had been known to seclude himself for days, and so partial was he to inland navigation that he is said, to a question humorously put to him on his examination before the house of commons, "For what purpose did he consider rivers to have been created," at once to have replied, "Undoubtedly to feed navigable canals." The intensity of his application to business brought on a hectic fever of which he died in 1772.

BRISOT DE WARVILLE, JEAN PIERRE, a celebrated revolutionist born in 1754, at Ouarville, a village in the vicinity of Chartres, where his father possessed a small estate. This circumstance led him to assume the surname d'Ourville, which he afterwards while in England changed into de Warville. At the age of twenty he had already published several works, for one of which he was thrown into the Bastille in 1784. Madame de Genlis, in her memoirs, says that she procured his liberty through her influence with the duke of Chartres. He married one of the household of Madame d'Orleans and went to England, where he was in the pay of the lieutenant of the police in Paris. At the same time he was engaged in literary pursuits, and attempted to establish a Lyceum in London; but, being disappointed in his plans, he returned to France. In 1788 he travelled in America, as it is asserted, to study the principles of democracy. After his return he published in 1791 a work on the United States. On the convocation of the states general he published several pamphlets in Paris, and afterwards a journal, the "*French Patriot*." When the municipal government of Paris was established, July 1789, he was one of the members, and was one of the principal instigators of the revolt of the Champ de Mars, where the dethronement of Louis XVI. and the establishment of a republican constitution were demanded. He constantly displayed a hostile disposition towards foreign powers, and the first declaration of war against Austria was owing to him. In the convention he was at the head of the diplomatic committee, in the name of which he made a motion for war against this country and Holland. On the trial of Louis XVI., he endeavoured to refer the sentence to the decision of the people, and voted for the king's death, proposing at the same time that the execution should be deferred till the constitution should be sanctioned by the whole people in primary assemblies. In the midst of the revolutionary ferment, the ground on which his party stood was insensibly undermined. After several charges had been brought against him, Robespierre accused him, May 28, 1793, of favouring a federative constitution with two parliaments, &c., and demanded that he should be brought before the revolutionary tribunal. He endeavoured to reach Switzerland in the disguise of a merchant of Neufchatel, but was arrested at Moulins, and led to the guillotine in Paris, at the age of thirty-nine. He was a great admirer of the Americans, assumed the habits of the Quakers, and introduced the fashion of wearing the hair without powder. His personal qualities were below his fame; he was indeed a leader among the Girondists, but many others of that party were far superior to him in courage and talents.



**BRITANNICUS, CÆSAR TIBERIUS CLAUDIUS GERMANICUS**, son of the emperor Claudius and Messalina, who was born a few days after the accession of Claudius to the throne. After the return of the emperor from his expedition to Britain, the surname *Britannicus* was bestowed on the father and son. As the eldest son of the emperor, Britannicus was the legitimate heir to the throne; but Claudius was prevailed upon by his second wife, the ambitious Agrippina, to adopt Domitius Nero, her son by a former marriage, who was three years older than Britannicus, and declare him his successor. The venal senate gave its consent. In the mean time Agrippina, under the pretext of motherly tenderness, strove to keep Britannicus as much as possible in a state of imbecillity. She removed his servants, and substituted her own creatures. Sosibius, his tutor, was murdered by her contrivance. She did not permit him to appear beyond the precincts of the palace, and even kept him out of his father's sight under the pretence that he was insane and epileptic. Although the weak emperor showed that he penetrated the artifices of Agrippina, yet his death, of which she was the author, prevented him from retrieving his error. Nero was proclaimed emperor, while Britannicus continued in close confinement. In a dispute with Nero, Agrippina threatened to place Britannicus, who was then fourteen years old, on the throne, upon which Nero caused him to be poisoned.

**BROGLIO**, a family distinguished in the annals of French wars and French diplomacy, which derives its origin from Piedmont. The first in the list is François Marie, marshal of France, who was born in 1671, and died in 1745; from 1689 he fought with distinction in the Netherlands, in Germany, and Italy. He was also employed in diplomatic affairs. He rose by degrees, till in 1734 he became marshal of France. In the Austrian war of succession, he had the chief command of the armies of Bavaria and Bohemia; but, leading them back to the frontiers of France, he fell into disgrace at court.

Victor François, the eldest son of the preceding, likewise marshal of France, born in 1718, commenced his career in the battles of Guastalla and Parma. He was engaged in the principal wars of France, and was always distinguished for his valour, though not uniformly successful. During the seven years' war he fought under d'Estrées at Hastenbeck, and at Rossbach under Soubise. He was more successful as commander-in-chief at Bergen. The emperor, to reward him for the victory obtained in that place, created him a prince of the empire. Disputes with Soubise, who was in particular favour with madame de Pompadour, caused his recal and banishment. In 1789, when the revolution broke out, Louis XVI. appointed him minister of war; at the same time he received the command of the troops that were to keep Paris in check. The desertion of the national guards rendered all his efforts vain, and Broglio left France. In the campaign of 1792 he commanded a division of the *émigrés* without success. After its close he withdrew entirely from public life, and died at Munster in 1804, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

Claude Victor, the third son of Victor François, on the other hand, entered wholly into the views of the revolutionary party. He was deputy of the nobility of Colmar to the states general. After the dissolution of the constituent assembly he was appointed field-marshal in the army of the Rhine, but,

upon his refusal to acknowledge the decrees of the 10th of August, was deprived of his command, and afterwards, on the same account, summoned before the revolutionary tribunal, and led to the guillotine in June 1794.

Charles François, a brother of Victor François, is known in the history of French diplomacy as the head of the secret ministry of Louis XV. Although Broglio discharged the duties of this difficult office with much ability, yet, as his views were often in direct opposition to those of the public ministry, the greatest and most ridiculous confusion was often produced. He was therefore formally banished by the king; but, at the same time, received secret instructions to continue his usual duties in his exile. Under Louis XVI. he was not employed, and died in 1781.

**BRONKHORST, PETER VAN**, a Dutch painter, born at Delft in 1588. He painted with great success, perspective views of temples and churches, enlivened with small but well executed human figures. In the town-house of Delft is his representation of Solomon's judgment.

John Van Bronkhorst was born at Leyden in 1648. He learned the art of painting without any instruction, and attained to a high degree of perfection. He principally painted animals, and was particularly successful in his birds, in which the lightness and brilliancy of the feathers are represented with much truth.

**BRONNER, FRANCIS XAVIER**, a celebrated scholar who was born in 1758, at Hochstadt, on the Danube, and while a boy entered the Jesuit college at Dillengen as a singer. He afterwards became a Benedictine monk, and devoted himself, with the greatest zeal, to the study of philosophy and mathematics, as well as to music and poetry. He fled twice from the monastery, and took shelter in Zurich. In 1810 he was made professor in Kazan in Russia, whence he returned in 1817. His poems, in particular his piscatory idyls, are interesting for their truth and simplicity, and the refined feeling of moral and natural beauty which pervades them.

**BRONZINO, ANGELO**, a painter of the Florentine school, and imitator of Michael Angelo, who flourished about 1550. He painted a great number of portraits, and his historical paintings are distinguished by the striking and pleasing features of the heads which they contain. One of his best paintings is a "Christ," in the church of Santa Croce, at Florence. It is remarkable for its grouping and colouring, as well as for the heads, many of which are the portraits of his friends and contemporaries; yet it is not altogether free from mannerism and affectation. He died at Florence, in 1570.

**BROOKE, FRANCES**.—This ingenious lady is well known as a novelist. Her first literary performance was entitled the "Old Maid," and she afterwards published a variety of tragedies, novels, &c. "Rosina," which appeared in 1782, still holds its place on the stage. Mrs. Brooke died in 1789.

**BROOKE, HENRY**, a miscellaneous writer of considerable celebrity, who was born at Rantavan in Ireland, early in 1706. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and, in 1738, he published a translation of the First Three Books of Tasso, of which it is sufficient praise that Hoole says, "It is at once so harmonious and so spirited that I think an entire translation of Tasso by him would not only have rendered my task unnecessary, but have discouraged



those from the attempt whose poetical abilities are much superior to mine." He was, however, diverted from completing his translation, by his political friends, who, among other plans of hostility against the minister of the day, endeavoured to turn all the weapons of literature against him. Brooke was encouraged to introduce *Walpole* in a tragedy. This was entitled "Gustavus Vasa, the deliverer of his country," and was accepted by Drury-Lane Theatre, and almost quite ready for performance, when an order came from the lord chamberlain to prohibit it. That it contains a considerable portion of party-spirit cannot be denied, and the character of Trollo, the Swedish minister, however unjustly, was certainly intended for Sir Robert Walpole; but it may be doubted whether this minister gained much by prohibiting the acting of a play which he had not the courage to suppress when published, and when the sentiments, considered deliberately in the closet, might be nearly as injurious as when delivered on the stage. The press however remained open, and, the prohibition having excited an uncommon degree of curiosity, the author was more richly rewarded than he would have been by the profits of the stage. Above 1000 copies were subscribed for, and, by the sale of the subsequent editions, the author is said to have cleared nearly 1000*l*. The editor of the "Biographia Dramatica" says that it was acted in 1742, with some alterations, on the Irish stage, by the title of "The Patriot." Dr. Johnson, who at this time ranked among the discontented, wrote a very ingenious satirical pamphlet in favour of the author, entitled "A complete Vindication of the Licencers of the Stage from the Malicious and Scandalous Aspersions of Mr. Brooke, author of Gustavus Vasa." This drama has since become a favourite on the London stage.

Mr. Brooke possessed considerable merit as a poet, and his work on "Universal Beauty" has been much and deservedly praised. The latter part of his life was principally devoted to dramatic performances, and he died at an advanced age in 1783.

**BROOKE, SIR ROBERT**, lord chief justice of the common pleas, in the reign of Queen Mary. He wrote several treatises on the English laws that are not now in much repute. He died in 1558.

**BROOKE, JOHN**.—This distinguished American was born in the year 1752. After completing his studies, he commenced the practice of his profession, but had not been long so engaged when the revolutionary war broke out, and he was appointed to command a company of "minute-men," whom he soon after led against the English. Shortly after he was raised to the rank of major in the continental service, and was distinguished for his knowledge of tactics, being considered as second, in that respect, to Baron Steuben alone, with whom he was associated in the duty of introducing a uniform system of exercise and manœuvre.

In 1777 he was appointed lieutenant-colonel, and had no small share in the capture of Burgoyne, on the 7th of October, at Saratoga. When the conspiracy of some of the officers against the commander-in-chief, in March, 1783, had well nigh ruined the country, Washington rode up to Brooke, and requested him to keep his officers within quarters, to prevent their attending the insurgent meeting. Brooke replied, "Sir, I have anticipated your wishes, and my orders are given." Washington took him by the hand, and

said, "Colonel Brooke, this is just what I expected from you." He was one of the committee who brought in the resolutions of the officers, expressing their abhorrence of this plot, and also one of that appointed by the officers to adjust their accounts with the congress.

After the army was disbanded, Colonel Brooke resumed the practice of medicine in Medford and the neighbouring towns. He was soon after elected a member of the Massachusetts medical society, and, on its extension, and new organization, in the year 1803, a counsellor. He was for many years major-general of the militia of his district, and his division, during the insurrection of 1786, was very efficient in the protection of the courts of justice, and the support of the government. General Brooke also represented his town in the general court, and was a delegate in the state convention, for the adoption of the federal constitution, of which he was one of the most zealous advocates. In the late war with this country, he was the adjutant-general of governor Strong, and was chosen to succeed him on his retirement from office, almost without opposition. As governor, he discharged his duties with signal ability and excellent temper. He was president of many literary, religious, patriotic, benevolent, and professional societies. After discharging, for seven successive years, the duties of chief magistrate, he retired to private life, and spent his remaining years in the town of Medford, where he was much beloved. The inhabitants referred to him all their disputes, and his decisions generally satisfied both parties. The death of this excellent man took place in the seventy-third year of his age, March 1, 1825. As a physician, he was judicious and accurate in his investigations, and clear in his discernment, prudent rather than bold, and kind and attentive to his patients. His mind was active, ardent, and indefatigable. His whole conduct was regulated by the purest sentiments of morality and religion, imbibed at an early period.

**BROOKS, JOSHUAH**, a very eminent English anatomist, who was born in 1760. His museum of comparative anatomy was second only to that collected by Hunter, and his lectures, which were for many years delivered in Blenheim Street, were of a popular character, and well attended. He died January 10, 1833.

**BROUGHTON, HUGH**, a very eminent English divine, who was born in 1549. He early in life engaged in a controversy respecting the reformed religion, and was offered a cardinal's hat if he would have attached himself to the church of Rome. He died in 1612, at which period his theological works were but little known, but they were published collectively in 1662, under the title of "The Works of the Great Albionean Divine, renowned in many Nations for Rare Skill in Salem's and Athen's Tongues, and Familiar Acquaintance with all Rabbinical Learning."

**BROUNCKER, WILLIAM**.—This eminent philosopher was the first president of the Royal Society, and created a viscount in 1645. He was the author of several small separate works, but the greater part of his literary labours will be found in the early volumes of the Royal Society's "Transactions." He died in London, April 5, 1684.

**BROWN, CHARLES BROCKDEN**, a distinguished American novelist, who was born in the city of Philadelphia in 1771. He was remarkable in his



childhood for his attachment to books, and at the age of sixteen, after having received a liberal education, had already formed plans of extensive literary works. The profession of which he made choice was the law. He was apprenticed to an eminent member of the Philadelphia bar, but, during the term intended for preparatory legal study, was in fact principally occupied with literary pursuits; and, when the time approached for his admission into the courts, he renounced altogether the legal career from constitutional timidity, and an invincible dislike to the scenes which courts present. His friends remonstrated and reasoned in vain. The youth desired only retirement and the employment of a student and an author. The delicacy of his frame, moreover, incapacitated him for the bustle of business and all athletic amusements. During frequent visits to New York, he became intimate with a literary club, who fostered his devotion to letters, and increased his eagerness to be conspicuous as a writer. He kept minute journals, indited essays and dissertations, and cultivated, with unremitting assiduity, the arts of composition.

The first novel which he wrote was entitled "Wieland," which appeared in 1798. It soon acquired the reputation of a powerful and original romance. The next, published in the following year, was "Ormond, or the Secret Witness," which had neither the success nor the merit of the other, but still exhibits uncommon powers of invention and description. At this time Brown had begun no less than five novels, two of which, "Arthur Mervyn" and "Edgar Huntley," were completed and sent forth almost immediately. In "Arthur Mervyn," the ravages of the yellow fever, which the author had witnessed in New York and Philadelphia, are painted with terrific truth. All these compositions abound both with excellencies and faults, and bear a character of originality. In April, 1799, Mr. Brown published the first number of the "Monthly Magazine and American Review." This work he continued with great industry and ability until the end of the year 1800. Circumstances, however, compelled him to relinquish it; but, in 1803, he commenced another journal, with the title of the "Literary Magazine and American Register," and, in this undertaking, he persevered for five years. In 1806 he entered upon a new work, a semi-annual "American Register," five volumes of which he lived to complete and publish. It is now and must long be consulted as a valuable body of annals.

We have already mentioned the delicacy of Mr. Brown's constitution. It had a tendency to consumption of the lungs, which his sedentary and studious habits unfortunately aggravated. In 1809 it was discovered that his lungs were seriously affected, and he then consented to travel for the recovery of his health. The remedy, however, was applied too late. In November of that year, after an excursion into the states of New Jersey and New York, he betook himself to his chamber, as he thought for a few days, but his confinement lasted until February, and ended only with his life. He expired on the 22nd of that month, at the age of thirty-nine. Among his manuscripts, an unfinished system of geography was found, to which his friends have ascribed rare merit.

Mr. Brown was a man of romantic temper, benevolent heart, pregnant invention, extensive attain-

ments, and great industry. He could be taxed with no excess save that of application. In person he was of the middle size, and bore the marks of a valetudinarian and literary devotee. The leading traits of his novels are a rich and correct diction, variety of incident, vivid scenes of joy and sorrow, a minute development and strong display of emotion, and a powerful use of the wonderful phenomena in the physical faculties and habits of man. Almost all is new and strange in his machinery and situations; but he deals too much in the horrible and criminal. Extravagant and consummate depravity actuates too many of his characters. His scenes may rivet attention, and his plots excite the keenest curiosity, yet they pain the heart beyond the privilege of fiction, and leave in the imagination only a crowd of terrific phantasms. None of his novels can be said to possess unity in the details, or to be finished in the general design and execution. These merits were incompatible with the extreme rapidity of his workmanship, and the number of distinct performances in which his fancy and pen were engaged at the same time.

BROWN, GEORGE, COUNT, an Irishman, who was born in 1698, studied at Limerick, and entered the Russian service, in 1730, as lieutenant, where he distinguished himself in several wars, and was three times made prisoner and sold as a slave by the Turks. In reward for the discovery of some secrets of the divan, he was made major-general in the Russian army. In the battle of Zorndorf he was taken prisoner by the Prussians, and disabled, by wounds, for future military service. Notwithstanding his bold remonstrances against the Danish war, the czar Peter made him governor of Livonia, in which post he remained thirty years, and was not less honoured by Catherine II. He died in 1792.

BROWN, JOHN, M. D., the founder of the Brunonian system in physic, was born at Buncle in Berwickshire, in 1735. His parents apprenticed him to a weaver, but, it being discovered that he possessed abilities superior to his occupation, he was subsequently sent to a grammar-school. Having imbibed a considerable portion of religious enthusiasm, he looked forward to being called to the ministerial office among the strict sect of seceders. Upon some disgust, however, he changed his mind, and, in 1756, entered himself as a student of divinity in the university at Edinburgh. His theological predilection gradually forsaking him, after officiating as the usher of the school in which he had been educated, he returned to Edinburgh in 1759, and commenced the study of physic. He was admitted, as an indigent scholar, to a gratuitous attendance on the lectures, and obtained the patronage of Dr. Cullen, who employed him as a tutor in his own family.

About this time, by a long course of meditation on the animal system, and the vigour of his own mind, directed by reading, but seconded by little or no aid from practical observation, he elaborated a new theory of medicine. The result was the publication of his "Elementa Medicinæ," which he further explained in a course of private lectures. Mr. Brown scrupled at no means to push his doctrines. A new medical language was introduced; ideas totally at variance with former opinions were maintained; and the most virulent abuse of the regular professors of the university was perseveringly uttered. At length, ruined in reputation and involved in his circumstances, he repaired



in 1786, to London. Here he endeavoured to excite attention by his "Observations on the Old System of Physic," but without success, and died suddenly of apoplexy, probably produced by laudanum, which he was in the habit of taking when common spirits failed to excite him sufficiently. The opinions of Brown, although not admitted to the extent and in the form in which he proposed them, made a considerable change in medical language and doctrines, not only in Great Britain, but in the principal schools of Europe, his "Elementa" and "Observations" having been translated and published at more than one place on the continent. His object was to simplify medicine, by arranging both diseases and remedial powers into large and strongly marked classes. He divided all diseases into sthenic and asthenic, or those in which excitement is too great or too little, and all curative means into such as increase or diminish excitement. The system has been useful in overturning false and trifling analogies, and in leading to a full trial of vigorous remedies; but in practice it is found impossible to act on ideas so general and abstract. The best edition of the English translation of the "Elementa" is that revised and corrected by Dr. Beddoes, with a biographical preface.

BROWN, ROBERT, the founder of a religious sect, first called Brownists, and afterwards Independents. He was born of an ancient family in Rutlandshire, and studied at Cambridge, where, in 1580, he began openly to attack the government and liturgy of the church of England as anti-christian. He first ascended the pulpit at Norwich in 1581, where he succeeded in converting a number of Dutch, who had a congregation there, to his opinions, for which he was brought before the ecclesiastical commissioners, to whom he behaved so rudely that he was sent to prison, but soon obtained a release. He then went to Middleburgh, in Zealand, with his followers, and wrote a book called "A Treatise of Reformation without tarrying for any Man." In 1585 he returned to England, and, as he still laboured to gain converts, he was excommunicated by the bishop of Peterborough. This censure, joined perhaps with the evaporation of his zeal, induced him to submit; and, in 1590, he was presented to a living in Northamptonshire, of which he received the emoluments without discharging the duties. In other respects, too, his morals were licentious, so that he retained little of the austerity of the founder of a sect.

After leading a turbulent life, this extraordinary character died in 1630, in Northampton jail, where he had been sent for assaulting a constable and insulting a magistrate. The sect of Brownists was far from expiring with their founder, but spread so as to become a great object of alarm; and a bill was brought into parliament which inflicted on them very severe pains and penalties. In process of time, however, the name of Brownists was merged in that of Congregationalists or Independents, under the latter of which titles they formed a powerful party in the commonwealth, and were very obnoxious to the presbyterians, whose successors, it is remarkable, have for the most part gradually adopted Brownist principles, in relation to church government.

BROWN, DOCTOR THOMAS, an ingenious writer on metaphysics and morals. He was born in Scotland, in 1778, and was educated at the high-school, and subsequently at the university of Edin-

burgh, where he obtained the professorship of moral philosophy. He distinguished himself, at a very early age by an acute review of the medical and physiological theories of Dr. Darwin, in a work entitled "Observations on Darwin's Zoonomia." This work introduced him to the academy of physics, of which Mackenzie, Jeffery, and Brougham were members. It was this society which gave rise to the Edinburgh Review, to which the first contributors sent their papers gratuitously. Dr. Brown wrote the review of the philosophy of Kant, in the second number, but, being displeased with some liberties taken with one of his papers intended for the fourth number, his connection with it was terminated. He also published some poems, which displayed considerable talent. His principal poetical work is the "Paradise of Coquettes," published in London in 1814. But he chiefly deserves notice on account of his metaphysical speculations; and his last work, on the "Philosophy of the Human Mind," affords ample proof of his merit as a profound and original thinker. He died at Brompton, near London, in April 1820.

BROWN, WILLIAM, the celebrated admiral of Buenos Ayres, was born in Ireland, from whence he emigrated to Baltimore, in the United States, in 1793, being then about fourteen years of age. He was employed in the American mercantile marine until 1796, when he was impressed by a British man-of-war. He continued partly in the English navy and partly in the merchant-service until 1814, when, being at Buenos Ayres, in the command of an English merchant-ship, during the war of independence, he was induced to enter into the naval service of that country. Being appointed to the command of the republican flotilla of two brigs, three corvettes, and a schooner, he put to sea in April 1814, and engaged some ships of the Spaniards, off the island of Martin Garcia. In the ensuing May a more decisive engagement took place off Monte Video, in which four of the enemy's vessels were either taken or destroyed, and the rest dispersed. This victory enabled him to blockade Monte Video, and thus contribute essentially to bring about the surrender of that city, which speedily took place. Brown was now raised to the rank of admiral; and, there being no further occasion for his services in the river La Plata, after the destruction of the Spanish fleet, he planned an expedition against the Spaniards in the Pacific Ocean.

For some time he cruised with great success, making many rich prizes from the Spaniards, who had no force in those seas adequate to oppose him. He was daring enough to attack Callao, but without success; and afterwards made a similar attempt to gain possession of Guayaquil. But, on the latter occasion, his flag-ship, the Trinidad, grounded on the sands, under the guns of a battery, and he was obliged to surrender at discretion. He remained in confinement but a few days, being exchanged for the governor of Guayaquil, Don Manuel Mendiburu, who had been made prisoner by one of his cruisers. In May 1816 he anchored in the harbour of Buenaventura with the corvettes Hercules and Hawk, and entered into communication with the government of Popayan, for the purpose of selling some of the property taken from his prizes, and obtaining supplies. At this time the patriot cause in New Granada was in its most desperate condition, Morillo having overrun the whole country, and obtained



possession of Santa Fé. Some of the most eminent republican leaders, who were flying for their lives, took the road to Buenaventura, hoping to escape on board Admiral Brown's vessels. But the Spaniards having gained possession of Choco, he found it necessary to put to sea precipitately in the *Hercules*, scuttling the *Hawk* and abandoning a number of his seamen, who were on shore, with a large quantity of valuable merchandise.

After having greatly annoyed the Spanish commerce in the Pacific, and sent a number of his prizes to Buenos Ayres, he returned in the *Hercules*, with a rich booty on board, to enjoy the fruits of his intrepidity and enterprise. Finding the *La Plata* blockaded by the Portuguese, and his vessel needing repairs, he determined to proceed either to the West Indies or the United States. On the way, he was captured by the British ship of war *Brazen*, Captain Sinclair, carried into Antigua, and condemned by the admiralty court, upon allegations so frivolous and unreasonable as to afford good cause to charge the captors on the court with corrupt and arbitrary conduct. Owing to this unjust proceeding Brown lived at Buenos Ayres in retirement, and almost in poverty, until the war with Brazil commenced. This event brought him once more into notice, and gave him an opportunity of acquiring no small share of naval reputation.

**BROWN, JOHN**, a divine of the church of England, who was born in 1715. His principal work is entitled "Essays on the Characteristics of the Earl of Shaftesbury." He was also the author of several poems and dramas; of the latter "*Athelston*" and "*Barbarosso*" were the most successful. Dr. Brown committed suicide in 1766.

**BROWN, THOMAS**, a coarsely humorous writer, better known by the name of Tom Brown, was born in the middle of the seventeenth century. His works were collected in 1707, and have been repeatedly reprinted.

**BROWNE, ISAAC HAWKINS**, a very ingenious poet, born at Burton-upon-Trent in 1705. He received the rudiments of his education at Westminster School, and was afterwards removed to Trinity College, Cambridge. His principal English work is a poem on "Design and Beauty," but he wrote a vast number of small poems. Late in life Mr. Browne became a member of parliament, and Dr. Johnson illustrated his subsequent character by the following inscription:—

I. H. Browne,  
one of the first wits of this country,  
got into Parliament,  
and never opened his mouth afterwards.

**BROWNE, MAXIMILIAN ULYSSES, COUNT**, field-marshal in the Austrian service, born at Bâle in 1705. His father, Ulysses de Browne, left Ireland in 1690, as a follower of King James II., became colonel in the Austrian service, and died in 1721. The son served from his early youth in the imperial army, distinguished himself in the Italian war, in particular, in the battles of Parma and Guastalla, and in 1739 was made lieutenant-field-marshal. In the Silesian wars, Browne served with zeal and ability; the 15th of June, 1746, he gained the battle of Piacenza against the French, took the pass of Bochetta, and made himself master of Savona. In 1752 he was made governor of the city of Prague and commander-in-chief of the forces in Bohemia; and, in

1756, when King Frederic II. attempted to penetrate through Saxony to Bohemia, he was appointed field-marshal. In October, 1756, he lost the battle of Lowositz, but, seven days after, advanced towards Saxony, to rescue the Saxon troops, who were surrounded between Pirna and Königstein. Although he did not effect this purpose, he forced the Prussians to evacuate Bohemia, and was in consequence rewarded with the order of the golden fleece. Frederic invaded Bohemia a second time with his whole force, and, in May, 1757, the battle of Prague was fought. Browne was obliged to leave the field, and was carried to Prague, mortally wounded, and died in June, 1757. Frederic II. called him his master in the art of war.

**BROWNE, PATRICK**, a naturalist of considerable eminence. He was born at Crossboyne, in Ireland, about 1720, and early in life went to the island of Antigua, and from thence proceeded to Jamaica, of which he afterwards wrote a history. He died in Ireland, August 29, 1790.

**BROWNE, SIMON**, an able dissenting minister, who wrote a great number of works, both in prose and poetry; but a most extraordinary mental disease clouded the latter years of his life. He desisted from the duties of his function, and could not be persuaded to join in any act of worship, either public or private. He imagined "that Almighty God, by a singular instance of divine power, had, in a gradual manner, annihilated in him the thinking substance, and utterly divested him of consciousness,—that though he retained the human shape, and the faculty of speaking in a manner that appeared to others rational, he had all the while no more notion of what he said than a parrot."

While he was under the influence of this strange frenzy, it was extremely remarkable that his faculties appeared to be in every other respect in their full vigour. He continued to apply himself to his studies, and discovered the same force of understanding which had formerly distinguished him, both in his conversation and his writings. Having, however, quitted the ministry, he retired into the country, to his native town of Shepton-Mallet. Here for some he amused himself with translating several parts of the ancient Greek and Latin poets into English verse. He afterwards composed several little works for the use of children, an English grammar and spelling-book, an abstract of scripture-history, and a collection of fables. Mr. Browne died in 1732.

**BROWNE, SIR THOMAS**.—This eminent antiquary was born in 1605, and educated for the medical profession. Early in life he accompanied his father-in-law, who had some employment in Ireland, in a visitation of the forts and castles, which the state of Ireland then made necessary. From Ireland he passed into France and Italy, made some stay at Montpellier and Padua, which were then the celebrated schools of physick, and returned home through Holland, after being created M. D. at Leyden; but when he began these travels, or when he concluded them, there is no certain account. It is, however, supposed that he returned to London in 1634, and that the following year he wrote his celebrated treatise, the "*Religio Medici*," which he declares himself never to have intended for the press, having composed it only for his own exercise and entertainment. He had, however, communicated it to his friends, and by some means a copy was given to a



printer in 1642, and was no sooner published than it excited the attention of the public by the novelty of its paradoxes, the dignity of sentiment, the quick succession of images, the multitude of abstruse allusions, the subtlety of disquisition, and its strength of language. The earl of Dorset recommended this book to the perusal of Sir Kenelm Digby, who returned his judgment upon it, not in a letter, but in a book, in which, though mingled with some positions fabulous and uncertain, there are acute remarks, just censures, and profound speculations; yet its principal claim to admiration is that it was written in twenty-four hours, of which part was spent in procuring Browne's book, and part in reading it. This induced Sir Thomas to publish a more correct edition of his work, which had great success.

In 1646 Sir Thomas Browne produced his "Enquiries into Vulgar and Common Errors." Of this book his biographer says that "as it arose not from fancy and invention, but from observation and books, and contained not a single discourse of one continued tenour, but an enumeration of many unconnected particulars, it must have been the collection of years, and the effect of a design early formed, and long pursued." "It is, indeed," adds the same writer, "to be wished, that he had longer delayed the publication, and added what the remaining part of his life might have furnished." He published in 1673 the sixth edition, with some improvements. This book, like his former, was received with great applause, was answered by Alexander Ross and translated into Dutch and German, and afterwards into French. "It might," Dr. Johnson says, "now be proper to reprint it with notes, partly supplemental and partly emendatory, to subjoin those discoveries which the industry of the last age has made, and correct those mistakes which the author has committed, not by idleness or negligence, but for want of Boyle's or Newton's philosophy."

"His style is, indeed, a tissue of many languages—a mixture of heterogeneous words, brought together from distant regions, with terms originally appropriated to one art, and drawn by violence into the service of another. He must, however, be confessed to have augmented our philosophical diction; and, in defence of his uncommon words and expressions, we must consider that he had uncommon sentiments, and was not content to express in many words that idea for which any language could supply a single term. But his innovations are sometimes pleasing, and his temerities happy: he has many *verba ardentia*, forcible expressions, which he would never have found, but by venturing to the utmost verge of propriety; and flights which would never have been reached, but by one who had very little fear of the shame of falling."

To the life of this learned man there remains little to be added, but that in 1665 he was chosen honorary fellow of the college of physicians, and in 1671 received at Norwich the honour of knighthood from Charles II. In his seventy-sixth year he was seized with a complaint which, after having tortured him about a week, put an end to his life at Norwich, October 19, 1682.

BROWNE, WILLIAM, an English poet of considerable merit, born at Tavistock in Devonshire. He was educated for the profession of the law, but, like many other nominal students, chose more agreeable studies. His first work was entitled "Britannia's

Pastorals," which was followed by his "Shepherd's Pipe;" both were works of considerable merit. His versification is exceedingly harmonious, and his expressions pathetically simple and natural. The exact period of his death is not known, but it is supposed to have been about 1645.

BROWNE, WILLIAM, an enterprising English traveller, who penetrated into the north of Africa and the south-eastern parts of Asia. He visited the kingdoms of Darfur and Bornou, and was the first who made these countries known to Europeans. Returning to England, he published, in 1799, "Travels in Africa, Egypt, and Assyria." He subsequently went again to Asia, where he lost his life under circumstances of great mystery. Great exertions were made to discover the authors of his death, but without success. The prince of Persia caused his body to be buried at Akhand.

BROWNE, SIR WILLIAM, a physician more celebrated for his eccentricities than for the profundity of his knowledge. He was born in 1692, and some of his earliest works consisted of translations from the early Latin works on science.

In 1772 he published a work entitled "A New-year's Gift, a Problem and Demonstration on the Thirty-nine Articles;" and, as this work contains a fair specimen of his style, we subjoin a specimen.

"This problem and demonstration," he informs us, "though now first published, on account of the present controversy concerning these articles, owe their birth to my being called upon to subscribe them, at an early period of life. For in my soph's year, 1711, being a student at Peter-house, in the university of Cambridge, just nineteen years of age, and having performed all my exercises in the schools (and also a first opponyency extraordinary to an ingenious pupil, afterwards Dr. Barnard, prebendary of Norwich) on mathematical questions, at the particular request of Mr. proctor Laughton of Clare Hall (who drew me into it by a promise of the senior optime of the year), I was then first informed that subscribing these articles was a necessary step to taking my degree of B. A., as well as all other degrees. I had considered long before at school, and on my admission in 1707, that the universal profession of religion must much more concern me through life, to provide for my happiness hereafter, than the particular profession of physick, which I proposed to pursue, to provide for my more convenient existence here; and therefore had selected out of the library left by my father (who had himself been a regular physician, educated under the tuition of Sir J. Ellis, M. D., afterwards master of Caius College), "Chillingworth's Religion of a Protestant," the whole famous protestant and popish controversy, commentaries on scripture, and such other books as suited my purpose. I particularly pitched upon three for perpetual pocket-companions, "Beau's Greek Testament," "Hippocratis Aphoristica," and "Elzevir Horace," expecting from the first to draw divinity, from the second physick, and from the last good sense and vivacity. Here I cannot forbear recollecting my partiality for St. Luke, because he was a physician, by the particular pleasure I took in perceiving the superior purity of his Greek over that of the other evangelists. But I did not then know, what I was afterwards taught by Dr. Friend's learned History of Physick, that this purity was owing to his being a physician, and consequently conversant with



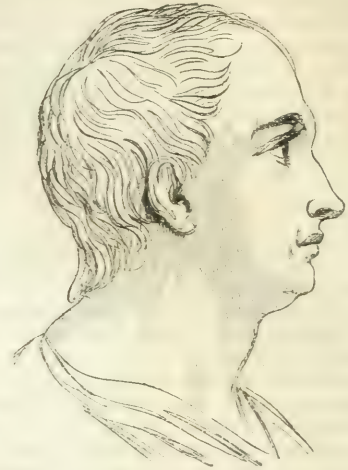
our Greek fathers of physic. Being thus fortified, I thought myself as well prepared for an encounter with these articles as so young a person could reasonably be expected. I therefore determined to read them over as carefully and critically as I could; and upon this met with so many difficulties, utterly irreconcilable by me to the divine original, that I almost despaired of ever being able to subscribe them. But, not to be totally discouraged, I resolved to reconsider them with redoubled diligence; and then at last had the pleasure to discover, in article VI. and XX., what appeared to my best private judgment and understanding a clear solution of all the difficulties, and an absolute defeazance of that exceptionable authority which inconsistently with scripture they seem to assume. I subscribe my name to whatever I offer to the public, that I may be answerable for its being my sincere sentiment, ever open, however, to conviction, by superior reason and argument."

Sir William Browne died in London, March the 10th, 1774.

BRUCE, JAMES, a celebrated modern traveller, born in December, 1730 at the family seat of his father, in the county of Stirling, in Scotland. It having been determined to give him an English education, he was sent to London, and resided there in the family of his uncle for some time. In 1746 he was placed at Harrow School, where he made great progress in classical learning. In May 1747 he returned to Scotland, in order to commence a course of study at the university of Edinburgh, preparatory to his following the profession of the law; but it does not appear that he made much progress, and he finally relinquished his determination of devoting himself to that profession. In 1753 he left Scotland with the intention of proceeding to India, but he was prevented from carrying it into execution by forming a connection with Miss Allan, daughter of a wine-merchant in London, whom he married in 1754. But, though this year did not end with the prosperity with which it began, this accidental settlement in London changed his destination in life. It detained him in Europe till his mind was formed, his knowledge matured, and an opportunity presented itself of visiting the east with honour and advantage. In his own opinion, it prevented him from suffering the cruel imprisonment at Calcutta in 1756, which proved fatal to many of the company's servants. He now entered into partnership in the wine-business, which, as well as his marriage, was approved of by his father; but his prospects in this new situation were soon clouded. A few months after their marriage Mrs. Bruce exhibited evident symptoms of consumption, and, being recommended to try the mild climate of the south of France, expired at Paris.

By this melancholy event Mr. Bruce lost the principal tie that connected him with business, and, although he did not think it prudent to relinquish trade without some equivalent object, relaxed his personal efforts very considerably, and added to his stock of languages the Spanish and Portuguese. He also improved his skill in drawing. Before this time he had chiefly cultivated that part of drawing which relates to the science of fortification, in hopes that he might, on some emergency, find it of use in military service. But views of a more extensive kind now induced him to study drawing in general, and to obtain a correct taste in painting, so as to be able to visit with advantage those countries which possess the

finest specimens of skill and genius in that department of the arts.



His concern in the wine-trade gave him an opportunity of travelling over a considerable part of Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands; but, hearing of his father's death in 1758, he returned to England, and, in 1761, withdrew entirely from the wine-trade.

He now, from his observations while in Spain, suggested to the prime minister Mr. Pitt, afterwards Lord Chatham, the practicability of a successful expedition against Ferrol, in Galicia, where the Spaniards had a considerable harbour, and generally stationed a part of their navy; but various circumstances, of which perhaps Mr. Pitt's resignation was the principal, prevented this enterprise from being attempted. Disappointed in this, he resolved to return to his native country, and pass his time as a private gentleman, cultivating his paternal estate. One of the new ministers however, Lord Halifax, diverted him from this design, and suggested Africa to him as a proper field for enterprise and discovery; and, that he might go under the protection of a public character, it was proposed to send him as consul to Algiers. Bruce acceded to these proposals, and left England in the end of June 1762. He passed through France and Italy, and carried with him from the latter country an artist to assist him in his drawings. For his subsequent adventures, his travels into Abyssinia, and his discovery of the sources of the Nile, &c., we must refer to his published travels. He returned to his native country in 1773; and, in 1776, he married a daughter of Thomas Dundas of Fingask, Esq., by whom he had three children.

After he settled at Kinnaird, his time was chiefly spent in managing his estate, in preparing his travels for the press, and other literary occupations; and he was preparing a second edition of his travels when death prevented the execution of his design. On the 26th of April, 1794, having entertained some company at Kinnaird, as he was going down stairs about eight o'clock in the evening, to hand a lady into a carriage, his foot slipped, and he fell from a considerable height. He was taken up in a state of insensibility, and expired early next morning.

Mr. Bruce's figure was above the common size; his limbs athletic, but well proportioned; his complexion sanguine; his countenance manly and good-



tempered; and his manners easy and polite. The whole outward man was such as to announce a character well calculated to contend with the many difficulties and trying occasions which so extraordinary a journey could not but have thrown in his way. His internal characters, the features of his understanding and disposition, seem in a great measure to have corresponded with these outward lineaments. His personal accomplishments fitted him, in a superior manner, for the undertakings in which he engaged. His constitution was robust, and he had injured himself to every kind of fatigue and exercise. In mental accomplishments he equalled, if not surpassed, the generality of travellers. He understood French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, the two first of which he spoke and wrote with facility. Besides Greek and Latin, which he read well, though not critically, he knew the Hebrew, Chaldee, and Syriac; and, in the latter part of his life, compared several portions of the scriptures in those languages. He read and spoke with ease Arabic and Ethiopic. The most defective part of his character arose from his constitutional temper, which disposed him to be suspicious, and hasty in taking offence. His enmities therefore were sometimes capricious, though, in general, well-founded. His love of ancestry and practice of telling his own exploits, though magnified into vices by the weakest of his enemies, scarcely deserve notice as imperfections, though they certainly were prominent features. They contributed however, in a great measure, to excite that incredulity which for many years prevailed respecting the veracity of his narrative.

"Bruce's Travels," after many years of eager expectation on the part of the public, were published in 1790 at London, under the title of "Travels to discover the Source of the Nile, in the Years 1768—1773." The [reception they met with was exceedingly flattering, yet numerous attacks were made on the author's character and veracity in the periodical journals, to which it is unnecessary now to refer. We subjoin an accurate fac-simile of his autograph.

*James Bruce*

BRUCE, MICHAEL, a British poet of the last century, distinguished for the plaintive elegance of his compositions. He was born at Kinnasswood, in Scotland, in 1746; and, his friends being persons in low circumstances, he had to struggle with poverty, which, together with constitutional disease, gave a melancholy turn to his mind and influenced the character of his writings. For a short time he was engaged in the occupation of a village schoolmaster, the fatigues of which probably shortened his life; he became consumptive, and died in 1767. His poems, which are few in number, were published by the Rev. John Logan, together with some of his own, at Edinburgh, in 1770. One composed on the anticipation of his own death is peculiarly affecting.

BRUCE, ROBERT, the competitor of John

Baliol for the throne of Scotland. On the death of Alexander III., without any lineal descendant, the right to the crown devolved on the descendants of David earl of Huntingdon, who were John Baliol, descended from his oldest daughter, and Bruce, descended, though one generation nearer, from his second daughter. Baliol, therefore, claimed as issue of the elder branch; Bruce as one degree nearer the common stock. If the principle of representation were regarded, the former had the better claim; if propinquity were considered, the latter was entitled to the preference. The dispute was referred to the decision of Edward I. of England, who decided in favour of Baliol; and the new king took the oath of fealty as vassal of England. The oppressions of the English induced Baliol and his countrymen to have recourse to arms, and Bruce served in the army of Edward; Scotland was subjected, her king imprisoned, her defenders reduced, slain, or made captive, when an obscure individual arose to revenge her wrongs. William Wallace, having succeeded in delivering his country, was accused by Bruce of aspiring to the throne, and in the dreadful battle of Falkirk Bruce was in the English ranks. In the pursuit, Wallace had the celebrated interview with him on the banks of the Carron. Hume relates that the interview was between Wallace and the younger Bruce; but the Scottish historians, Drummond, Lesly, Buchanan, &c., give the account as here stated. Wallace displayed such elevation of sentiment, such disinterestedness of patriotism, that Bruce melted into tears, and ever after remained faithful to the cause of his oppressed country.



BRUCE, ROBERT, son of the preceding. Seven years of alternate resistance and submission, of wars and truces, had passed, from the battle of Falkirk, when Edward I. returned to London, in 1305, victorious for the third time over Scotland, and delivered by treachery from the dreaded Wallace. In his train, among other Scotch nobles, were Robert Bruce and John Cumyn, who, formerly rivals, now conspired to deliver themselves from the perfidious Edward. They agreed that Bruce should be declared king, and that Scotland should be summoned to arms. Cumyn betrayed his accomplice, who, without being informed of the discovery of the plot, was



ordered not to leave the court. He received the first intimation of his danger by the present of a pair of spurs and a purse of gold from one of his friends; and, understanding the hint, he had his horses shod with their shoes inverted, that the traces on the snow might baffle his pursuers, and escaped to Scotland. He immediately assembled his friends at Dumfries, and all the nobles, except Cumyn, encouraged his resolution and promised their aid. Cumyn endeavoured to dissuade them from so desperate an undertaking; and, after the assembly was dismissed, he was attacked by Bruce, in the cloisters of the Gray Friars, and run through the body. Robert Bruce was soon after crowned at Scone. Being twice defeated, he dismissed his troops, and retired to the Hebrides, accompanied only by two friends. His wife was carried captive to London, his three brothers were hanged, and he himself was supposed to be dead, when he reappeared in Scotland, collected an army, put to the sword the English garrisons, and rallied all Scotland under his banners. Edward set out to subdue the thrice-conquered Scots, and was on the point of entering the kingdom, vowing revenge, and secure of success, when he sickened and died, enjoining it with his last breath on his successor never to desist till he had subjected all Scotland.

Bruce, although obliged to be carried in a litter, defeated the English at Bannockburn, near Sterling, and secured the independence of his crown in June 1314. The distracted state of the country required vigorous measures. The Scottish nobles had encroached on the possessions of the king and the commons. The king called upon them to show the titles by which they held their lands. "By these," they exclaimed, drawing their swords, "we have acquired our lands, and with these we will preserve them." King Robert was once more obliged to defend his territories from the English, who, encouraged by the internal disputes among the Scottish nobility, again passed the northern borders. On the plains of Byland, in 1323, he gained another memorable victory over those formidable enemies. On the accession of Edward III. to the throne of England in

tion of all claims of sovereignty on the part of the English. To this document was affixed the great seals of England and Scotland, the latter of which is represented in the accompanying engraving.

BRUGMANS, SEBALD JUSTINUS, a learned Dutchman, physician-in-chief of the army, of the marine, and of the colonies, member of the institute of the Netherlands, and several learned societies. He was born at Franeker in 1763, and graduated in 1781 at Groningen. His dissertations, "*Lithologia Groningiana*," "*On Hurtful and Poisonous Plants in Pastures*," "*On the Symptoms of Decay in Trees*," and "*De Puogenia*," in 1785, procured him great distinction. He became professor of philosophy and physics in Franeker, where he formed a cabinet of comparative anatomy, one of the first in Europe in point of extent and excellence. In 1795 he went to Leyden as professor of chemistry. He was an active contributor to the *Pharmacopœia Batava*. King Louis made him his physician, and confirmed all his institutions. After the union of Holland with France, Napoleon made him inspector-general of the hospitals, and rector of the university of Leyden, for which he procured large sums of money from the state, and, in later times, the return of its collection of natural history from Paris. During the many years he was director of the military hospital, the number of deaths by wounds and diseases was never increased by hospital fevers; and, after the battle of Waterloo, he promptly procured medical aid for more than 20,000 wounded men. His treatise "*On the Nature of the Miasma of Hospital-Fever*" gained the prize of the academy in Haarlem. His original views on the organization of fishes are to be found in the transactions of the national institute of the Netherlands. He died in 1819.

BRUHL, HENRY, COUNT OF, a celebrated minister of Augustus III. king of Poland and elector of Saxony. He was born in 1700, in Thuringia; and, as his family was not very rich, he entered as a page into the service of the duchess Elizabeth, whose favour, as well as that of Augustus II. he gained by his lively and graceful manners. On the death of the king at Warsaw, in 1733, the crown of Poland, with the other regalia, being through the good fortune of Bruhl intrusted to him, he carried them immediately to the new elector, Augustus III., and showed the greatest activity in promoting his election. From this time fortune never deserted him. He had cunning and skill sufficient to govern his master and get rid of his rivals. While he felt himself not sufficiently powerful to remove his rival, Count Sulkowski, he acted as his friend; but, after his marriage with the countess Kollowrath, the favourite of the queen, he effected the dismissal of Sulkowski through her influence. He now succeeded in keeping every body at a distance from the king. No servant entered his service without the consent of Bruhl; and, even when he went to the chapel, all approach to him was prevented.

The monarch's wish that his minister should make a great display of wealth was gratified in the widest extent, as Bruhl kept 200 domestics; his guards were better paid than those of the king himself, and his table more sumptuous. Frederic II. says of him, "Bruhl had more garments, watches, laces, boots, shoes, and slippers than any man of the age. Cæsar would have counted him among those curled and perfumed heads which he did not fear." But Au-



1329, he obtained from that monarch the recognition of the independence of Scotland, and the renuncia-



gustus III. was no Cæsar. When this idle prince loitered about smoking, and asked, without looking at his favourite, "Bruhl, have I any money?" "Yes, sire," was the continual answer; and, to satisfy the king's demands, he exhausted the state, plunged the country into debt, and greatly reduced the army. At the beginning of the seven years' war, it comprised but 17,000 men, and these were compelled to surrender at Pirna, from want of the necessary supplies. Bruhl fled with the king, the pictures, and the china, to Poland; but the archives of the state were left to the victor. He was no less avaricious of titles and money than of power. He died a few weeks after his king in 1763. An examination after his death showed that he owed his immense fortune to the prodigality of the king, rather than to unlawful means of accumulation.

**BRUMOI, PETER**, a celebrated French writer, who was born at Rouen in 1688. In 1722 he became a member of the society of Jesuits. His principal work is a general treatise on the "Greek Theatre." He died in 1742.

**BRUN, CHARLES LE.**—This eminent painter was born in France towards the close of the year 1619. He early in life excelled in making charcoal sketches, and was much assisted by Poussin. In 1660 he was appointed principal painter to the French monarch, and painted many large pictures for the palaces. He died at the Gobelins in 1690. Le Brun's treatise on "Physiognomy" and his "Characters of the Passions" possess considerable merit.

**BRUNCK, RICHARD FRANCIS.**—Of this eminent scholar but little is known beyond the fact that he was born at Strasburg in 1729, and died in that city in the middle of 1803. He edited several editions of many of the ancient classics, and was well known for his critical labours.

**BRUNE, WILLIAM MARIA ANNE**, a celebrated French marshal, who was born at Brivez la Gaillarde in March 1763. At the breaking out of the French revolution he was engaged in the profession of printing, and first became known by publishing some small works of his own composition. He afterwards devoted himself ardently to politics, became a member of the club des *Cordeliers*, was connected with Danton, and played an active part in the tempests of that period. In 1793 he entered the military service in the revolutionary army in the Gironde, and in 1795 he aided Barras to put down the Jacobins, who had assaulted the camp of Grenelle. Afterwards he distinguished himself as general of brigade in the Italian army, in 1797, in the attack of Verona, and in the battle of Arcoli. When the directory of Switzerland declared war Brune received the chief command of an army, entered the country without much opposition in January 1798, and effected a new organization of the government. In 1799 he received the chief command in Holland, defeated the English in the north of Holland near Bergen, and compelled the duke of York to agree to the treaty of Alcaer, by which the English and Russians were to evacuate the north of Holland.

In January 1800 he was made a counsellor of state, and was placed at the head of the army of the west. The restoration of tranquillity to the provinces torn by civil war was in a great degree effected by him. Shortly after he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Italian army. Towards the end of December he led his troops over the Mincio and

conquered the Austrians, passed the Adige in 1801, took possession of Vicenza and Roveredo, and concluded an armistice at Treviso with the Austrian general Bellegarde, by which several fortified places in Italy were surrendered to the French troops. When peace recalled him to the council of state, towards the end of November 1802, he laid before the legislative body for confirmation the treaty of peace with the court of Naples. The next year he went as ambassador to the court of Constantinople. He prevailed there at first over the English party, and received from the Turkish ministry the highest marks of honour; but, when new dissensions arose between the two powers, he left Turkey. During his absence he was appointed marshal of the empire; and, at the end of 1806, Napoleon appointed him governor-general of the Hanseatic towns, and soon after commander of the troops in Swedish Pomerania, against the king of Sweden. This monarch invited the marshal to a personal interview, in which he endeavoured to convert him to the cause of Louis XVIII. Brune refused every proposal. However, he drew upon himself the indignation of Napoleon by his conduct in this interview, and also by favouring the English contraband trade in Hamburg. He was in consequence recalled, and suffered to remain without employment.

After the revolution of 1814 he recognised Louis XVIII., and received the cross of Louis, but no appointment. This was the cause of his declaring himself for Napoleon immediately upon his return. He received the chief command of an important army in the south of France, and was made a peer. When circumstances changed again, he delayed a long time before he gave up Toulon, which was in his possession in 1815, to the troops of Louis XVIII., and sent in his resignation to the king. This circumstance, and the severities exercised by his command, might well have excited against him the rage of the people. While retiring from Toulon to Paris, he was recognised at Avignon by the people, who favoured the king, and they immediately collected together about the hotel where he had entered. The excited populace were heated still more when a report was spread among them that Brune was the murderer of the princess Lamballe. The marshal was permitted, however, to go away quietly. But scarcely had his carriage left the city before a mob of the rabble which had followed compelled the driver to turn back to the hotel. When the marshal had alighted and retired with his two adjutants to his former chamber, the doors of the house were locked. The insurgents had in the mean time gained a powerful accession to their numbers, and with loud shouts demanded the death of the marshal. In vain did the prefect and the mayor strive to defend him (as there were no troops in the city) for the space of four hours and a half, at the peril of their lives. The door was at last broken open, a crowd of murderers rushed into the chamber, and the unhappy marshal fell under a shower of balls, after a fruitless attempt to defend himself and justify his conduct. His body was exposed to the most shameful insults, and then dragged from the hotel to the bridge over the Rhone, from which it was thrown into the river.

**BRUNEHILD**, or **BRUNICHILD**, a Visigothic princess, of powerful mind, enterprising spirit, heroic resolution, deep political knowledge, and unrestrained ambition. She involved her husband in a



war with his brother Chilperic, in the course of which he was murdered, A. D. 575; but she continued to live and reign till 613, when she fell into the hands of Clothaire II., king of Soissons, who put her to a most terrible death, as having been the murderess of ten kings and royal princes.

**BRUNELLESCHI, PHILIP.**—This distinguished architect was born in 1377 at Florence, and early devoted himself to the study of the works of Dante, to natural philosophy and perspective, the rules of which were then scarcely known. He formed various figures, and invented ingenious machines. He devoted himself particularly, however, to architecture, and learned the art of drawing, to make his architectural plans,—statuary, to adorn them,—and mechanics, that he might be able to raise the materials. He was also profoundly versed in mathematics and geometry. He is said to have drawn views of the finest monuments in Florence in perspective—an art which then excited much astonishment. This knowledge prepared him for bold and difficult undertakings, and gained him the name of the restorer of architecture. As a statuary he was much indebted to his intimate connection with Donatello, who was then very young, but very intelligent. Both went to Rome, and it was there that he conceived the idea of restoring architecture to the principles of the Greeks and Romans. When the architects assembled in 1407, at Florence, to consult upon the building of the dome of the cathedral, the plan which Brunelleschi proposed received but little attention, and he went back to Rome. It was found necessary, however, to have recourse to him, as the undertaking far surpassed the powers of the other architects. He engaged to erect a dome, which by its own weight, and by the strong connection of its parts, should hang suspended. This proposal seemed so wonderful that the author was regarded as insane. As all other plans, however, failed to answer the expectations of the magistrates, he was again recalled, and ordered to explain the mode in which he intended to execute his plan. This he refused to do, but built two small chapels according to his new system, upon which the charge of erecting the dome was committed to him. As he observed that the higher the building was raised the more time was lost in going up and down, he erected some small lodgings on the dome itself, and by that means saved the labourers the time thus spent. Aided only by his own genius, he accomplished the work, which remains one of the boldest creations of the human mind. But the ingenious lantern, which formed the upper part of the dome, was not finished when he died, in 1444, aged sixty-seven. It was completed, however, according to his first design. No monument of ancient architecture is more noble than this wonderful building. Only the dome of St. Peter's at Rome, which was built since, excels it in height, but is inferior to it in lightness and grandeur of style. Michael Angelo said it was difficult to imitate Brunelleschi, and impossible to excel him.

**BRUNET, JAMES CHARLES**, bookseller at Paris, who began his bibliographical career by the preparation of several auction catalogues, of which the most interesting is that of the count d'Ourches, published at Paris in 1811, and of a supplementary volume to Cailleau's and Duclos's "Dictionnaire Bibliographique." In 1810 was published the first edition of his "Manuel du Libraire et de l'Amateur de Livres,"

which gained such universal applause that, in 1814, a second, and, in 1820, a third edition, of four volumes each were demanded. This work showed him the worthy successor of the meritorious Debure. An attempt to unite the plan of his work with the considerations which must guide the man of learning in his studies and labours is contained in the "Bibliographical Lexicon" by Ebert, since published.

**BRUNO THE GREAT**, archbishop of Cologne and duke of Lorraine, third son of Henry the Fowler, and the brother of the emperor Otho I. He had a great share in the events of his time, and surpassed all the contemporary bishops in talents and knowledge. A numerous train of learned men from all countries, even from Greece, continually followed him, and his excellent example was imitated by many prelates. He died at Rheims in 965. Commentaries on the five book of Moses and the biographies of several saints are ascribed to him.

**BRUNO, ST.**—Among several individuals of this name, the most celebrated is the one who established the order of Carthusian monks. He was born at Cologne, about 1030, of an old and noble family, which still flourished in the middle of the eighteenth century, was educated in the school of the collegiate church of St. Cunibert, in which also he afterwards received a canonship, and then studied at Rheims, where he distinguished himself to such a degree that Gervaise the bishop appointed him to superintend all the schools of the district. He attracted many distinguished scholars, and among others Odo, afterwards Pope Urban II. The immorality of his times induced him to go into solitude, and he retired, with six friends of the same disposition, to the residence of St. Hugo, bishop of Grenoble, who, in 1084, led them to a desert four or five leagues distant from the city called *Chartreuse*, whence the order of monks received its name. Here in a narrow valley, overshadowed by two steep rocks covered with snow and thorns, Bruno and his companions built an oratory, and small separate cells to dwell in, and founded in 1086 one of the severest orders of monks. In the mean time Urban II. became pope, and, in 1089, invited his former instructor to his court. Bruno reluctantly obeyed, but refused every spiritual dignity, and, in 1094, received permission to found a second Carthusian establishment in the solitude of della Torre, in Calabria. Here he lived in his former mode, ruled his new colony with wisdom, and died in the arms of his scholars, A. D. 1101. Leo X., in 1514, permitted the Carthusians to celebrate a mass in honour of him; and Gregory XV., in 1623, extended it to the whole catholic church.

**BRUNO, or BRUNI of Arezzo**, whence his name *Aretino* (Aretinus), was one of the most celebrated of the literati at the period of the revival of classic literature in Italy. He was born in 1370, and in his childhood was excited by the character of Petrarch to the pursuit of those studies to which he consecrated his life. He first studied law at Florence and Ravenna, but the arrival of Emanuel Chrysoloras at Florence gave him a decided turn for classical learning. He afterwards filled many offices in the Roman catholic church, and accompanied Pope John XXIII. to Constance, where the latter was deposed, and Bruno escaped to Florence. Here he wrote his "Florentine History," received in consequence the rights of citizenship, and afterwards, by favour of the Medici, became secretary to the republic



In this important post he died, A. D. 1444. Florence and Arezzo vied with each other in honouring his memory by splendid obsequies and monuments. The merits of Bruno in spreading and advancing the study of Greek literature consist particularly in his literal Latin translations of the classics; for instance, the writings of Aristotle, the orations of Demosthenes, the biographies of Plutarch, &c. The other works on which his fame rests are his "Florentine History," also a history of his times, from 1738 to 1440, and his speeches. His collection of letters also is valuable.

BRUNO, GIORDANO, a philosopher of the sixteenth century, distinguished by the originality and poetical boldness of his speculations. He was born at Nola, in the Neapolitan territory, entered the order of Dominicans, took refuge probably from the persecutions which he drew upon himself by his religious doubts and his satires on the life of the monks at Geneva in 1582, where, however, he was soon persecuted by the Calvinists for his paradoxes and his violence. He stood forth in 1583, at Paris, as the antagonist of the Aristotelian philosophy, and as teacher of the *ars Lulliana*. Here he found many opponents, went to London, returned to Paris, and, from 1586 to 1588, taught his philosophy at Wittenberg. Why he left Wittenberg is not known, but it is certain that he went in 1588 to Helmstadt, and he seems to have visited Prague before that year. Protected by Duke Julius of Wolfenbüttel, he remained in Helmstadt till his protector died in 1589. He was then engaged at Frankfurt on the Maine with the publication of some works, but left this city also in 1592, and returned (it is not known for what purpose) to Italy. He remained for some time in Padua in tranquillity, until the inquisition of Venice arrested him in 1798, and transferred him to Rome. After an imprisonment of two years, that he might have opportunity to retract his doctrines, he was burnt, February 16th, 1600, for apostasy, heresy, and violation of his monastic vows. He suffered death, which he might have averted even eight days before by a recantation, with fortitude. Whilst his violent attacks on the prevailing doctrines of the Aristotelian philosophy, and on the narrow-minded Aristotelians themselves, every where created him enemies, his rashness and pride threw him into the hands of his executioners. His philosophical writings, which have become very rare, display a classical cultivation of mind, a deep insight into the spirit of ancient philosophy, wit, and satire, as well as a profound knowledge of mathematics and natural philosophy. Most of them were published between 1584 and 1591, as appears from the enumeration of the oldest editions in the "Bibliographical Lexicon" of Ebert. In 1584 appeared at Paris his "Spaccio della Bestia Trionfante" (a moral allegory, with many satirical strokes on his own times), also his work "De la Causa, Principio et Uno," besides "De l'Infinito, Universo, et Mondi." The former contains the foundation, the latter the application, of metaphysics to the natural world. The doctrine is a pure Pantheism, connected with truly dignified notions of God—a more complete Pantheistical system than had been previously exhibited, and which, since his time, Spinoza only, who like Descartes borrowed his ideas, has carried to a greater perfection. The notion that God is the soul of the universe, and the world endowed with organization and life, might

have been forgiven by his contemporaries; but his inference that the world is infinite and immeasurable and his doctrine of the plurality of the worlds, at the moment when the new system of Copernicus was attacked from all quarters, could not but be looked upon as a crime.

His writings are mostly in the form of dialogues, without any methodical order. His language is a strange mixture of Italian and Latin. His style is violent and fiery. The originality and loftiness of his ideas take a powerful hold on those who can understand him. His logical writings, in which he boldly and skilfully applies Raymond Lully's art of topical memory, are more obscure and less interesting. His belief in magic and astrology, notwithstanding his enlightened views of the nature of things, is to be attributed to the spirit of his age. He has also written poems, "Heroici Furori," and, among others, a comedy, "Il Candelajo." The most eminent philosophers since his time have borrowed much from him. Among recent writers, Schelling resembles him the most in his metaphysics and his philosophical views of nature, and has given his name to one of his philosophical writings.

BRUNSWICK, CHARLES WILLIAM FERDINAND, DUKE OF.—This distinguished military leader was the son of the reigning Duke Charles of Brunswick and a sister of Frederick the Great. His ambition was early kindled by the achievements of Frederic II., and the seven years' war afforded him an excellent opportunity of cultivating his military talents. He commanded the Brunswick troops in the allied army; and, in the fatal battle at Hastenbeck, July 28th, 1757, in which he recaptured a battery that had been taken by the French in the centre of the allied army, he showed (such was the expression of Frederick) that nature had destined him for a hero. He took the most active part in all the enterprises of his uncle Ferdinand; and Frederic's esteem for him continued to increase, as appears from his "History of the Seven Years' War," and his "Ode on the Hereditary Prince of Brunswick." In 1764 he married the princess Augusta of England. Having early become acquainted with the real situation of his native country, and drawn salutary instruction from the constant embarrassments of his father, before he entered upon the government, he practised the greatest economy, living mostly retired from public business, and devoted to the arts and sciences. After the death of his father in 1780, he entered upon the government with zeal and activity. Anxious above all for the improvement of the finances, he diminished his household, discharged the debts of the state, encouraged agriculture, extended the liberty of commerce, undertook or assisted in the erection of considerable buildings, and, by causing Italian operas, masquerades, &c., to be exhibited gratis, provided also for the amusement of the public. Yet, with the best intentions, he was often unsuccessful. This was the case with his plans for the improvement of public education. He invited men of learning into the country at great expense, but, the projected reformation having met with innumerable obstacles, they became a burden to the state. In 1787 he was obliged to place himself at the head of a Prussian army for the support of the stadtholder of Holland. The facility with which this campaign was terminated procured the duke more reputation than he perhaps deserved,



and high expectations were entertained of him when the wars of the French revolution broke out. The duke received the chief command of the Austrian and Prussian army, and issued at Coblenz, July 15, 1792, the celebrated manifesto drawn up in a very harsh and haughty style by a Frenchman, De Limon. It certainly did more injury to the allied forces than a hostile army could have done. It inflamed the French nation almost to fury against the insolent conquerors, who intended "to make every city that dared to resist level with the ground, and to cut their way to Paris." The emperor Francis approved of it, and so did the king of Prussia; but the duke considered the expressions too strong. The severest passages were expunged, but its tone was still very insolent. The duke designed to press forward from Lorraine to Paris, to cut off its supplies, and thus to force it to surrender by famine. In August 1792 Longwy was taken, and in September Verdun. But in Champagne, a country of itself unproductive, the transport of provisions for the army from the frontiers was rendered difficult by mountains and forests. Dumouriez was encamped in the vicinity of St. Menehould, and skirmishes took place daily; but Dumouriez, not willing to hazard the fate of France, and foreseeing that the Germans would be forced to retreat by want and disease, avoided a decisive action, notwithstanding the efforts of the enemy to provoke him to it. The Germans were, therefore, obliged to conclude an armistice, and to evacuate Champagne. Custines took Worms and Spire during this retreat, and also captured the fortress of Mentz, and soon afterwards Frankfort, which latter city, however, was retaken by the Prussians and Hessians. The endeavours of the Germans, therefore, were principally directed to the recapture of those places. To this end the duke, in conjunction with the Austrians, opened the campaign on the Upper Rhine in 1793, took the fortress of Koningstein, conquered Mentz, and prepared to attack the strong fortress of Landau, then in the power of the French. The French, on the other hand, made a general attack on the duke and Wurmser, from Strasburg to Saarbruck. On that day the duke had a sanguinary engagement with Moreau, in the vicinity of Pirmasens, a town belonging to the landgraviate of Hesse-Darmstadt. The French were driven from their camp near the village of Hornbach, as far as to the Saar. A month later, the duke, having formed a union with Wurmser, succeeded in his attack on the lines of Weissenburg, and his attempt to draw nearer to Landau. In order to gain another strong point of support, he ventured to make an assault upon the mountain-fortress of Bitsch, which is the key of the Vosges, as the road from Landau, Pirmasens, Weissenburg, and Strasburg unite at that place. This attempt miscarried. However, he defeated a division of the army of the Moselle, at Lautern, which was pressing through the mountains, under the command of Hoche, with the intention of relieving Landau. But the daily attacks of Hoche and Pichegru, without regard to the sacrifice of men, and the successful attempt of the latter to break the Austrian lines near Froschweiler, forced the Austrians to retreat beyond the Rhine, and occasioned the retreat of the duke also. As some difficulties had already risen between Austria and Prussia, he laid down the chief command of the army in the beginning of the year 1794

The duke continued to labour for the welfare of his country until the fatal year 1806. Although he was now of such an age that he might have retired without reproach from public life, yet he assumed burdens beyond his powers. At the beginning of the year 1806, commissioned by the king of Prussia, he made a journey to Petersburg relative to the war that soon broke out with France. He was then placed at the head of the Prussian army. But his physical strength was not equal to his moral energy, as was proved by the battles of Jena and Auerstadt. He was mortally wounded, and closed his life at Ottensen, near Altona, on the 10th of November, 1836. As a civil ruler, he was distinguished for good intentions; yet the want of consistency, which is evident in most actions of his life, may have been the cause of the many failures of his benevolent purposes. The duke's subjects were also offended by his foreign partialities, particularly his fatal inclination for the loyal part of the French nation, which had been instilled into him by Frederic II.

**BRUNSWICK, FERDINAND, DUKE OF**, born at Brunswick, on the 11th of January 1721. He was the fourth son of Duke Ferdinand Albert, and was educated for the military profession. In 1739 he entered into the Prussian service, was engaged in the Silesian wars, and became one of the most eminent generals in the seven years' war. He commanded the allied army in Westphalia, where, always opposed to superior forces, he displayed superior talents. He drove the French from Lower Saxony, Hesse, and Westphalia, and was victorious in the two great battles of Crefeld and Minden. After the peace he resigned his commission, on account of a misunderstanding between him and the king. From that time he lived at Brunswick, the patron of art and literature. He died in 1792.

**BRUNSWICK, FREDERICK WILLIAM, DUKE OF**, fourth and youngest son of Duke Charles William Ferdinand of Brunswick. He was born in 1771, and received the same education with his second and third brothers, who were a few years older, till the military career to which he was destined, gave his studies a particular direction. He was loved by his father with great tenderness, but very strictly treated. In 1786 he was appointed by the king of Prussia successor of his uncle, Frederic Augustus, duke of Oels and Branstadt. He then went to Lausanne, remained two years in Switzerland, and, upon his return, was made captain in a Prussian regiment of foot. During the war against France, in 1792 and the following year, he fought in the Prussian armies, and was twice wounded. After the peace of Basle, he received a regiment, and, in 1804, married the princess Maria Elizabeth Wilhelmina of Baden. The offspring of this marriage were two princesses, born in 1804 and 1806. In 1806 he took part in the war against France, with all the fire which the oppression of Germany and his father's unhappy fate had kindled in him. He finally joined the corps of Blucher, and was made prisoner with him at Lubeck. By the death of his eldest brother, the hereditary prince, who died in September of the same year without leaving any children, and by an agreement adjusted by his father between him and his elder brothers, who, on account of their blindness, were unfit to govern, and were unmarried, he would have succeeded his father in the government of Brunswick, had not the peace of Tilsit and Napo-



leon's will prevented. After that time he lived at Bruchsal, where in April 1808 his wife died.

In 1809, at the breaking out of the war between Austria and France, he raised a body of volunteers in Bohemia. Schill had already perished in Stralsund, when the duke made an invasion into Saxony. He was, however, compelled by the king of Westphalia to evacuate Dresden and Leipsic, with his black hussars. The duke in conjunction with the Austrian general von Ende forced his way from Dresden to Franconia, whither the Austrians under Kienmayer had penetrated from Bohemia. After the armistice of Znaim, the Austrians again evacuated Dresden, which they had occupied for the second time, and retreated behind the frontiers of Bohemia. But the duke, renouncing his alliance with the emperor of Austria, advanced with his corps consisting of 1500 men, among whom were 700 horse from Altenburg, towards Leipsic. After a slight skirmish with the garrison there he continued his march to Halle, where he arrived July 27, and immediately pushed on to Halberstadt. The Westphalian colonel Wellingerode, with the fifth regiment of infantry, had entered the place the same morning. Although this regiment made a gallant resistance, it was overpowered and its commander taken prisoner. The duke then proceeded to Brunswick, his native city, where he bivouacked on the ramparts. He did not allow himself any rest, for he was closely pursued on all sides: the Westphalian general Reubel assembled 4000 men of his division at Ohof in the vicinity of Brunswick; General Gratien with a Dutch division had set out from Erfurt; and the Danish general Ewald, marching from Gluckstadt into the territories of Hanover, crossed the Elbe, in order to cover that river. On the first of August, 1809, Reubel met the duke not far from Brunswick, near the village of Oelper, and an action ensued, in which a corps of 4000 men not only retreated before 1500, but also opened to them the only way by which they could escape. The following day the duke left Brunswick, and from the road he took it was conjectured that he would march towards Celle, whither he was pursued, therefore, by the Westphalian troops. Instead however of doing this, he took his way through Hanover immediately to Nienburg, crossed the Weser, and, having destroyed the bridges behind him, marched down the river, and hastened his march upon the left bank of the Weser, while part of his corps to make a demonstration turned towards Bremen. Here the black hussars entered and occupied the gates, but on the following day continued their march. Meantime the duke advanced through the territory of Oldenburg. He passed the night of the 5th of August at Delmenhorst, and appeared to be directing his course to East Friesland, in order to embark there. But, contrary to expectation, he crossed at Huntebrück the small river Hunte, which falls into the Weser, seized the merchant ships which were lying at Elsfleth, principally unloaded, embarked his troops in the night of the 6th, leaving behind the horses, and procuring in that country which is inhabited by seamen the necessary sailors by force. On the 7th in the morning the duke himself, having the English flag hoisted, set sail, and, on the 8th, landed at Heligoland, whence he sailed on the 11th, with his corps, for England. In England the duke was received with great distinction. His corps immediately

entered the English service, and was afterwards employed in Portugal and Spain. The parliament granted him a pension of 6000*l.* until he returned to his hereditary dominions. He was a prince of an uncommonly open character. In his hereditary states, he acted with the best intentions, but his frequent errors disappointed the great expectations which had been formed of him, and narrow-minded counsellors contributed to lead him astray. He wished to sow and reap at the same time. His great preparations caused such a profuse expenditure, in 1814 and 1815, that his finances were thrown into great disorder, and even the interest of the public debt was not paid. Thus he became unpopular as the sovereign of a country which had been prosperous under his father's sceptre. The events of 1815 called him again to arms, and he fell mortally wounded on the 16th of June 1815.

BRUNSWICK, M. J. LEOPOLD, PRINCE OF, a major-general in the Prussian service. He was the youngest son of Duke Charles of Brunswick, born at Wolfenbützel in 1752. He studied in Strasburg military science and other branches of knowledge, travelled through Italy under the care of Lessing, and entered the Prussian service in 1776, as commander of a regiment of foot at Frankfort on the Oder. In this city, where he resided after his return from the Bavarian war of succession in 1779, he gained universal esteem by his amiable character, his talents, and his zeal for literature. In 1780 Frankfort was preserved by his activity from an inundation which threatened to overthrow the dikes and deluge the suburbs, and he displayed the same vigilance on the occasion of several conflagrations, with which that city was afflicted. He visited the poor in their most miserable haunts, and his life was devoted to works of benevolence. He fell a sacrifice to his humanity in the inundation of 1785, in which he was drowned while hastening to the assistance of the suburbs. The monuments that have been erected to him will bear witness to future generations of the esteem of his contemporaries.

BRUTUS, MARCUS JUNIUS.—This republican resembled in spirit, as well as in name, the expeller of Tarquin. He was at first an enemy of Pompey, who had slain his father in Galatia, but forgot his private enmity, and was reconciled to him, when he undertook the defence of freedom. He did not however assume any public station, and, after the unfortunate battle of Pharsalia, surrendered himself to Cæsar, who received him with the tenderest friendship, as he had always loved him and regarded him almost like his own son, because the mother of Brutus, the sister of the rigid Cato, had been the object of his affection. In the distribution of the offices of state the dictator appointed Brutus to the government of Macedonia. Notwithstanding these benefits, Brutus was the head of the conspiracy against Cæsar, deeming the sacrifice of private friendship necessary for the welfare of his country. He was led into the conspiracy by Cassius, who, impelled by hatred against Cæsar as well as by the love of freedom, sought at first by writing, and then by means of his wife Junia, sister of Brutus, to gain his favour; and, when he thought him prepared for the proposal, disclosed to him verbally the plan of a conspiracy against Cæsar, who was then aiming at the supreme power. Brutus agreed to the design, and his influence led many of the most distinguished Romans to



embrace it also. The result was that Cæsar was assassinated in the senate-house. In various public speeches Brutus explained the reasons for this deed, but he could not appease the dissatisfaction of the people, and retired with his party to the capitol. He soon after took courage, when the consul Cornelius Dolabella, and the prætor Cornelius Cinna, Cæsar's brother-in-law, declared themselves in his favour. But Antony, whom Brutus had generously spared, was reconciled to him only in appearance, and obtained his leave to read Cæsar's will to the people. By means of this instrument, Antony succeeded in exciting the popular indignation against the murderers of Cæsar, and they were compelled to flee from Rome.

Brutus went to Athens, and endeavoured to form a party there among the Roman nobility; he gained over also the troops in Macedonia. He then began to levy soldiers openly, which was the easier for him, as the remainder of Pompey's troops, since the defeat of their general, had been roving about in Thessaly. Hortensius, the governor of Macedonia, aided him; and he, thus master of all Greece and Macedonia, in a short time stood at the head of a powerful army. He went now to Asia and joined Cassius, whose efforts had been equally successful. In Rome, on the contrary, the triumphs prevailed. All the conspirators had been condemned, and the people had taken up arms against them. Brutus and Cassius, having with difficulty subdued the Lycians and Rhodians, returned to Europe to oppose the triumviri. The army passed over the Hellespont, and nineteen legions and 20,000 cavalry were assembled on the plains of Philippi, in Macedonia, whither also the triumvirs Antony and Octavianus marched with their legions. Although the Roman historians do not agree in their accounts of the battle of Philippi, so much as this appears certain, that Cassius was beaten by Antony, and caused himself to be killed by a slave,—that Brutus fought with greater success against the division of the army commanded by Octavianus, who was prevented by indisposition from conducting the battle in person,—that Brutus after the engagement took possession of an advantageous situation, where it was difficult for an attack to be made upon him,—that he was induced by the ardour of his soldiers to renew the contest, and was a second time unsuccessful. He was totally defeated, escaped with only a few friends, passed the night in a cave, and, as he saw his cause irretrievably ruined, ordered Stato, one of his confidants, to kill him. Stato refused a long time to perform the command; but, seeing Brutus resolved, he turned away his face and held his sword while Brutus fell upon it. Thus died Brutus in the forty-third year of his age.

**BRUYERE, JOHN DE LA**, an ingenious French writer, who was born in 1640. He was early in life appointed preceptor to one of the royal princes, and Louis XIV. granted him a pension for life. The work by which he is principally distinguished is his "Characters of Theophrastus." He died in 1696.

**BRYANT JACOB**.—This learned scholar and mythologist, was born at Plymouth in 1715. He received the rudiments of his education at Eton, and was afterwards placed at King's College Cambridge. In 1767, he published "Observations and Enquiries relating to Various Parts of Ancient History, containing Dissertations on the Wind Euroclydon, and on the Island Melite, together with an Account of

Egypt in its most Early State, and of the Shepherd Kings; wherein the Time of their coming, the Province which they particularly possessed, and on which the Israelites afterwards succeeded, is endeavoured to be stated. The Whole calculated to throw Light on the History of that Ancient Kingdom, as well as on the Histories of the Assyrians, Chaldeans, Babylonians, Edomites and other Nations." His next communication to the public, and the work on which his character as a scholar must ultimately rest, was his "New System or Analysis of Ancient Mythology; wherein an Attempt is made to divest Tradition of Fable, and to reduce Truth to its Original Purity." Of this publication the first and second volumes came forth together, in 1774, and the third followed two years after. It being his professed design to present a history of the Babylonians, Chaldeans, Egyptians, Canaanites, Helladians, Ionians, Leleges, Dorians, Pelasgi, and other ancient nations, his researches for this purpose were not only of necessity recondite, but in many instances uncertain; but, to facilitate his passage through the mighty labyrinth which led to his primary object, he not only availed himself of the scattered fragments of ancient history wherever he could find them, but also of a variety of etymological aids.

Mr. Bryant continued to write for the press for more than half a century, during which time he published a great many learned works. In forming a general estimate of Mr. Bryant's literary character, it will be found that, as a classical scholar, he had few equals; his acquaintance with history and the topics of general information was of very uncommon extent; but from the want of oriental literature, and the stricter sciences, he yielded too often to the impulses of a vigorous fancy. It will, notwithstanding, be found from repeated perusals of his writings that he deservedly ranks amongst the first men of his age, and from having consecrated his great talents and acquisitions to the service of religion, will be ever entitled to the veneration of mankind. In his ordinary habits of life Mr. Bryant was remarkable for his temperance, and though his time and studies were principally devoted to literature and the pursuit of truth, yet his conversation with those he received and conversed with was uncommonly sprightly, as he never failed to mix entertaining anecdote with instruction. In his person he was particularly neat, and in his deportment courteous. His liberality was often conspicuous, and the spirit of religion diffused itself through all his actions. He died, after a long residence at Cypenham, near Windsor, Nov. 14, 1804, of a mortification in his leg, occasioned by a hurt from the tilting of a chair in reaching down a book from its shelf. At his own desire, Mr. Bryant was interred in his parish church, beneath the seat he had occupied for many years.

**BRYDONE, PATRICK**.—This amusing traveller was born in Scotland in 1741. His first work, entitled "Travels into Sicily and Malta," is still deservedly popular. On his return to this country he was appointed comptroller of the stamp office, and wrote a number of papers in the "Transactions of the Royal Society." He died in 1819.

**BUCER, MARTIN**, a celebrated German reformer, who was born in 1491. When but seven years old he entered the order of St. Dominic, and was shortly after sent to Heidelberg to study philosophy. While there he obtained possession of some



tracts published by Martin Luther, and he then began to entertain doubts respecting the catholic creed. His great learning, and eloquence, and his free censure of the vices of the times, recommended him to Frederick the elector palatine, who made him one of his chaplains. After some conferences with Luther, at Heidelberg, in 1521, he adopted most of his religious opinions, particularly those with regard to justifica-



tion. However, in 1532, he gave the preference to the sentiments of Zuinglius, but used his utmost endeavours to re-unite the two parties. He is considered one of the first authors of the reformation at Strasburg, where he taught divinity for twenty years, and was one of the ministers of the town. He assisted at many conferences respecting religion; and in 1548 was sent for to Augsburg, to sign that agreement betwixt the protestants and papists which was called the "Interim." His warm opposition to this project exposed him to many difficulties and hardships, the news of which reaching England, where his fame had already arrived, Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, gave him an invitation to come over, which he readily accepted; and in 1549 a handsome apartment was assigned him in the university of Cambridge, and a salary to teach theology. King Edward VI. had a very great regard for him; and being told that he was very sensible of the cold of this climate, and suffered much for want of a German stove, he sent him a hundred crowns to purchase one. He died of a complication of disorders, in 1551, and was buried at Cambridge, in St. Mary's church, with great funeral pomp. Five years after, in the reign of Queen Mary, his body was dug up and publicly burnt, and his tomb demolished; but it was afterwards rebuilt by order of Queen Elizabeth.

BUCH, LEOPOLD VON, one of the most distinguished geologists of Germany, born in 1777. He studied the structure of the earth, by personal observation, for more than thirty years, in his travels through all the provinces of Germany, through Scandinavia to the North Cape, through parts of Great Britain, France, Italy, and the Canaries. In the possession of an independent fortune, he set out every spring from Berlin, where he usually passed the winter, on his scientific travels. He was the first geologist who clearly explained the different

volcanic phenomena, particularly their effects on the elevation of the surface and the nature of the soil. He divided volcanoes into central volcanoes and volcanic chains. The latter appeared to him to follow the direction of great clefts in the earth, which, in turn, correspond with the direction of the primitive mountains. His central volcanoes were Etna, the isles of Lipari, Iceland, the Azores, the Canaries, &c. The result of his geological labours are contained in his "Geognostical Observations on Travels through Germany and Italy," published in 1802, and his "Physical Description of the Canaries." He was frequently accompanied by the Norwegian botanist Christian Smith, who, some years later, fell among the victims of the unhappy expedition of Captain Tuckey in the Congo river.

BUCHAN, WILLIAM, a celebrated medical writer, who was born in the year 1729, and early in life commenced his studies at Edinburgh. Having selected the medical profession for his future employment, he attended the lectures of the several professors necessary to qualify him for practice. After having passed a period of not less than nine years at the university, he settled in practice at Sheffield, in Yorkshire. He was soon afterwards elected physician to a large branch of the foundling hospital then established at Ackworth. In the course of two years he reduced the annual number of deaths among the children from one half to one in fifteen; and, by the establishment of due regulations for the preservation of health, greatly diminished the previously burdensome expense of medical attendance. In this situation he derived from experience that knowledge of the complaints, and of the general treatment of children, which was afterwards published in "The Domestic Medicine," and in the "Advice to Mothers"—works which, considering their very general diffusion, have no doubt tended to ameliorate the treatment of children, and consequently to improve the constitutions of the present generation. When that institution was dissolved, in consequence of parliament withdrawing their support from it, Dr. Buchan returned to Edinburgh, where he became a fellow of the royal college of physicians, and settled in the practice of his profession.

About this period the work entitled "Domestic Medicine" was first published, with the view of laying open the science of medicine, and rendering it familiar to the comprehension of mankind in general. In this plan he was encouraged by Dr. Gregory, who was of opinion that to render medicine generally intelligible was the only means of putting an end to the impostures of quackery. The work was also patronized by, and dedicated to, Sir John Pringle, then president of the royal society, and a distant relation of the author. This work has had a degree of success unequalled by any other medical book in the English language. It has also been translated into every European language. On its appearing in Russian, the late empress Catharine transmitted to the author a large and elegant medalion of gold, accompanied by a letter expressive of her sentiments of the utility of his exertions towards promoting the welfare of mankind in general. On the death of Dr. Ferguson, the celebrated lecturer on natural philosophy, which took place in 1775, he bequeathed the whole of his valuable apparatus to Dr. Buchan. Unwilling that this collection should



remain unemployed, he, in conjunction with his son, delivered several courses of lectures at Edinburgh with great success, and, on his removing to London, he disposed of this apparatus to Dr. Lettsom.

The doctor had a prepossessing exterior, and was of a mild, humane, and benevolent disposition, which not only embraced all the human race, but was extended to the whole of the animal creation. The immediate cause of his death, of the approach of which he was sensible, and which he met with the same gentleness and equanimity which characterized every action of his life, appeared to be an accumulation of water in the chest. He died in February, 1805, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and is buried in the cloisters of Westminster Abbey.

**BUCHANAN, GEORGE.**—This eminent poet and historian was born in Scotland in 1506. On account of the poverty of his parents, he was educated at the expense of his uncle James Heriot, who sent him to Paris in 1520. There he closely applied himself to his studies, but the death of his uncle and his want of health caused him to return to his own country in about two years. Shortly after he commenced studying at St. Andrew's; and, in 1532, he became tutor or companion to the young earl of Cassilis, with whom he remained five years. While in the service of this nobleman he obtained the notice of James V., who appointed him tutor to his natural son, afterwards the celebrated regent, earl of Murray. His satires against the monks exposed him to the vengeance of the clergy, and he was imprisoned for heresy; but, contriving to escape, he withdrew to Bourdeaux, where he taught three years, and composed his tragedies of "Baptistes" and "Jepthes," and his translations of the "Medea" and "Alcestes" of Euripides. In 1543 he quitted Bourdeaux on ac-



count of the pestilence, and became, for a while, domestic tutor to the celebrated Montaigne, who records the fact in his essays. In 1544 he went to Paris, and, for some time, taught in the college of Bourbon. In 1547 he accompanied his friend Govea to Portugal. But he had not been there a twelve-month before Govea died, and, the freedom of Buchanan's opinions giving offence, he was thrown into prison, and while there began his translations of the psalms into Latin verse. He obtained his liberty in 1551; and after spending four years at

Paris, as tutor to the son of the marshal de Brissac, he returned to Scotland, where he openly embraced protestantism, yet was well received at court, and assisted the queen in her studies. He was also employed in regulating the universities, and was made principal of St. Leonard's College, St. Andrew's. He even obtained a pension from Mary, which did not however prevent him from connecting himself with the party of Murray. Though a layman, he was made in 1567 moderator of the general assembly, which appointed him preceptor to James VI., who acquired under his tuition the scholastic knowledge on which he so much prided himself in after life. It is said that Buchanan, on being subsequently told that he had made the king a pedant, replied that "it was the best he could make of him."

He next accompanied Murray to England, in order to prefer charges against Mary, and, in 1571, published his "*Detectio Mariæ Reginae*," a virulent attack upon the character and conduct of that unhappy queen; and, although his patron Murray had been assassinated in 1570, he continued in favour with the prevalent party, who made him one of the lords of the council and lord of the privy seal. He likewise received a pension of 100*l.* per annum from Queen Elizabeth.

In 1579 he published his celebrated "*De Jure Regni*," a work which will ever rank him among the defenders of the rights of the people to judge of the conduct of their governors. He spent the last twelve or thirteen years of his life in composing his great work, entitled "*Rerum Scotticarum Historia*," which was published at Edinburgh, in 1582. He died the same year, at the age of seventy-six, in very poor circumstances; and the city of Edinburgh interred him at the public expense.

The moral character of Buchanan has been the subject of much obloquy with his enemies; and the charge of early licentiousness seems countenanced by several of his poems. Conscious of his great abilities, he was also querulous and discontented with his circumstances, and by no means scrupulous in his attempts to mend them, added to which, his temper was harsh and unamiable, and his conduct as a party man exceedingly virulent. As a writer, he has obtained great applause from all parties; and as a Latin poet, in particular, he stands among the first of his age. As a historian he is considered to have united the beauties of Livy and Sallust, as to style; but he discovered a great want of judgment and investigative spirit, taking up all the tales of the chronicles as he found them, and affording to their legendary absurdities the currency of his own eloquent embellishment.

Buchanan has received great praise from Mr. Crawford, who, in his "*History of the house of Este*," says that he not only excelled all that went before him in his own country, but scarce had his equal in that learned age in which he lived. He spent the first flame and rage of his fancy in poetry, in which he did imitate Virgil in heroics, Ovid in elegiacs, Lucretius in philosophy, Seneca in tragedies, Martial in epigrams, Horace and Juvenal in satires. He copied after these great masters so perfectly that nothing ever approached nearer the original; and his immortal "*Paraphrase on the Psalms*" doth show that neither the constraint of a limited matter, the darkness of expression, nor the frequent return of the same or the like phrases, could confine or



exhaust that vast genius. At last, in his old age, when his thoughts were purified by long reflection and business, and a true judgment came in the room of one of the richest fancies that ever was, he wrote our history with such beauty of style, easiness of expression, and exactness in all its parts, that no service or honour could have been done the nation like it, had he ended so noble a work as he begun, and only carried it on till James V.'s death. But being unhappily engaged in a faction, and resentment working violently upon him, he suffered himself to be so strangely biassed that, in the relations he gives of many of the transactions of his own time, he may rather pass for a satirist than a historian."

**BUCKINCK, ARNOLD.**—This artist acquired a considerable degree of celebrity from having been the first artist who engraved geographical maps on copper, and he succeeded in bringing this art to great perfection. He was assisted by Schweynheym, who had learned the art of printing from the original inventors; and, wishing to publish an edition of Ptolemy, he employed Buckinck to engrave the maps on copper. This was published at Rome in 1478. He was afterwards employed in several other works, and died at Rome at a very advanced age.

**BUCKINGHAM, GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF.**—This unworthy favourite of James I. and Charles I. of England, was born in 1592, at Brookesby in Leicestershire. He was descended from an ancient family, which settled at Brookesby, in the time of William the Conqueror. Nature had bestowed on him great personal beauty, ease, and grace; and by means of these qualities he so effectually won the affections of James I., that, in less than two years, he was made a knight, a gentleman of the bed-chamber, baron, viscount, marquis of Buckingham, lord high-admiral, lord warden of the cinque ports, &c., and, at last, dispenser of all the honours, offices, favours, and revenues of the three kingdoms, according to the dictates of his ambition, his cupidity, and his caprice. The nation was indignant at seeing merit undervalued, the people trampled upon, the nobility humbled, the crown impoverished and degraded, to elevate and enrich a weak and insolent favourite. Buckingham desired to remove the earl of Bristol, an able and virtuous minister, from office. Bristol was then negotiating the marriage of a Spanish princess with the prince of Wales, afterwards Charles I. The design of Buckingham was, not only to reconcile to himself the prince, against whom he had lifted his hand in a fit of passion, but also to make him dependent upon himself, that he might secure the continuance of his power, in case of the death of James. He therefore inspired the young prince with the romantic idea of going to Madrid himself and removing all the difficulties of negotiation by his presence. The king's consent to this measure was gained in an hour of weakness, and, though he was long angry on this account with Buckingham, he soon after made him a duke.

The event was what James had anticipated. While the young prince delighted the whole family and indeed the whole nation by the gentleness and modesty of his manners, Buckingham, who accompanied him, offended them by his arrogance and licentiousness. He attained his purpose—the negotiation, which was far advanced by means of Bristol, was broken off; and, that no one else might afterwards complete it

with success, he indulged himself in the grossest insults against the Spanish ministry, speedily left the kingdom with the prince, deceived James by false reports, and instigated the parliament to declare that, instead of forming a connection with Spain, it was necessary to make war against it, which was accordingly done by James. But the house of commons peremptorily refused the requisite supplies, although they had consented to the war. Buckingham connected himself with the puritan party, and formed the project of abolishing the episcopal dignity, selling the possessions of the church, and continuing the war with the money raised in this way. In the midst of these disorders of the kingdom the king died. He had succeeded, indeed, in concluding a treaty for the marriage of his son with Henrietta of France, but had the grief of seeing an English army, which was intended to recover the hereditary dominions of his son-in-law, the unhappy elector palatine Frederic V., ruined by mismanagement.

After the death of James Buckingham continued to be the arbitrary minister of Charles I.; but the time had now come for the fulfilment of the prophecy of his former king. After having been declared the saviour of the prince and the nation, in the house of commons of the last parliament, Buckingham was declared, by the new one, a seducer of the king, a traitor to the liberty of his country, and a public enemy. This took place during a war which required more than ever the fullest harmony with the house of commons. Hence the dissolution of two parliaments the imprisonment of the members who had been most distinguished for their zeal, illegal taxes and forced loans, instead of supplies granted by parliament, the arbitrary imprisonment of those who refused to pay them, in short, every thing that could conspire to bring a virtuous king to the most fearful end. But Buckingham, who had learned by his attempt on Cadiz that he was unequal to a war against Spain, did not hesitate to engage in a war against France. He had gone to Paris to solemnize, in the name of the king, his marriage with the daughter of Henry IV. Here he is said to have raised his eyes to the queen of France. As this princess dismissed him with indulgence rather than indignation, he desired to return to the French court as English ambassador. His rashness, however, did not remain unobserved; and Louis XIII. wrote to him to forbid his cherishing the thought of this journey. In order to avenge himself for this prohibition, Buckingham engaged with the protestants of Rochelle in a war against France. This enterprise, and the assault of the island of Rhé, were worse conducted than the attempt on Cadiz. After having excited the people of Rochelle to a sedition, only to deliver them to the vengeance of Richelieu, and after having sacrificed a third of the British army, he returned to England, despised and execrated as much by his fellow-citizens as by his enemies. Pecuniary necessity compelled him to call a new parliament, and he opened it with the declaration that the king might have done without it, and that, if money was refused, his majesty would find other means to supply his wants. In the course of the debates, he was obliged to hear himself called the author of the public distress, while the king's heart was acknowledged to be the sanctuary of all the virtues. Without knowing when to yield and when to resist, he contended most violently against the celebrated petition of rights; but he sud-



denly ceased his resistance, when he heard that an impeachment was preparing against him in the house of commons. The complaints against him, however, continued; but the house of commons contented itself, instead of a solemn impeachment, with a petition that the king would remove him from his person and his council, as the author of the public calamities. But the only reply of the monarch was a sudden dissolution of the parliament. Charles resolved to attempt anew the relief of the protestants of Rochelle, and Count Denbigh was appointed to command the expedition; but he soon after returned without accomplishing any thing of importance. The king now ordered Buckingham to put himself at the head of a new armament, which was fitted out with incredible despatch. The duke was obliged to submit to the command, and was on the point of embarking at Portsmouth, when, in August 1628, surrounded by courtiers, guards, and soldiers, he fell under the dagger of Felton, a subaltern officer.—Thus died a man whose name suggests the idea of the most unlimited power, who had braved the denunciations of the two houses of parliament, the hatred of Richelieu and Olivarez, and even the displeasure of the two kings in whose names he ruled. At the moment of his death, he had regained the favour of his master by the activity of his zeal, and, confiding in the immense resources with which he was surrounded, was looking forward to victory.

**BUCKINGHAM, GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF**, son of the preceding, was born at Wallingford House in Westminster, January 1627. After studying at Trinity College, Cambridge, he travelled abroad; and on his return home, after the commencement of the civil war, he was presented to the king at Oxford. He served in the royal army under Prince Rupert and Lord Gerard. His estate was seized by the parliament, but, having obtained the restoration of it, he travelled with his brother into France and Italy. In 1648 he returned to England, and was with Charles II. in Scotland, and at the battle of Worcester. He followed that prince abroad, and served as a volunteer in the French army in Flanders. He afterwards returned to England, and in 1657 married the daughter of Lord Fairfax, by which means he repaired the ruin of his fortune in the royal cause. He, however, preserved the favour of Charles II., and, at the restoration, was made master of the horse. He also became one of the king's confidential ministers, who were designated by the appellation of the *cabal*. His political conduct was, like his general behaviour, characterized by unprincipled levity and imprudence. In 1666 he engaged in a conspiracy to effect a change of the government, notwithstanding which he recovered the favour of King Charles, which he repeatedly abused. The profligacy of his private life was notorious. He seduced the countess of Shrewsbury, and killed her husband in a duel; and he was more than suspected of having been the instigator of the infamous Colonel Blood to his brutal outrage against the duke of Ormond, whom he attempted, with the assistance of other ruffians, to carry to Tyburn, and hang on the common gallows. In 1676 he was, together with the earls of Shaftesbury and Salisbury and Lord Wharton, committed to the tower for a contempt, by order of the house of lords; but, on petitioning the king, they were released. After plotting against the government with the dissenters, and making him-

self the object of contempt to all parties, he died, neglected and unregretted, at Kirkby Moorside in Yorkshire, April 16, 1688. His literary abilities were far superior to those of his father, and among his dramatic compositions the comedy of the "Rehearsal" may be mentioned as a work which displays no common powers, and which greatly contributed to the correction of the public taste, which had been corrupted by Dryden, and other dramatists of the age.

**BUCKLER, JOHN**.—This celebrated individual, under the name of Schinderhannes, was the leader of a band of robbers on the banks of the Rhine, towards the end of the last century. Born of indigent parents, he entered into the service of an executioner, but having stolen some skins from his master, and eloped, he was apprehended and condemned to be scourged. This punishment publicly inflicted on him, as he himself said, determined the character of his future life. He was a second time brought to justice, escaped, and connected himself at Fink with Rothbart, the leader of a band of robbers. Being seized again, he again escaped, and returned to his old acquaintance. He now resolved upon highway robbery, and collected a large band, which soon struck terror into all the surrounding country. He was not entirely destitute of good qualities, as he often assisted the poor and relieved the distresses of those who were severely treated by his band. Political commotions drove him to the right bank of the Rhine, where he married Julia Blasius, and a song which he composed on her became so celebrated that it was played at all the fairs and religious festivals throughout the adjacent country. At length Schinderhannes was taken prisoner and brought to Frankfurt. He confessed immediately his true name, and a great part of his crimes, and he was then given up with his comrades to the tribunal at Mentz. Here he confessed many facts, thinking that as he had never committed murder he would not be condemned to death. After his condemnation, he still continued to hope for pardon, and till the last moment of his life showed the greatest presence of mind. He was guillotined November 21, 1803.

**BUCKMINSTER, JOSEPH STEVENS**, a celebrated American pulpit-orator and man of letters, who was born at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, May 26, 1784. His father was eminent among the clergy of that state, and he himself manifested in his boyhood such talents as gave assurance of his success in the same career. In 1797 he entered Harvard College, Cambridge, and, in the year 1800, he received the honours of the university with the distinction due to his uncommon proficiency in the studies of the institution, and to the excellence of the oration which he delivered on the literary character of different nations. After leaving college, he devoted himself for more than four years to theology and general literature. In October 1804 he preached for the first time at Boston, and in the following year accepted an invitation from a religious society in that place to become their minister. The fatigue and agitation which he suffered at his ordination threw him into a severe illness of two months' duration. On his recovery he devoted himself ardently to his clerical duties, but his zeal aggravated a predisposition to epilepsy, which had been felt some years before. The increase of this dreadful disorder rendered a voyage to Europe expedient. He embarked for England in 1806, remained for some months in this country,



went through Holland to Switzerland, and thence proceeded to Paris, where he passed nearly half a year. After revisiting England, he returned to his native land, not, indeed, cured of his malady, but more vigorous in constitution, and enriched with a large additional store of knowledge.

No American of his age had made a more favourable impression abroad. His parishioners welcomed him back with enthusiasm, and he required their esteem by an admirable discharge of all his duties. His sermons placed him in the first rank of popular preachers. He also contributed to the periodical publications of the day. In 1808 he superintended an American edition of Griesbach's Greek Testament, and wrote much in vindication and praise of this author's erudition, fidelity, and accuracy. In 1810 he digested a plan of publishing all the best modern versions of the prophetic books of the Old Testament, but the whole design failed for want of public patronage. In 1811 he was appointed the first lecturer on Biblical criticism at the university of Cambridge, on the foundation established by Samuel Dexter. While he was laboriously preparing for the execution of this office, a violent fit of epilepsy at once destroyed his intellect, and gave a shock to his frame, which he survived only a few days. He died June 9, 1812, at the completion of his twenty-eighth year.

**BUDDEUS, JOHN FRANCIS**, a celebrated Lutheran divine, who was born in 1667, at Anclam in Pomerania. In 1685 he was sent to Wittenberg, where he studied history, oriental learning, and the canon law, under the ablest professors. In 1687 he received the degree of M. A., and printed on that occasion his thesis on the symbols of the eucharist. In 1689 he became assistant professor of philosophy, and some time after, having removed to Jena, gave instruction to the students. In 1692 he was invited to Cobourg, as professor of Greek and Latin, and in 1693, when Frederick, elector of Brandenburg, afterwards king of Prussia, founded the university of Halle, Buddeus was appointed professor of moral and political philosophy; and, after filling that office for about twelve years, he was recalled to Jena in 1705, and created professor of theology. The king of Prussia parted with him very reluctantly on this occasion; but Buddeus conceived his new office so much better calculated for his talents and inclination that he retained it for the remainder of his life, refusing many advantageous offers in other universities. In 1714 he was made ecclesiastical counsellor to the duke of Hildburghausen, and afterwards was appointed inspector of the students of Gotha and Altenburgh, assessor of the *Concilium aretius*, which had the care of the university of Jena; and he was several times pro-rector, the dukes of Saxony always reserving to themselves the rectorate of that university. Under his care the university rose to a high degree of importance; and, being an enemy to the scholastic mode of teaching, he introduced that more rational and philosophical system which leads to useful knowledge. Amidst all these employments he was a frequent and popular preacher, carried on an extensive correspondence with the learned men of his time, and yet found leisure for the composition of his numerous works. He died November 19, 1729.

**BUDE, GUILLAUME**, more generally known under the Latin form Budæus. He was born at Paris

in 1467, and studied at Paris and Orleans at first without success, on account of his dissipated life in his early youth. From his twenty-fourth year he devoted himself to study with the greatest zeal, in particular to belles lettres, to mathematics, and to Greek. Among his philosophical, philological, and juridical works, his treatise "De Asse et Partibus ejus," and his commentaries on the Greek language, are of the greatest importance. By his influence the College Royal de France was founded; and he enjoyed, not only as a scholar, but as a man and citizen, the greatest esteem. Bude died in 1540.

**BUDGELL, EUSTACE**, an ingenious writer, who was born at St. Thomas, near Exeter, about 1685, and educated at Christ Church Oxford, after which he went to London, and was entered of the Inner Temple, where his inclinations led him to neglect his profession, and study polite literature. During his stay here, he contracted a friendship with Addison, who in 1717, when principal secretary of state, procured for Budgell the place of accountant and comptroller-general of the revenue in Ireland. He lost these places, when the duke of Bolton was appointed lord-lieutenant in 1718, by a lampoon on his grace. He then returned to England, where, in 1720, he lost 20,000*l.* by the South Sea bubble. He afterwards tried to get into parliament, and spent 5,000*l.* more in unsuccessful attempts, which completed his ruin.

In 1727 the duchess-dowager of Marlborough gave him 10,000*l.* for the purpose of getting him into parliament; but his attempts were ineffectual. In 1733 he commenced a weekly paper, called the "Bee," which was very popular. On the death of Doctor Tindal, the author of "Christianity as Old as the Creation," 2,000*l.* was left to Budgell by his will. This sum was so disproportionate to the testator's circumstances, and the legacy so contrary to his known intentions, that suspicions arose respecting the authenticity of the testament; and, upon its being contested by his nephew, it was set aside. The disgrace of this affair had such an effect upon this unhappy man that, on May 4th, 1737, taking a boat at Somerset stairs, he threw himself overboard, with stones in his pocket, and immediately sunk. Besides the above-mentioned works, he also possessed a share in the "Craftsman," wrote several papers in the "Guardian," with the "History of Cleomenes," &c.

**BUFFON, GEORGE LOUIS LECLERC, COUNT OF**, one of the most celebrated naturalists and authors of the eighteenth century. He was born at Montbard in Burgundy towards the close of 1707, and received from his father Benjamin Leclerc a very careful education. Chance connected him with the young duke of Kingston, whose tutor, a man of great learning, inspired Buffon with a taste for the sciences. They travelled together through France and Italy, and Buffon afterwards visited England. In order to perfect himself in the language, without neglecting the sciences, he translated "Newton's Fluxions" and "Hales's Vegetable Statics." After some time he published several works of his own, on geometry, natural philosophy, and rural economy. He laid his researches on these subjects before the academy of sciences, of which he became a member in 1733. The most important were on the construction of mirrors for setting bodies on fire at a great distance, as Archimedes is said to have

done, and experiments on the strength of different kinds of wood, and the means of increasing it, particularly by removing the bark of the trees some time before felling them. Buffon in his earlier years was animated only by an undefined love of learning and fame, but his appointment as intendant of the Royal Garden, in 1763, gave his mind a decided turn towards that science in which he afterwards immortalized himself. Considering natural history in its whole extent, he found no works in this department but spiritless compilations and dry lists of names. There were excellent observations, indeed, on single subjects, but no comprehensive work. Of such a one he now formed the plan, aiming to unite the eloquence of Pliny and the profound views of Aristotle with the exactness and the details of modern observations.

To aid him in this work, by examining the numerous and often minute objects embraced in his plan, for which he had not the patience nor the physical organs requisite, he associated himself with Daubenton, who possessed the qualities in which he was deficient; and, after an assiduous labour of ten years, the two friends published the three first volumes of the "Natural History," and, between 1749 and 1767, twelve others, which comprehend the theory of the earth, the nature of animals, and the history of man and the viviparous quadrupeds. The most brilliant parts of them, the general theories, the descriptions of the characters of animals, and of the great natural phenomena, are by Buffon. Daubenton limited himself to the description of the forms and the anatomy of the animals. The nine following volumes, which appeared from 1770 to 1783, contain the history of birds, from which Daubenton withdrew his assistance. The whole shape of the work was thus altered. Descriptions, less detailed and almost entirely without anatomy, were inserted among the historical articles, which at first were composed by Guenau de Monbeillard, and afterwards by the abbé Bexon. Buffon published alone the five volumes on "Minerals," from 1783 to 1788. Of the seven supplementary volumes, of which the last did not appear until after his death in 1789, the fifth formed an independent whole, the most celebrated of all his works. It contains his "Epochs of Nature," in which the author, in his best style, and with the triumphant power of genius, gives a second theory of the earth, very different from that which he had traced in the first volumes, though he assumes at the commencement the air of merely defending and developing the former. This great labour, with which Buffon was occupied during fifty years, is however but a part of the vast plan which he had sketched, and which has been continued by Lacépède in his history of the different species of cetaceous animals, reptiles, and fishes, but has remained unexecuted as far as regards the invertebral animals and the plants.

There is but one opinion of Buffon as an author. For the elevation of his views, for powerful and brilliant ideas, for the majesty of his images, for noble and dignified expression, for the lofty harmony of his style in treating of important subjects, he is, perhaps, unrivalled. His pictures of the sublime scenes of nature are strikingly true, and are stamped with originality. The fame of his work was soon universal. It excited a general taste for natural history, and gained for this science the favour and pro-

tection of nobles and princes. Louis XV. raised the author to the dignity of a count, and d'Argivilliers, in the reign of Louis XVI., caused his statue to be erected, during his life, at the entry of the royal cabinet of natural curiosities, with the inscription "*Majestati naturæ par ingenium.*"

The opinions entertained of Buffon as a natural philosopher, and an observer, have been more divided. Voltaire, D'Alembert, Condorcet, have severely criticised his hypotheses, and his vague manner of philosophizing from general views. But although his views of the "Theory of the Earth" can no longer be defended in detail, yet he will always have the merit of having made it generally felt that the present state of the earth is the result of a series of changes, which it is possible to trace, and of having pointed out the phenomena which indicate the course of these changes. His theory of generation has been refuted by Haller and Spallanzani; but his eloquent description of the physical and moral development of man, as well as his ideas on the influence which the delicacy and development of each organ exert on the character of different species of animals, are still of the highest interest. His views of the general character of animals, and of the limits prescribed to each species by climates, mountains, and seas, are real discoveries, which receive daily confirmation, and furnish to travellers a basis for their observations, which was entirely wanting before. The most perfect part of his work is the "History of Quadrupeds;" the weakest the "History of Minerals," in which his imperfect acquaintance with chemistry, and his inclination to hypothesis, have led him into many errors. His last days were disturbed by the painful disease of the stone, which did not however prevent the prosecution of his great plan. He died at Paris, April 16, 1788, at the age of eighty-one years, leaving an only son, who perished in the revolution, by the guillotine. Buffon possessed a noble figure, but his conversation and private life was but little in accordance with the style of his writings. The best edition of his "Natural History" is that published from 1749 to 1788, in thirty-six volumes.

The residence of Buffon was a peculiarly interesting spot, and, in despite of the licentiousness of his Parisian life, he here devoted himself to his tutelary genius—nature. Montbard, of which we give a sketch in the engraving beneath, was his birth-place as well as his residence in after life.



Buffon's study was placed at the top of the tower of St. Louis, which forms a prominent feature in the



preceding sketch. The gardens adjacent to this edifice were laid out in the most picturesque style, and were much admired for their botanic treasures.

**BUGGE, THOMAS**, a celebrated professor of mathematics and astronomy in the university of Copenhagen, who was born in 1740. He has rendered much service to astronomy and geography by his own observations, and by the education of young men, from many of whom we have valuable observations on Norway, Iceland, Greenland, and several parts of the East and West Indies. He caused many correct surveys to be made in Denmark, for the equalization of the land-taxes, and had the principal part in the preparation of the excellent map of that country. His principal works are "Elementary Principles of Spherical and Theoretical Astronomy," "Elementary Principles of Pure Mathematics," "Description of the Method of Measurement in the Construction of the Danish Maps and Charts." He died in 1815.

**BULL, GEORGE**.—This learned prelate was born at Wells in Somersetshire, in 1634. He was educated at Tiverton, and afterwards removed to Oxford. Mr. Bull's first preferment was the vicarage of Judington in Gloucestershire, and in 1658 he published his principal work, entitled "Harmonia Apostolica." He was created bishop of St. David's in 1705, and died in 1709.

**BULL, JOHN**, a native of Somersetshire, celebrated for his skill in music. He was appointed chamber-musician to James I., and is said to have composed the celebrated national anthem of "God Save the King," by desire of that monarch. He died at Lubeck in 1622.

**BULLINGER, HENRY**, a learned Swiss reformer, born in 1504, at a village near Zurich. Early in life he became the friend and companion of the celebrated Zuinglius, and after his death he joined the Calvinists. In 1561 he commenced a controversy with Brentius respecting the ubiquity of the body of Christ, which lasted until his death, which took place in September 1575. He was the author of various controversial works.

**BULOW, FREDERIC WILLIAM, COUNT VON DENNEWITZ**, was born in 1755. He became celebrated for his victories in the last French and German war. In his fourteenth year he entered the Prussian army, and in 1793 was appointed governor of Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia, and in this capacity he served with distinction in the campaign on the Rhine. In the war of 1806 he was a lieutenant-colonel at the siege of Thorn, and distinguished himself in various battles. When the war against France broke out, in 1813, he fought the first successful battle, at Mockern, took Halle, and protected Berlin from the danger which threatened it, by his victory at Luckau. After the armistice he commanded the third division of the army under the crown-prince of Sweden, and saved Berlin a second time by the memorable victory of Grosbeeren. He relieved the same city a third time, by the great victory at Dennewitz. For this service the king made him one of the few grand knights of the iron cross, and, after the end of the campaign, bestowed on him the title Count Bulow of Dennewitz, and made the same hereditary in his family. At the opening of the campaign of 1815, he received the chief command of the fourth division of the army, with which he contributed so essentially to the victory of Waterloo that the king gave him

the command of the fifteenth regiment of the line, which was to bear in future the name of the regiment of Bulow von Dennewitz. January 11, 1816, he resumed the chief command at Königsberg, in Prussia, and died there, February 25, 1816. Bulow was highly esteemed, both as a citizen and as a man. He had learned the art of war, in early youth, scientifically, and continued the same study with unremitting diligence, throughout his military course. He was also devoted to literature and the fine arts.

**BULOW, HENRY VON**, a celebrated writer born at Falkenberg, in Brandenburg, in 1770. He first studied in the military academy at Berlin, and afterwards entered the Prussian service. But he soon retired, and occupied himself with the study of Polybius, Tacitus, and Rousseau, and then served for a short period in the Netherlands. He afterwards undertook to establish a theatre, but immediately abandoned his project, and visited the United States, from whence he returned poor in purse, but rich in experience, and became an author. His first work was on the art of war, in which he displayed uncommon talents. He wrote a book on money, translated the "Travels of Mungo Park," and published, in 1801, his "History of the Campaign of 1800." In 1804 he wrote his "Theory of Modern Warfare," and several other military works, among which is "Tactics of the Moderns as they should be." In the former he points out the distinction between strategy and tactics, and makes the triangle the basis of all military operations. This principle of his was opposed by Jomini, and other French writers. His "History of the War of 1805" occasioned his imprisonment in Prussia, at the request of the Russian and Austrian courts. He died in 1807, of a nervous fever, in the prison of Riga.

**BUNYAN, JOHN**.—This extraordinary divine presents a fair specimen of the "psalm-singing warriors" before whose iron-hearted bravery and enthusiastic spirit of devotion the chivalry of Charles was made to fall like stricken deer. He was born at Elstow, near Bedford, in 1628. His parents though in humble circumstances gave him the rudiments of his mother tongue. But we must let his earliest biographer describe the commencement of his career. One day being at some low sport with the very refuse of his school-fellows, a voice suddenly darted from heaven into his soul, saying, "Wilt thou leave thy sins and go to heaven, or have thy sins and go to hell?" This put him into such a consternation that he immediately left his sport; and, looking up to heaven, thought he saw the Lord Jesus looking down upon him, as one highly displeased with him, and threatening him with some grievous punishment for his ungodly practices. At another time, whilst he was uttering many oaths, he was severely reproved by a woman, who was herself a notorious sinner. She told him he was the ugliest fellow for swearing that ever she heard in all her life, and that he was able to spoil all the youth of the town, if they came but into his company. This reproof coming from a woman, whom he knew to be very wicked, filled him with secret shame, and made him from that time much refrain from the practice.

Being a soldier in the parliament army, at the siege of Leicester, where he displayed great bravery, he was drawn out to stand sentinel; but another soldier of his company desired to take his place, to which he agreed, and thus escaped being shot by a musket-ball, which took off his comrade. About

1655 he was admitted a member of a baptist congregation at Bedford, and soon after was chosen their preacher. In 1660, being convicted at the sessions of holding unlawful assemblies and conventicles, he was sentenced to perpetual banishment, and in the mean time committed to gaol, from which he was discharged, after a confinement of twelve years and an half, by the compassionate interposition of Dr. Barlow, bishop of Lincoln. During his imprisonment, his own hand ministered to his necessities.

At this time he wrote many of his works, particularly the "Pilgrim's Progress." Afterwards, being at liberty, he travelled into many parts of England, to visit and confirm the brethren, which procured him the epithet of Bishop Bunyan.



When the declaration of James II. for liberty of conscience was published, he, by the contributions of his followers, built a meeting-house in Bedford, and preached constantly to a very large audience. He died in London of a fever, in 1688, aged sixty. He had by his wife four children, one of whom, named Mary, was blind. This daughter, he said, lay nearer his heart whilst he was in prison than all the rest, and that the thought of her enduring hardship would be sometimes almost ready to break his heart, but that God greatly supported him by these two texts of scripture, "Leave the fatherless children, I will preserve them alive; and let the widows trust in me." "The Lord said, Verily I shall be well with thy remnant; verily I will cause the enemy to entreat thee well in the time of evil." His biographer says that "he appeared in countenance to be of a stern and rough temper, but in his conversation mild and affable; not given to loquacity, or much discourse in company, unless some urgent occasion required it, observing never to boast of himself or his parts, but rather seem low in his own eyes and submit himself to the judgment of others, abhorring lying and swearing, being just in all that lay in his power to his word, not seeking to revenge injuries, loving to reconcile differences, and making friendship with all. He had a sharp quick eye, accompanied with an excellent discerning of persons, being of good judgment and quick wit. As for his person, he was tall of stature, strong boned, though not cor-

pulent, somewhat of a ruddy face, with sparkling eyes, wearing his hair on his upper lip, after the old British fashion; his hair reddish, but in his latter days time had sprinkled it with gray; his nose well set, but not declining or bending, and his mouth moderately large; his forehead something high, and his habit always plain and modest."

Of all his works the "Pilgrim's Progress" has attained the greatest popularity. It was remarked by Dr. Samuel Johnson that the "Pilgrim's Progress" has had the best evidence of its merit, namely, the general and continued approbation of mankind. No work of human composition can certainly be compared with it in universality and extent of popularity. Besides having been translated into several European languages, scarce a year has passed, since its first appearance, in which the public has not called for a new edition. For many years, however, this work was confined to the serious part of the world, for whom it was intended, and was seldom noticed by others but as the production of an illiterate man calculated only to please illiterate people—an objection which, if it had been just, could not be said to militate very strongly against its merit. However necessary learning may be to guard the outworks of Christianity against the attacks of infidels, pure and undefiled religion requires so little literature to inculcate it in the case of others, or to receive it ourselves, that we find it had no hand in the first promulgation of the gospel, nor much in the various means that have been taken to perpetuate it. But Bunyan's want of education is the highest praise that can be given. Such a defect exhibits the originality of his genius in the strongest light; and, since more attention has been paid by men of critical taste to his "Pilgrim's Progress," he has been admitted into a higher rank among English writers, and it seems universally acknowledged that nothing was wanting to advance him yet higher but the advantages of education, or of an intimacy with the best writers in his own language.—Dr. Johnson entertained so high an opinion of the allegorical structure of the "Pilgrim" that he thought Bunyan must have read Spenser, and observes, as a remarkable circumstance, that the "Pilgrim's Progress" begins very much like the poem of Dante, although there was no translation of Dante when Bunyan wrote. Dr. Beattie says that some of the allegories in the "Pilgrim" are well conceived, and prove the author to have possessed powers of invention which, if they had been refined by learning, might have produced something very noble. What learning might have done for Bunyan we no more can tell than we can tell what it might have done for Shakespeare; but, in our opinion, Bunyan without its aid has produced "something very noble," because he has produced a work the most perfect in its kind, and which has baffled, and continues to baffle, all attempts at imitation.

We cannot conclude our notice of the life of John Bunyan without quoting the opinion of the Rev. Mr. Grainger as to his general merits. He says "Bunyan, who has been mentioned among the least and lowest of our writers, and even ridiculed as a driveller by those who have never read him, deserves a much higher rank than is commonly imagined. His 'Pilgrim's Progress' gives us a clear and distinct idea of Calvinistical divinity. The allegory is admirably



carried on, and the characters justly drawn and uniformly supported. The author's original and poetic genius shines through the coarseness and vulgarity of his language, and intimates that, if he had been a master of numbers, he might have composed a poem worthy of Spenser himself."

These opinions of Bunyan will be found amply justified by an impartial perusal of the work in question, except with regard to what is said of "the coarseness and vulgarity" of Bunyan's style, which is certainly very unjust. His style, if compared with the writers of his age on subjects of religion, and particularly if his want of education be taken into consideration, will suffer very little. On the other hand, there is reason to suspect that, by some of these critics, simplicity has been mistaken for vulgarity, although we are willing to allow that a few phrases might be elevated in expression without injury to the sentiment. But of what author in the seventeenth century may not this be said? It ought also to be remembered that the "Pilgrim's Progress" was written while the author was suffering a long imprisonment, during which the only books to which he had access were the Bible and "Fox's Martyrology;" and it is evident that the whole work is sprinkled over with the phraseology of scripture, not only because it was that in which he was most conversant, but that which was the best adapted to his subject.

BUONARROTI.—See ANGELO.

BURETTE, PETER JOHN.—This ingenious musical composer was born at Paris in 1665. He was the son of a surgeon, and was so feeble during his infancy that his life was despaired of. At nine years of age he performed on the spinnet before the French monarch and court. Two years after, the king heard him again, when he performed a duet with his father on the harp, and at eleven years of age he assisted him in giving lessons to his scholars. His taste for music, however, did not extinguish his passion for other sciences. He taught himself Latin and Greek with little assistance from others; and the study of these languages inclined him to medical enquiries.

At eighteen years of age, Burette attended, for the first time, the public schools, went through a course of philosophy, and took lessons in the schools of medicine. And even during this time he learned Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Italian, Spanish, German, and English, sufficiently to understand them in books. He was at length admitted a member of the faculty at Paris, and practised with reputation during thirty-three years. In 1705, he was received into the academy of the belles lettres, and in 1706 he had a considerable share in the publication of the "Journal des Sçavans," at which he laboured more than thirty years. In 1718 he had an appointment in the royal library. The public are obliged to the abbé Fraguier for the learned dissertation which M. Burette produced on the music of the ancients. This learned abbé, supposing that the Greeks applied the same sense to the word harmony as is given to it by the moderns, and that, consequently, they knew counterpoint, or music in parts, Burette proved that he was mistaken, and that the ancients meant no more by the term harmony than we do by proportion. He demonstrated that the Greeks practised no other simultaneous consonances than unisons and octaves. This learned and indefatigable enquirer after the

music of the ancient Greeks was seized, in 1745, with a paralytic affection, and after languishing some time, died in 1747, at eighty-two years of age.

M. Burette collected a very fine library, which was after his death transferred to the king's collection. It consisted of more than 15,000 volumes.

BURCKHARDT, JOHN CHARLES, member of the royal French academy of sciences, one of the first astronomical calculators in Europe. He was born at Leipsic, in April 1773, and applied himself to mathematics, and acquired a fondness for astronomy from the study of the works of Lalande. He applied himself particularly to the calculation of solar eclipses, and the occultation of certain stars, for the determination of geographical longitudes. And also made himself master, at the same time, of nearly all the European languages. Professor Hindenburg induced him to write a Latin treatise on the combinatory analytic method, and recommended him to Baron von Zach, with whom he studied practical astronomy at his observatory on the Seeberg near Gotha, and whom he assisted, from 1795 to 1797, in observing the right ascension of the stars. Von Zach recommended him to Lalande, at Paris, who received him at his house, December 1797. Here he distinguished himself by the calculation of the orbits of comets, participated in all the labours of Lalande, and those of his nephew, La-françois Lalande, took an active part in the observatory of the *ecole militaire*, and translated the two first volumes of Laplace's "Mécanique Céleste" into German. Being appointed adjunct astronomer by the board of longitude, he received letters of naturalization as a French citizen, in 1799. His important treatise on the comet of 1770, which had not been visible for nearly thirty years, although, according to the calculations of its orbit, it should have returned every five or six, was rewarded with a gold medal, by the institute, in 1800. During the same year he was made a member of the department of physical and mathematical sciences in the academy; and, in 1818, was made a member of the board of longitude, and, after Lalande's death, astronomer in the observatory of the military school. He died in 1825.

BURCKHARDT, JOHN LOUIS.—This celebrated traveller was by birth a Swiss. After he had completed his studies he left his native country, and came to London, where he was employed by the African association to make discoveries in the east, especially Africa. Thoroughly aware that a great part of the failures of African discoveries proceeded from their want of previous education in the customs, manners, and languages of the east, Mr. Burckhardt prepared himself, by the study of Arabic, by a residence of six years in Syria and Egypt, by journeys in Nubia, in Palestine, in Arabia, and in the countries between Egypt and the Red Sea, for his great purpose of penetrating into the heart of Africa. His knowledge of Arabic and the Koran were so great that after the severest examination by doctors of the Mahometan law, appointed for that express purpose by Mohammed Ali, pacha of Egypt, he was pronounced to be not only a real, but a very learned Mahometan. But, as his skill in oriental manners and languages improved, his constitution became more impaired; and he became at last the victim of a tour in Arabia, dying better qualified than any other traveller previously employed by the association for the purpose of discovery in Africa.

He appears from his books and letters to have been a modest, laborious, learned, and sensible man, exempt from prejudice, unattached to systems, detailing what he saw plainly and correctly, and of very prudent and discreet conduct. Mr. Burckhardt was two years and a half in Syria, during which period he visited Palmyra, Damascus, the Libanus and Anti-Libanus, and the unexplored country of the Haoman or Amanistis. After his final departure from Aleppo, his head-quarters in Syria, he revisited Damascus and the Haoman; and in his way to Egypt visited Tiberias, Nazareth, the countries to the eastward, south of the Dead Sea, and from thence across the desert of El Jyk to Cairo. The first part of his "Travels" contains extracts from his correspondence during these Syrian tours, and previous to his arrival in Egypt. In one of these letters he says, "Two Persian dervishes arrived here about two months ago, who had lived upwards of two years at the Wahabi court of Derayah. I got acquainted with one of them, a young man of twenty-two; the other has gone to Mosul, from whence his companion shortly expects his return. The latter has been in the habit, singular enough for a Mohammedan traveller, of keeping a regular journal of his travels, describing whatever struck his inquisitive mind, and abounding, as I understand, with geographical notices."

This is a very remarkable circumstance. A few more such instances, and the African association might spare themselves the trouble of sending Hornemens and Burckhardts into Africa. The difficulty of getting into Timbuctoo is only to a Christian. If the Mahometans who can easily get there begin to read, write, and observe, the spell that hangs over Africa will soon be broken, and the curiosity of learned men receive the long-delayed gratification.

Among his Arabic exercises, Mr. Burckhardt translated Robinson Crusoe into that language, and gave to it the name of *Dumel Bahur*, the Pearl of the Sea. Some of his small or tentative excursions into different parts of Syria appear to have been very unfortunate: twice, in spite of solemn bargains with shekhs and high-blooded Arabs, he was deserted and pillaged in the desert. In one of these instances, the robbers left him nothing but his under dress. His system was that the less display of wealth a man makes in the east the safer he is. This may be true enough in general; but when he travelled with a caravan containing merchants who had ten or twelve camels, and twenty or thirty slaves each, he might surely have ventured on the display of one camel, and one or two slaves; for in one journey he travelled upon an ass, without a slave; and had in consequence his own wood to cut, his water-skins to fill, and his supper to dress. We do not remember that other travellers in Africa, proceeding with caravans, have found it necessary to affect such an extreme state of pauperism; and Mr. Burckhardt himself admits that Ali Bey, the pretended Arabian, penetrated every where in the east by the very opposite system of magnificence and profusion, even though he was suspected not to be a Mussulman by the natives themselves.

In his visit to the peninsula of Mount Sinai, Mr. Burckhardt met with a substance which he considered to be the same as the manna mentioned in the books of Moses. "A botanist would find a rich

harvest in these high regions, in the most elevated parts of which a variety of sweet-scented herbs grow. The Bedouins collect to this day the manna, under the very same circumstances described in the books of Moses. Whenever the rains have been plentiful during the winter, it drops abundantly from the tamarisk (in Arabic, tarfa), a tree very common in the Syrian and Arabian deserts, but producing, as far as I know, no manna any where else. They gather it before sunrise, because if left in the sun it melts. Its taste is very sweet, much resembling honey. They use it as we do sugar, principally in their dishes composed of flour. When purified over the fire it keeps for many months. The quantity collected is inconsiderable, because it is exclusively the produce of the tarfa, which tree is met with only in a few valleys at the foot of the highest granite chain."

Our readers are perhaps aware that Egypt, like many other branches of the Turkish empire, is now severed from the main body, and that, under the vigorous government of Mohammed Ali, it has been tranquillized and rendered safe for travellers and merchants; and, comparatively speaking, it is now in a state bordering on civilization.

With the permission, and under the firmans of this able and active ruler, Mr. Burckhardt travelled quietly through Nubia up to the very confines of Dongola, along the banks of the Nile. It seems to be a journey of very little interest, except to those who are exceedingly curious about the antiquities of Egypt. The country every where presented the same appearance of misery and tyranny which is so characteristic of the east. The same divine and human machinery were at work, which have in all ages so long attracted the notice of oriental travellers: a burning sun rendering fertility more fertile and barrenness more formidable; the pride, ignorance, and ferocity of the followers of Mahomet; the unbounded despotism of the master; the deepest misery of the slave; the earth languishing in its finest regions and creations; and on every side (where the garden of Eden might be) the silence and solitude of despotism. Mr. Burckhardt's journey began at Assouan, the southern boundary of Upper Egypt; and, keeping on the banks of the Nile, he travelled in a direction nearly south, for 450 miles. Nubia, before the reign of Sultan Selim, was divided between different tribes of Arabs and the people of Dongola, or rather was a prize for which these different powers were always contesting.

In his description of his tour from Daraou, in Upper Egypt, through Berber, Shendy, and Taka, to Souakim, a port on the Red Sea, which he crossed to Jidda, we find the following account of his appearance and preparations:—"I was dressed in a brown loose woollen cloak, such as is worn by the peasants of Upper Egypt, called thabout, with a coarse white linen shirt and trowsers, a lebde, or white woollen cap, tied round with a common handkerchief as a turban, and with sandals on my feet. I carried in the pocket of my thabout a small journal book, a pencil, pocket-compass, pen-knife, tobacco purse, and a steel for striking a light. The provisions I took with me were as follows: forty pounds of flower, twenty of biscuit, fifteen of dates, ten of lentils, six of butter, five of salt, three of rice, two of coffee beans, four of tobacco, one of pepper, some



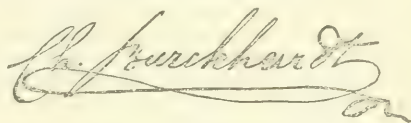
onions, and eighty pounds of dhourra for my ass. Besides these I had a copper boiler, a copper plate, a coffee roaster, an earthen mortar to pound the coffee beans, two coffee cups, a knife and spoon, a wooden bowl for drinking and for filling the water skins, an axe, ten yards of rope, needles and thread, a large packing needle, one spare shirt, a comb, a coarse carpet, a woollen cloth (heram) of Mogrebin manufacture for a night covering, a small parcel of medicines, and three spare water skins. I had also a small pocket Koran, bought at Damascus, which I lost afterwards on the day of the pilgrimage, November 10, 1814, among the crowds of Mount Ararat, a spare journal-book and an inkstand, together with some loose sheets of paper for writing amulets for the negroes. My watch had been broken in Upper Egypt, where I had no means of getting another. The hours of march noted down in the journal are therefore merely by computation, and by observing the course of the sun. The little merchandise I took with me consisted of twenty pounds of sugar, fifteen of soap, two of nutmegs, twelve razors, twelve steels, two red caps, and several dozen of wooden beads, which are an excellent substitute for coin in the southern countries. I had a gun, with three dozen of cartridges and some small shot, a pistol, and a large stick, called nabbout, strengthened with iron at either end, and serving either as a weapon or to pound the coffee-beans, and which, according to the custom of the country, was my constant companion. My purse, worn in a girdle under the thabout, contained fifty Spanish dollars, including the twenty-five, the price of my camel, and I had besides sewed a couple of sequins in a small leathern amulet, tied round my elbow, thinking this to be the safest place for secreting them."

The meanness of his appearance excited the contempt of the whole party, and seems to have subjected the traveller to a great deal of unnecessary hardship. He was often driven from the coolest birth into the burning sun; and, besides the exposure to heat, had his dinner to cook. In the evening, after the enormous fatigues of the day, the same labour occurred again. He was obliged to cut and fetch wood, to light a fire to cook, and, lastly, to make coffee, as a bribe to keep his friends in good humour. After some danger from whirlwinds, and from failure of water, Mr. Burckhardt arrived at Berber, where he made some stay; and from thence proceeded in the route we have already pointed out. One of the most curious circumstances he relates is the disgust and horror his appearance universally excited in all the towns of Africa. "The caravan halted near the village, and I walked up to the huts to look about me. My appearance on this occasion, as on many others, excited a universal shriek of surprise and horror, especially among the women, who were not a little terrified at seeing such an outcast of nature, as they consider a white man to be, peeping into their huts, and asking for a little water or milk. The chief feeling which my appearance inspired I could easily perceive to be disgust; for the negroes are all firmly persuaded that the whiteness of the skin is the effect of disease, and a sign of weakness; and there is not the least doubt that a white man is looked upon by them as a being greatly inferior to themselves. At Shendy the inhabitants were more accustomed to the sight, if not of white men, at least of the light-brown natives of

Arabia; and, as my skin was much sun-burnt, I there excited little surprise. On the market days, however, I often terrified people by turning short upon them, when their exclamation generally was, 'Owez billahi min es-sheyttan erradji'—'God preserve us from the devil!' One day, after bargaining for some onions with a country girl in the market at Shendy, she told me that, if I would take off my turban and show her my head, she would give me five more onions. I insisted upon having eight, which she gave me. When I removed my turban, she started back at the sight of my white closely shaven crown; and, when I jocularly asked her whether she should like to have a husband with such a head, she expressed the greatest surprise and disgust, and swore that she would rather live with the ugliest Darfour slave."

In the course of these travels Mr. Burckhardt became so completely initiated into the language and manners of the Arabians that, when, as we have stated, a doubt arose respecting his Islamism, he, after having passed an examination in the theoretical and practical parts of the Mohammedan faith, was acknowledged by two learned jurists, not only a very faithful but a very learned Mussulman.

Mr. Burckhardt, whose health had long been in a very bad state, died at Cairo in April, 1817, the Mohammedans buried him with every mark of respect. We subjoin his autograph.



BURCHIELLO, DOMENICO, one of the most eccentric of poets. He lived at the beginning of the fifteenth century, at Florence, where he was probably born. He was the son of a barber named Giovanni, and was called originally only *Domenico*. But he assumed the name of Burchiello afterwards, for reasons that cannot be assigned. Some writers have reproached him for shameful vices, and represented him as a low buffoon, who did every thing for money. Others however have defended him. His shop was so celebrated that learned and unlearned, high and low, assembled there every day, and Cosmo the Great caused a view of it to be painted on one of the arches of his gallery. It is extremely difficult to decide upon the absolute value of his satires, as the local and personal allusions in them are obscure. And they were composed for his contemporaries, with a studied obscurity and extravagance of expression. His style is, nevertheless, pure and elegant. His burlesque sonnets are enigmas, of which we have no intelligible explanation, notwithstanding what Doni has done. The narrative and descriptive parts are very easy to be understood; but the wit they contain is, for the most part, so coarse that the satire fails of producing its effect. They are on the whole lively but licentious. The best editions of his sonnets are those of Florence, 1568, and of London, 1757.

BURDER, GEORGE.—This eminent dissenting minister was born in 1752, and after receiving a good theological education was, for more than twenty years, pastor of an independent congregation at Coventry. He afterwards officiated for many years at a chapel in Fetter Lane, and employed much

of his time gratuitously as secretary to the London Missionary Society. He was the author of a great many theological works, and one of the editors of the "Evangelical Magazine." Mr. Burder died at the residence of his son in Brunswick Square, May 29, 1832.

BURG, JOHN TOBIAS, a learned astronomer, born in 1766, in Treves. He resolved, when young, to become a mechanic, for the purpose of supporting his father, but was prevented by his teacher, who perceived his great talents. He then directed his attention to mathematics and astronomy under Triesnecker, and was, in 1791, made professor of natural philosophy in Clagenfurt, and in 1792 adjunct astronomer at the imperial observatory. He has distinguished himself by his theory of the motion of the moon. The national institute proposed, as a prize question, in 1798, the determination, by at least 500 accurate observations, of the epochs of the mean distance of the apogee of the moon and of her ascending node. The committee who examined the calculations of the competitors found those of Burg and of Alexander Bouvard both so excellent that they determined to divide the prize between them; but the consul Buonaparte doubled the prize, assigning one to each. Burg's tables of the moon, according to the theory of Laplace, were published in 1806, by the national institute.

BURGER, GODFREY AUGUSTUS, was born in 1748, at Wolmerswende, near Halberstadt. Before his tenth year he learned nothing but reading and writing, but had a great predilection for solitary and gloomy places, and began early to make verses, with no other model than that afforded by hymn-books. In 1764 he studied theology at the university in Halle; and, in 1768, he went to Gottingen, in order to exchange theology for law, but soon formed connections here equally disadvantageous to his studies and his morals, so that his grandfather, who had hitherto maintained him, withdrew his support from him. The friendship of several distinguished young men at the university was now of great service to him. In union with his friends he studied the ancient classics and the best works in French, Italian, Spanish, and English, particularly Shakspeare and the old English and Scotch ballads. In 1772 he obtained, by the influence of Boie, the small office of baili in Alten-Gleichen, and, by a reconciliation with his grandfather, a sum for the payment of his debts, which he unfortunately lost, and during the rest of his life was involved in pecuniary difficulties. In 1774 he married the daughter of a neighbouring baili, named Leonhardt, but his marriage was unfortunate; and, as he had conceived a violent passion for the sister of his wife, he married her, in 1784, soon after his first wife's death. She also, his celebrated Mary, died in the first year of their marriage. At the same time he lost his little property by imprudent management, and was obliged to resign his place. He was however made professor extraordinary in Gottingen, but received no salary, and this favourite poet of the nation was obliged to gain a living for himself and his children by poorly-rewarded translations for booksellers.

A third marriage, in 1790, with a young lady of Suabia, who had publicly offered him her hand in a poem, completed his misfortunes, and he was divorced from her two years afterwards. The government of Hanover afforded him some assistance

shortly before his death, which took place in June, 1794, and was occasioned by a complaint of the lungs.

In the midst of these misfortunes and obstacles, it is astonishing how much he did. He has left us songs, odes, elegies, ballads, narrative poems, and epigrams. In none of these departments does he hold a low rank; in some the public voice has placed him in the first. When speaking of Burger, Schlegel says, "He is a poet of a more peculiar than comprehensive imagination, of more honest and plain than delicate feelings. His execution is more remarkable than his conception. He is more at home in ballads and simple songs than in the higher lyrical poetry; yet, in some of his productions, he appears as a true poet of the people, and his style, with some faults, is clear, vigorous, fresh, and sometimes tender."

BURGH, JAMES, an ingenious moral and political writer, was born at Madderty, in Perthshire, in the latter end of the year 1714. After receiving a good education at Madderty, he was removed to the university of St. Andrew's, with the intention of becoming a clergyman in the church of Scotland; but did not continue long at the college, being obliged to leave it on account of bad health. This circumstance induced him to lay aside the thoughts of the clerical profession, and he came to England, where his first employment was to correct the press for an eminent printer; and at his leisure hours he made indexes. After being engaged some time in this way, he removed to Great Marlow, as an assistant at the free grammar-school of that town, where he first commenced author, by writing a pamphlet, entitled "Britain's Remembrancer," 1746, which went through five large editions in two years, was reprinted in England, Ireland, and America.

When Mr. Burgh quitted Marlow, he engaged himself as an assistant to Mr. Kenross at Enfield, who, at the end of one year, very generously told him that he ought no longer to lose his time by continuing in the capacity of an assistant,—that it would be advisable for him to open a boarding-school for himself,—and that, if he stood in need of it, he would assist him with money for that purpose. Accordingly, in 1747, Mr. Burgh commenced master of an academy, at Stoke Newington, in Middlesex; and in that year he wrote "Thoughts on Education." The next production of his pen was "A Hymn to the Creator of the World," to which was added, in prose, "An Idea of the Creator from his Works." A second edition, in octavo, was printed in 1750. After Mr. Burgh had continued at Stoke Newington three years, his house not being large enough to contain the number of scholars that were offered to him, he removed to a more commodious one at Newington Green, where for nineteen years he carried on his school with great success. In 1751 Mr. Burgh married Mrs. Harding, a widow lady; and in the same year, at the request of Dr. Stephen Hales and Dr. Hayter, bishop of Norwich, he published a small work entitled "A Warning to Dram Drinkers." His next publication was his great work entitled "The Dignity of Human Nature; or a Brief Account of the Certain and Established Means for attaining the True End of our Existence." This treatise appeared in 1754, in one volume quarto, and was reprinted in two volumes octavo, 1767. In 1756 the "Youth's friendly Monitor," of which a surreptitious copy had been printed under a disguised title, was published by himself. In 1758 he printed a



pamphlet under the title of "Political Speculations," and the same year "The Rationale of Christianity," though he did not publish this last till 1760, when he printed a kind of Utopian romance, entitled "An Account of the First Settlement, Laws, Form of Government, and Police, of the Cessares, a people of South America, in Nine Letters." In 1762 Mr. Burgh published "The Art of Speaking," of which a fifth edition was printed in 1782. Mr. Burgh's next appearance in the literary world was in 1766, in the publication of the first volume of "Crito, or Essays on Various Subjects." To this volume is prefixed a dedication, not destitute of humour, "To the Right Rev. Father (of three years old) his Royal Highness Frederic Bishop of Osnaburgh." The essays are three in number: the first is of a political nature; the second is on the difficulty and importance of education, and the third upon the origin of evil. In the same year Mr. Burgh wrote "Proposals for an Association against the Iniquitous Practices of Engrossers, Foresters, Jobbers, &c. and for reducing the Price of Provisions, especially Butchers' Meat." In 1767 came out the second volume of *Crito*, with a long dedication, which is replete with shrewd and satirical observations, chiefly of a political kind, "to the good people of Britain of the 20th century." The rest of the volume contains another essay on the origin of evil, and the rationale of Christianity, and a postscript, consisting of further explanations of the subjects before considered, and of detached remarks on various matters.

Mr. Burgh having for many years led a very laborious life, and having acquired a competent though not a large fortune, he determined to retire from business. In embracing this resolution, his more immediate object was to complete his "Political Disquisitions," for which he had, during ten years, been collecting suitable materials. Upon quitting his school in 1771 he settled in Colebrooke Row, Islington, where he continued till his decease. The first two volumes of his "Political Disquisitions" were published in 1774, and the third volume in 1775.

It was Mr. Burgh's intention to have extended his "Disquisitions" to some other objects, if he had not been prevented by the violence of his disease, the tortures of which he bore with patience and resignation, and from which he was happily released, in August 1775, in the sixty-first year of his age.

BURGOYNE, JOHN, an English general officer and dramatist, who was the natural son of Lord Bingly, and entered early into the army. In 1762 he commanded a force sent into Portugal for the defence of that kingdom against the Spaniards. He also distinguished himself in the American war, by the taking of Ticonderoga, but was at last obliged to surrender, with his army, to General Gates, at Saratoga. He was elected member of parliament for Preston, in Lancashire, but refusing to return to America, pursuant to his convention, was dismissed the service. He published some pamphlets in defence of his conduct, and is the author of three dramas—the *Maid of the Oaks*, *Bon Ton*, and the *Heiress*—all in the line of what is usually called genteel comedy, of which they form light and pleasing specimens.

BURGUNDY, LOUIS, DUKE OF, was born at Versailles in 1682. His parents were the dauphin, son of Louis XIV., and the princess Anne of

Bavaria. In his early childhood he was stubborn, irascible, obstinate, passionately fond of every kind of pleasure, and inclined to cruelty, severe in his satire, attacking with great penetration the follies of those about him. The education of the prince was entrusted, in the seventh year of his age, to Fenelon, Fleury, and Beauvilliers. They succeeded in gaining his affection, and in giving him a right turn of mind. From this alteration in his character he became amiable, humane, and modest, and faithful in the discharge of his duties. In 1697 he married the intelligent and amiable princess Adelaide of Savoy, who was the ornament of her court, and was beloved by her husband with the tenderest affection. In 1699 Louis XIV. ordered an encampment at Compiègne for the instruction of his grandson, to whom, in 1702, he gave the command of the army in Flanders, under the direction of Marshal Boufflers. Afterwards, under the most difficult circumstances, he was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces in Flanders, but with instructions which made him dependent on the duke of Vendome, Marlborough and Prince Eugene having the command of the opposing army.

The differences which arose between the prince and Vendome drew after them the most disastrous consequences. All France accused the prince as the author of these misfortunes, censuring his timid character and his religious scruples. He, however, appears to have succeeded in justifying his conduct in the eyes of the king. Vendome, on the contrary, who had behaved very insolently towards the heir to the throne, fell into disgrace, but was favoured by the opposition party. In 1711 the duke of Burgundy became dauphin, by the death of his father, and now began to attract the attention of the court and the confidence of his sovereign, who appointed him a counsellor of state. France expected, from the virtues and excellent intentions of this prince, to enjoy a long and general rest from her troubles; but he was suddenly taken away in February, 1712, by a disease to which his wife and eldest son had already fallen victims. In less than one year France had seen three dauphins; and the fourth, the youngest son of the duke of Burgundy, and the only heir to the throne, afterwards Louis XV., was also in a dangerous situation. The public voice loudly accused the duke of Orleans, afterwards regent, as the cause of these misfortunes, of which, however, Louis XIV. himself declared him innocent.

BURKE, EDMUND, a writer, orator, and statesman of great eminence, who was born in Dublin, in January, 1730. His father was an attorney of reputation, and he received his education under Abraham Shackleton, a Quaker, at Ballitore. In 1744 he was entered at Trinity College, Dublin, as pensioner, where he chiefly occupied himself with a plan of study of his own, the principal objects of which were the classics, logic, metaphysics, morals, history, rhetoric, and composition. He left Trinity College, after taking a bachelor's degree, in 1749; and not much is recorded of this period of his life, except that he made an unsuccessful application for the professorship of logic at Glasgow. But even at this early period he had planned a refutation of the metaphysical theories of Berkely and Hume. In 1750 he first entered the great theatre of London, as a law-student at the Temple, where he soon became the admiration of his intimates, for the bril-

liancy of his parts and the variety of his acquisitions. Applying more to literature than to law, he supported himself by his pen, and, by intense occupation, brought himself into a state of ill health. This illness, by making him a guest to Dr. Nugent, an eminent physician, led to his marriage with that gentleman's daughter. In 1756 he published, without a name, his first work, entitled a "Vindication of Natural Society, in a Letter to Lord \*\*\*\*, by a noble Lord." This work exhibited so complete an imitation, although ironical, of the style of Bolingbroke, that many persons were deceived by it, not perceiving that Burke's intention was to prove that the same arguments with which that nobleman had attacked religion might be applied against all civil and political institutions whatever. In the same year he published his "Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful." The elegance of its language, and the spirit of philosophical investigation displayed in it, introduced the author to the best literary acquaintances. In 1758 he suggested to Dodsley the plan of the "Annual Register," and took upon himself the composition of the historical part, which he continued for a number of years. His political career may be said to have commenced in 1761, when he went to Ireland as confidential friend to William Gerard Hamilton, then secretary to the lord lieutenant, Lord Halifax. For his services in this unofficial capacity he was rewarded with a pension of £300. per annum, on the Irish establishment. On his return in 1765 he was introduced to the marquis of Rockingham, then first lord of the treasury, who made him his private secretary; and, through the same interest, he became M. P. for the borough of Wendover. The marquis also made him a nominal loan, but real gift, of a large sum, which placed him in easy circumstances, and enabled him to purchase his elegant seat near Beaconsfield. His first speech in parliament was on the Grenville stamp act; and it was at his advice that the Rockingham administration took the middle and undecided course of repealing the act, and passing a law declaratory of the right of Great Britain to tax America. This ministry



was soon dissolved to make room for a new cabinet under Mr. Pitt, and Burke concluded his official

labours by his pamphlet entitled "A Short Account of a late Short Administration."

In the proceedings against Wilkes he joined the remonstrants against the violation of the rights of election, and, in 1770, published his "Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents," the sentiments of which are consistent with his future doctrines and conduct. He opposed the ministerial measures antecedent and consequent to the American war; and the whole powers of his eloquence were exerted, first to prevent, and then to heal, the fatal breach between the mother country and her colonies. In 1774 he was chosen member for Bristol; and it is to his credit that he subsequently ventured to give offence to his Bristol friends by his support of the Irish petitions for free trade, and for moderating the penal statutes against the Roman catholics. He soon, however, recovered all the ground thus lost by his celebrated reform bill, which he unsuccessfully advocated with an extraordinary union of wit, humour, and financial detail. In 1783 Lord North's ministry was dissolved; and, on the return of the marquis of Rockingham and his party to power, Burke obtained the lucrative post of paymaster-general of the forces, and a seat at the council board. He also embraced the auspicious opportunity to re-introduce his reform bill, which passed, but not without considerable modifications. On the death of the marquis of Rockingham, and the succession of Lord Shelburn, Burke resigned and joined the coalition. The India bill formed the ostensible cause for dismissing this ill-judged combination; and Mr. Pitt succeeded to the helm and dissolved the parliament. The next great political event of his life was his share in the prosecution of Mr. Hastings, which trial, indeed, originated with him. The "Report of the Committee on the Trial of Hastings," in 1794, was by Burke. His conduct in this affair gained him little in the public estimation, except increased fame as an orator. On the settling of the regency in 1788, he argued against the principle of the ministers, that the regency was elective, and not hereditary.

The last great act of his political life was the part he took in the French revolution. He early manifested his dislike to it, and, in 1790, loudly condemned the principles and conduct of the revolutionists. His celebrated "Reflections on the Revolution in France" appeared in the following October; and no work ever attracted more attention, or produced more effect. It exhibits both the merits and defects of the writer, and contains much justness of argument, profundity of observation, and beauty of style; but it is equally obvious that he commits the very fault which he intended to reprobate, in his "Vindication of Natural Society," by making his arguments applicable to the defence of all establishments, however tyrannical, and the censure of every popular struggle for liberty, whatever the oppression. It had an unprecedented sale, and obtained unbounded praise from all who trembled for establishments, or were alarmed at the odious character which the French revolution was beginning to assume. On the other hand, it met with severe and formidable critics and opponents, and, among other things, produced the celebrated "Rights of Man," of Thomas Paine. Burke followed up this attack with a "Letter to a Member of the National Assembly," an "Appeal from the New to the Old



Whigs," "Letter to a Noble Lord on the Subject in Discussion with the Duke of Bedford," "Letters on a Regicide Peace," &c. In all these productions he displayed unabated powers of mind. In 1792 he published a "Letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe, on the Propriety of admitting Roman Catholics to the Elective Franchise," and, in 1794, withdrew from parliament, and was succeeded in the representation of Malton by his only son, whose death soon after hastened the decline of nature which he was beginning to experience. Decay, by gradual approaches, terminated his life on July 8, 1797, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. He preserved his senses to the last; and, a few hours before he died, he had read to him Addison's paper in the "Spectator" on the "Immortality of the Soul." Amiable in private life, and exemplary in his domestic and social relations, he was greatly beloved by his friends. He was exceedingly charitable and beneficent, and founded a school for the children of French emigrants, the permanent support of which formed one of his latest cares. His public character will be best collected from a study of his political career, and his powers of mind from his publications. His oratory was pre-eminently that of a mind richly stored with imagery, which makes excursions to a vast variety of subjects, connected by the slightest and most evanescent associations, and that in a diction as rich and varied as the matter. In delivery, however, the effect of his speeches was by no means proportioned to their absolute merit; their length, their copiousness, abundance of ornament, and wide field of speculation, producing impatience in men of business absorbed in the particular subject of debate, added to which, his manner was indifferent, his voice harsh, and his action, though forcible, inelegant. On the whole, though the greatest genius, he was by no means the most effective orator, in the house of commons.

BURMANN, the name of a family of learned men, originally from Cologne. Francis Burmann, one of the most celebrated, was born in 1671, and became professor at Leyden and Utrecht, where he died in 1719, was author of several theological writings. His brother Peter, born at Utrecht, in 1668, studied there and at Leyden. After travelling in Germany and Switzerland he began the practice of the law, without, however, deserting the study of the ancients, as is proved by his treatise, "*De Vectigalibus*." In 1696 he was made professor of history and rhetoric at the university of Utrecht, and at a later period he became professor of the Greek language and politics. From this time he published, annually, either some classic author with notes, or masterly Latin verses, or a pamphlet against his adversaries, of whom he had made many by his intolerant vehemence. His editions of the classics are not so much distinguished for taste as for learning and accuracy. He became professor of eloquence, history, and the Greek language, in Leyden in 1715, and died in 1741. His younger brother, Francis, died in 1719, while professor of theology at Utrecht, and was the author of several theological writings. He left four sons, distinguished likewise as scholars.—John, born in 1706, died in 1780 at Amsterdam, was a physician and professor of botany. Linnæus makes honourable mention of his writings.—Peter, born in 1713, devoted himself, like his uncle, to philological pursuits. He was made doctor of law

at Utrecht in 1734, and in the following year he became professor of eloquence and history at the university of Franeker. He afterwards went to Amsterdam, as professor of history and ancient languages, where he became, in succession, professor of poetry, librarian, and inspector of the gymnasium. Like his uncle he has published many good editions, particularly of the Latin classics; like him, he was distinguished by learning, by his talent for Latin poetry, and by his hasty disposition. He died in 1788.—Nicolaus Laurentius Burmann succeeded in 1781 his father, John Burmann, as professor of botany, for which science he did much by his own writings and by aiding the undertakings of others. In particular, he encouraged Thunberg to visit the Cape of Good Hope and Japan. He died in 1793.

BURMANN, GOTTLÖB WILLIAM, a poet of considerable merit, born in 1737, at Lauban, in Upper Lusatia, and resided in Berlin in great poverty. He was small of figure, meagre, lame, and deformed, but was endowed with sensibility for every thing sublime and beautiful. His merits were obscured by his singularities, and his vigorous mind was forgotten before he died. He had a rare talent of improvisation; but, being struck with palsy, he passed the last ten years of his life in great misery. His most celebrated works are his fables, songs, and his poems without the letter *r*. He died in 1805.

BURNET, GILBERT.—This distinguished ornament of the English church was born at Edinburgh, September 18th, 1643. He received the first rudiments of his education in his father's house, and was afterwards sent to college at Aberdeen.



In 1663 he visited Oxford and Cambridge, and then made a tour through France and Holland. In the following year he was ordained a minister of the church of Scotland at Edinburgh, and presented by Sir Robert Fletcher to the living of Saltoun, which had been kept vacant during his absence. He soon gained the affections of his parishioners, not excepting the presbyterians, though he was almost the only clergyman in Scotland that made use of the prayers in the liturgy of the church of England. During the five years he remained at Saltoun, he preached twice every Sunday, and once on one of the week-days;



he catechized three times a week, so as to examine every parishioner, old or young, three times in the course of a year; he went round the parish from house to house, instructing, reproving, or comforting them, as occasion required; the sick he visited twice a day; he administered the sacrament four times a year, and personally instructed all such as gave notice of their intention to receive it. All that remained above his own necessary subsistence (in which he was very frugal) he gave away in charity.

When the sees vacant by the deprivation of the nonjuring bishops were filled up, Bishop Williams was appointed to preach one of the consecration-sermons at Bow Church; but, being detained by some accident, the archbishop of Canterbury desired Dr. Burnet, then in London, to supply his place, which he readily did, to the general satisfaction of all present. About 1668, the government of Scotland being in the hands of moderate men, of whom the principal was Sir Robert Murray, he was frequently consulted by them; and it was through his advice that some of the more moderate presbyterians were put into the vacant churches—a step which he afterwards condemned. In 1669 he was made professor of divinity at Glasgow, in which station he executed the following plan of study:—On Mondays he made each of the students, in their turn, explain a head of divinity in Latin, and propound such theses from it as he was to defend against the rest of the scholars; and this exercise concluded with the professor's decision of the point in a Latin oration. On Tuesdays he gave them a prelection in the same language, in which he proposed, in the course of eight years, to have gone through a complete system of divinity. On Wednesdays he read them a lecture, for above an hour, after which he passed a critical commentary on St. Matthew's Gospel, which he finished before he quitted the chair. On Thursdays the exercise was alternate: one Thursday he expounded a Hebrew psalm, comparing it with the Septuagint and the English version, and the next Thursday, he explained some portion of the ritual and constitution of the primitive church, making the apostolical canons his text, and reducing every article of practice under the head of one or other of those canons. On Fridays he made each of his scholars, in course, preach a short sermon upon some text he assigned; and, when it was ended, he observed upon any thing that was defective in the mode of explaining the subject. This was the labour of the mornings; in the evenings, after prayer, he every day read some portion of scripture. All this he performed during the time the schools were open; and, in order to acquit himself with credit, he was obliged to study hard from four till ten in the morning, the rest of the day being of necessity allotted to the care of his pupils. In this situation he continued four years and a half, exposed, through his principles of moderation, to the censure both of the episcopal and presbyterian parties.

Burnet now published his "Modest and Free Conference between a Conformist and a Nonconformist." About this time he was entrusted, by the duchess of Hamilton, with the perusal and arrangement of all the papers relating to her father's and uncle's ministry, which induced him to commence "Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton," and caused his being invited to London, to receive further information respecting the transactions of those times, by the earl of Lauderdale, between whom and the duke of Hamilton he effected a recon-

ciliation. During his stay in London he was offered a Scotch bishopric, which he refused. Soon after his return to Glasgow, he married the lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Cassilis. In 1672 he published his "Vindication of the Authority, Constitution, and Laws, of the Church and State of Scotland," against the principles of Buchanan and others, which was thought, at that juncture, such a public service that he was again pressed to accept of a bishopric, with a promise of the next vacant archbishopric, but he persisted in his refusal of that dignity. In 1673 he took another journey to London, where at the express nomination of the king, after hearing him preach, he was sworn one of his majesty's chaplains in ordinary. He became likewise in high favour with his majesty and the duke of York. At his return to Edinburgh, finding the animosities between the dukes of Hamilton and Lauderdale revived, he retired to Glasgow; but was obliged the next year to return to court, to justify himself against the accusations of the duke of Lauderdale, who represented him as the cause of all the opposition which the measures of the court had met with in the Scotch parliament. Thus he lost the favour of the court; and, to avoid putting himself into the hands of his enemies, he resigned the professor's chair at Glasgow, and resolved to settle in London. Soon after he was offered the living of St. Giles's, Cripplegate, which he declined accepting, because he heard that it was intended for Dr. Fowler, afterwards bishop of Gloucester. In 1675, at the recommendation of Lord Holles, and notwithstanding the interposition of the court against him, he was appointed preacher at the Rolls' Chapel by Sir Harbottle Grimstone, master of the rolls. He was soon after chosen lecturer of St. Clement's, and became a very popular preacher. In 1676 he published his "Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton," and, the same year, "An Account of a Conference between himself, Dr. Stillingfleet, and Coleman." About this time the apprehensions of the catholics were so great that he undertook to write the "History of the Reformation of the Church of England." The progress of this useful work is an object of too much importance to require any apology for its length. His own account of it is as follows: "Some time after I had printed the 'Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton,' which were favourably received, the reading of these procured me the acquaintance and friendship of Sir William Jones, then attorney-general. My way of writing history pleased him; and so he pressed me to undertake the history of England. But Sanders's book, that was then translated into French, and cried up much in France, made all my friends press me to answer it, by writing the 'History of the Reformation.' So now all my thoughts were turned that way. I laid out for manuscripts, and searched into all offices. I got for some days into the Cotton Library. But the earl of Lauderdale hearing of my design, and apprehending it might succeed in my hands, got Dolben, bishop of Rochester, to divert Sir John Cotton from suffering me to search into his library. He told him I was a great enemy to the prerogative, to which Cotton was devoted, even to slavery. So he said I would certainly make an ill use of all I had found. This wrought so much on him that I was no more admitted, till my first volume was published. And then, when he saw how I had composed it, he gave me free access to it." The first volume of this work



lay near a year after it was finished for the perusal and correction of friends, so that it was not published till the year 1679, when the affair of the popish plot was in agitation. This book procured its author an honour never before or since paid to any writer: he had the thanks of both houses of parliament, with a desire that he would prosecute the undertaking, and complete that valuable work. Accordingly, in less than two years after, he printed the second volume, which met with the same general approbation as the first; and such was his readiness in composing that he wrote the historical part in less than six weeks after his materials were in order. The third volume, containing a supplement to the two former, was published in 1714. Bishop Burnet gives in this work an account of the reformation, from its beginning in the reign of Henry VIII. to its final establishment under Queen Elizabeth, A. D. 1559. The collection of records, which he gives at the end of each volume, are good vouchers of the truth of what he states in the body of the history, and are much more perfect than could reasonably be expected after the pains taken, in Queen Mary's days, to suppress every thing that carried the marks of the reformation upon it. This work met with a very favourable reception abroad, and was translated into most of the European languages; and even the keenest of his enemies, Henry Wharton, allows it to have "a reputation firmly and deservedly established." The most eminent of the French writers who attacked it, M. Varillas and M. Le Grand, have received satisfactory replies from the author himself. At home it was attacked by Mr. S. Lowth, who censured the account Dr. Burnet had given of some of Archbishop Cranmer's opinions, asserting that both Dr. Burnet and Dr. Stillingfleet had imposed upon the world in that particular, and had "unfaithfully joined together" in their endeavours to lessen episcopal ordination. The next assailant was Henry Wharton, who, under the name of Anthony Harmer, published "A Specimen of some Errors and Defects in the History of the Reformation," 1693. A third attack on this history was made by Dr. Hickeys, in his "Discourses on Dr. Burnet and Dr. Tillotson," in which the whole charge amounts to no more than this, that, "in a matter of no great consequence, there was too little care had in copying or examining a letter writ in a very bad hand," and that there was some probability that Dr. Burnet "was mistaken in one of his conjectures." In 1682 Dr. Burnet published "An Abridgment of his History of the Reformation," in which he states that he had wholly waived every thing that belonged to the records and the proof of what he relates, or to the confutation of the falsehoods that run through the catholic historians, all which is to be found in the History at large; and therefore, in this abridgment, he says every thing is to be taken upon trust; and those who desire a fuller satisfaction are referred to the volumes he had previously published.

In 1682, when the administration was wholly changed in favour of the duke of York, he continued steady in his adherence to his friends, and chose to sacrifice all his views at court, particularly a promise of the mastership of the Temple, rather than break off his correspondence with them. This year he published his "Life of Sir Matthew Hale," and his "History of the Rights of Princes, in disposing of Ecclesiastical Benefices and Church-lands," which

being attacked by an anonymous writer, Dr. Burnet published, the same year, "An Answer to the Animadversions on the History of the Rights of Princes." Upon the execution of the lord Russel, with whom he was familiarly acquainted, he was examined before the house of commons, with respect to that nobleman's speech upon the scaffold, in the composition of which he was suspected to have been engaged. Not long after he refused the offer of a living of 300*l.* a year, in the gift of the earl of Halifax, who would have presented it to him, on condition of his residing in London. In 1683 he went over to Paris, where he was well received by the court; and the same year appeared his "Translation and Examination of a Letter, writ by the last General Assembly of the Clergy of France to the Protestants, inviting them to return to their Communion, &c.," also his "Translation of Sir Thomas More's Utopia," with a "Preface respecting the Nature of Translations." The year following the resentment of the court against him was so great that he was discharged from his lecture at St. Clement's, by virtue of the king's mandate to Dr. Hascard, rector of that parish; and in December the same year, by an order from the lord-keeper North to Sir Harbottle Grimstone, he was forbidden preaching any more at the Rolls' Chapel. In 1685 came out Dr. Burnet's "Life of Dr. William Bedell, Bishop of Kilmore in Ireland." Upon the death of King Charles, and accession of King James, having obtained leave to go out of the kingdom, Burnet acted a very important part in the revolution of 1688. He wrote several pamphlets in support of the prince of Orange's designs, which were reprinted, at London in 1689, under the title of "A Collection of Eighteen Papers relating to the Affairs of Church and State during the Reign of King James II. &c." And, when his highness undertook the expedition to England, Dr. Burnet accompanied him as his chaplain, notwithstanding the particular circumstances of danger to which he was exposed. During these transactions, Dr. Crew, bishop of Durham, who had rendered himself obnoxious by the part he had acted in the high-commission court, having proposed to the prince of Orange to resign his bishopric in favour of Dr. Burnet, on condition of an allowance of 1000*l.* per annum out of the revenue, he refused to accept it on those terms. But King William had not been many days on the throne before Dr. Burnet was advanced to the see of Salisbury, and consecrated in March, 1689. In 1699 he published his "Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England." This work was censured by the lower house of convocation in 1701, first, as allowing a variety of opinions, which the articles were framed to prevent; 2ndly, as containing many passages contrary to the true meaning of the articles, and to other received doctrines of our church; and, 3dly, as containing some things of pernicious consequence to the church, and derogatory to the honour of the reformation. But that house refusing to enter into particulars, unless they might at the same time offer some other matters to the upper house, which the bishops would not admit of, the affair was dropped.

In 1705 he was appointed to preach the thanksgiving-sermon before the queen at St. Paul's. The same year he drew up a memorial respecting the abuses of the Scotch bishops, which exposed him to the resentment of that order.

Towards the close of his life, Bishop Burnet was indefatigably engaged in his great work entitled "History of his Own Times," and it certainly furnishes the best view of the period now in existence. So numerous however were his avocations that it did not appear till 1724, when it was published by his son. But our space will not permit even of an enumeration of all the works that proceeded from the pen of this prolific writer, and it may be enough to state that he laboured incessantly both in church and state till the time of his death, which occurred March 17th, 1715. He was interred in the parish-church of St. James, Clerkenwell; and the monument forms a marked specimen of the bad taste which pervaded the sculpture of the period.

BURNET, THOMAS, a learned divine and philosopher, who was born at Croft, in Yorkshire, about 1635, educated under Dr. Ralph Cudworth, at Cambridge, and afterwards travelled as tutor to several young noblemen. In 1681 he made himself known by his "Telluris sacra Theoria," which he subsequently translated into English. After the revolution of 1688, Burnet was appointed chaplain in ordinary and clerk of the closet to King William. In 1682 he published his "Archæologia Philosophica, sive Doctrina Antiqua de Rerum Originibus;" and the freedom of opinion displayed in this work led to the removal of the author from the clerkship of the royal closet. He died in September, 1715, and was interred in the Charter-house chapel. All the works of Burnet exhibit him as an ingenious speculator, rather than as a patient and sober enquirer, concerning the moral and natural phenomena of which he treats. His great work, the "Theory of the Earth," is one of the many systems of cosmogony, in which Christian philosophers have attempted to reconcile the Mosaic account of the creation, paradise, and the deluge, with the traditions of the ancients, and the principles of modern science. His speculations are recommended by sublimity of description and eloquence of style. In his "Archæologia Philosophica," the doctor has combatted the literal interpretation of the history of the fall of man; and, to expose its improbability, he has introduced an imaginary dialogue between Eve and the serpent, which, as coming from the pen of a divine, is singular enough. It is only to be found in the first edition of the work.

BURNETT, JAMES, better known by his official title of Lord Monboddo, as judge of the court of session in Scotland. He was born in 1714, at the family seat of Monboddo, in Kincardineshire. After studying at Aberdeen, he went to the university of Groningen, whence he returned in 1738, and commenced practice as an advocate at the Scottish bar. In 1767 he was raised to the bench on the decease of his relative, Lord Miltoch, and he shortly after distinguished himself by his writings as a metaphysician, having published a "Dissertation on the Origin and Progress of Language," and "Ancient Metaphysics." Lord Monboddo was an enthusiastic admirer of ancient literature, and especially of the works of Plato and other Grecian philosophers. His works contain many interesting observations, but also exhibit some strange and paradoxical opinions. Thus he seriously advocates the existence of satyrs and mermaids, and has advanced some whimsical speculations relative to a supposed affinity between the human race and the monkey tribe, which exposed him

to a good deal of ridicule on the first publication of his theories. Both his official and his private character were extremely respectable; and he was, notwithstanding his eccentricities, a man of considerable learning and ability. He died, in consequence of a paralytic stroke, at Edinburgh, May 26, 1799.

BURNEY, CHARLES, a celebrated composer and writer on music, born at Shrewsbury in 1726. He began his studies at Chester under the organist of the cathedral there, continued them at Shrewsbury under the direction of his half-brother, James Burney, and completed them in London, between 1744 and 1747, under Dr. Arne. His musical pieces "Alfred" and "Queen Mab," composed in 1759, made him known. In 1751 he obtained the place of organist at Lynn Regis in Norfolk; and, while there, he commenced his "General History of Music," and determined to visit all the institutions in Europe, at which he could obtain important information for his work. In 1760 he returned to London, at the request of the duke of York, where his compositions, and the musical skill of his eldest daughter, then eight years of age, excited great admiration. In 1769 the university of Oxford bestowed on him the honorary degree of doctor of music. In 1770 he visited France and Italy, and, two years afterwards, the Netherlands and Germany, for the sake of his great work. After his second return, he became a fellow of the royal society; and, in 1776, appeared the first volume of his "General History of Music from the Earliest Ages to the Present Period;" the second in 1779, and the third and fourth in 1789. He is the author also of several other valuable works, among which are the "Memoir of Handel," and several musical compositions. He died in April, 1814, holding the office of organist at Chelsea College. He wrote most of the musical articles in Rees' Cyclopædia. Burney had a numerous family, several members of which have highly distinguished themselves. His second daughter, Francisca d'Arblay, is the authoress of the well-known novels "Evelina," "Cecilia," and "Camilla."

BURNEY, CHARLES, second son of the historian of music, a classical scholar and critic of high reputation. He was born at Lynn in Norfolk, in 1757, and received his education at the Charter-house School and the universities of Cambridge and Aberdeen. He distinguished himself as a writer in the "Monthly Review," to which he contributed many articles on classical literature; and, he subsequently entered into holy orders, and obtained some preferment in the church. He died in December 1817; and, his valuable collection of books, many of them enriched with manuscript notes, was purchased by parliament for the British Museum. Burney published an appendix to Scapula's Greek Lexicon from the MSS. of Dr. Askew, a valuable edition of the "Choral Odes of Æschylus" the Greek tragedian, the "Greek Lexicon of Philemon," "Remarks on the Greek Verses of Milton," an "Abridgment of Pearson's Exposition of the Creed," and a sermon preached at St. Paul's, besides which he printed for private distribution a small impression of the Latin epistles of Dr. Bentley and other learned scholars.

BURNS, ROBERT.—The native poet of Scotland—the peasant whose genius carved out for itself a niche in the temple of immortality—holds too high a rank in the literature of our island to be dismissed with a very



brief or hasty notice. His history also furnishes a memorable example of the miseries arising from the possession of extraordinary talents, unaccompanied by habits of prudence and self-control. He was the son of William Burness, a gardener and small farmer, resident near the town of Ayr. The poet was born January 25, 1759, in a small cottage, of which we present a sketch beneath.



In his sixth year Robert Burns began to attend a school at Alloway Mill, about a mile distant; but, the teacher being speedily preferred to a better situation, William Burness and a few of his neighbours adopted a measure which is not unusual in the country districts of Scotland; that is, they engaged a person to teach their children, upon condition that he should live in the houses of his employers alternately, and that they should afford him a salary to a small amount, providing the fees from his scholars did not extend to as much. The teacher's name on this occasion was Mr. Murdoch. With him our poet appears to have learned to read and write his own language grammatically. His master, in a letter upon this subject, published by Dr. Currie of Liverpool in his elegant and interesting history of the life of Robert Burns, gives the following account of Robert and his younger brother. "My pupil, Robert Burns, was then between six and seven years of age, his preceptor about eighteen. Robert and his younger brother Gilbert had been grounded a little in English before they were put under my care. They both made a rapid progress in reading, and a tolerable progress in writing. In reading, dividing words into syllables by rule, spelling without book, parsing sentences, &c., Robert and Gilbert were generally at the upper end of the class, even when ranged with boys by far their seniors. The books most commonly used in the school were the "Spelling Book," the "New Testament," the "Bible," "Mason's Collection of Prose and Verse," and "Fisher's Grammar." They committed to memory the hymns and other poems of that collection with uncommon facility. This facility was partly owing to the method pursued by their father and me in instructing them, which was to make them thoroughly acquainted with the meaning of every word in each sentence that was to be committed to memory. Gilbert always appeared to me to possess a more lively imagination than Robert. I attempted to teach them a little church music. Here they were left far behind by all the rest of the school. Robert's ear, in

particular, was remarkably dull, and his voice untuneable. It was long before I could get them to distinguish one tune from another. Robert's countenance was generally grave, and expressive of a serious, contemplative, and thoughtful mind. Gilbert's face said, *Mirth, with thee I mean to live!* And certainly, if any person who knew the two boys had been asked which of them was the most likely to court the muses, he would surely never have guessed that Robert had a propensity of that kind."

Robert Burns was soon removed from this teacher, in consequence of his father having taken a farm, called Mount Oliphant. And here, as it was a solitary place, his father was the only teacher of our poet; and, as soon as his strength enabled him, he was employed in working laboriously upon the farm. When he was thirteen years of age, Robert Burns was sent during a summer quarter to the parish school of Dalrymple, for the sake of learning to write. In the following year, 1773, he was sent to Ayr to his former teacher, Mr. Murdoch, who by that time had been appointed master of the English school there. Mr. Murdoch, in the letter already mentioned, speaks upon the subject thus: "In 1773, Robert Burns came to board and lodge with me, for the purpose of revising his English grammar, &c., that he might be better qualified to instruct his brothers and sisters at home. He was now with me day and night in school, at all meals, and in all my walks. At the end of one week I told him that, as he was now pretty much master of the parts of speech, &c., I should like to teach him something of French pronunciation, that when he should meet with the name of a French town, ship, officer, or the like, in the newspapers, he might be able to pronounce it something like a French word. Robert was glad to hear this proposal, and immediately we attacked the French with great courage. Now there was little else to be heard but the declension of nouns, the conjugation of verbs, &c. When walking together, and even at meals, I was constantly telling him the names of different objects, as they presented themselves, in French; so that he was hourly laying in a stock of words, and sometimes little phrases. In short, he took so much pleasure in learning, and I in teaching, that it was difficult to say which of the two was most zealous in the business; and, about the end of the second week of the study of the French, we began to read a little of the 'Adventures of Telemachus,' in Fenelon's own words.

"But now the plains of Mount Oliphant began to whiten, and Robert was summoned to relinquish the pleasing scenes that surrounded the grotto of Calypso, and, armed with a sickle, to seek glory by signaling himself in the fields of Ceres; and so he did, for, although but about fifteen, I was told that he performed the part of a man. Thus was I deprived of my very apt pupil, and consequently agreeable companion, at the end of three weeks, one of which was spent entirely in the study of English, and the other two chiefly in that of French."

Such was the literary education of Robert Burns. He indeed made some efforts, without the aid of a teacher, to acquire a knowledge of the Latin language, but he made little or no progress. In the mean time he continued engaged in country work upon his father's farm. At thirteen years of age he assisted in thrashing the crop of corn; at fifteen he was his father's principal labourer; and in this situation he

continued till his twenty-third year. His father was unprosperous in his affairs. He took advantage of a breach allowed by the lease of his first farm, which was of a poor and bad soil; and in 1777 he removed to another in Tarbolton parish, where he was not more prosperous. Continued anxiety appears to have weakened his constitution, and he died on the 13th of February, 1784; so that in his twenty-third year Robert Burns, finding that he had no capital to afford a prospect of settling in life as a farmer, thought of turning flax dresser, and engaged for a time in that employment at Irvine; but he found the business unsuitable both to his health and inclination. It appears that, his flax having caught fire, his work-shop was burned, while he and a party of his companions were occupying themselves in gaily welcoming the new year, a circumstance which put an end to this enterprise.

Thus the early life of Burns was spent in poverty and severe toil, and was cheered by no happy prospects of future prosperity; but he seems to have enjoyed considerable advantages of a moral nature. The character of his father appears to have been highly respectable in his station, being a pious, upright, and deserving man. Our poet witnessed in his father's house domestic life in its happiest form; and the description in the "Cotter's Saturday Night" is considered as a faithful picture of it. Burns, from time to time, obtained the means of perusing a variety of books of merit in the English language, by means of which his taste was formed; and, along with some other peasants' sons, he formed two different clubs at Tarbolton and Mauchline, which held meetings for debating upon such general subjects as might appear instructive or entertaining to the members. Thus he acquired a facility and a force of expression, without premeditation, much superior to what mere men of letters usually possess, and which excited some surprise when he was afterwards introduced into public life.

Burns began very early to exhibit specimens of his poetical talents, which attracted notice only among persons of his own rank in the neighbourhood; and many of his best efforts were in danger of being lost to the public. The energy of mind which could enable a man, with his hands at the plough and his spirits exhausted by labour and by coarse fare, to seize every opportunity of improving his best powers and to meditate on the beautiful and sublime of nature, necessarily implied the possession of acute feelings and a strong love of pleasure. This last, however, is the most dangerous rock which can come into the way of a poor man, as the degree of indulgence which would produce little mischief to persons in liberal circumstances must speedily ruin his affairs and whole prospects. Though in the circumstances under which he was placed, Burns must from necessity have lived with much sobriety, according to the meaning which persons in easy circumstances give to that word, yet he gradually was considered by persons of his own rank as a lover of a degree of social gaiety little suited to his station. Some of his poems which were first published occasioned much scandal to the graver part of the community, by their tendency to turn into ridicule the religious peculiarities of his countrymen. At this time, when twenty-three years of age, his affairs were so desperate that he found no resource, excepting that of an engagement to go to Jamaica in the station

of a book-keeper, in one of the slave colonies. He was unable, however, to pay the expense of his passage, a difficulty which was surmounted by publishing in Ayr a first edition of his poems, that is, of those which were then written. He himself, in a letter, speaks thus upon the subject: "My vanity was highly gratified by the reception I met with from the public; and, besides, I pocketed, all expenses deducted, nearly twenty pounds. This sum came very seasonably, as I was thinking of indenting myself, for want of money, to procure my passage. As soon as I was master of nine guineas, the price of wafting me to the torrid zone, I took a steerage passage in the first ship that was to sail from the Clyde; for

"Hungry ruin had me in the wind."

I had for some days been skulking from covert to covert, under all the terrors of a jail, as some ill-advised people had uncoupled all the unmerciless pack of the law at my heels,—I had taken the last farewell of my few friends,—my chest was on the road to Greenock,—I had composed the last song I should ever measure in Caledonia, 'The gloomy night is gathering fast,'—when a letter from Dr. Blacklock to a friend of mine overthrew all my schemes, by opening new prospects to my poetic ambition."

At the time when Burns, in consequence of Dr. Blacklock's suggestion, arrived in Edinburgh, his poems had attracted the notice of the gentlemen who were then publishing the periodical paper entitled the "Lounger." Accordingly the ninety-seventh number contains "An Account of Robert Burns, the Ayrshire Ploughman, with Extracts from his Poems." This number was written by Mr. M'Kenzie, author of the "Man of Feeling." As the "Lounger" had an extensive circulation, Burns was thus introduced very advantageously to the notice of the world. The men of letters received him in the most flattering manner. As his talents for conversation were powerful and striking, he immediately became an acceptable guest in the most fashionable circles. This gave him currency among all orders of society, and all classes of persons were ambitious to be introduced to his society and acquaintance. Dr. Currie remarks that "a taste for letters is not always conjoined with habits of temperance and regularity, and Edinburgh, at the period of which we speak, contained perhaps an uncommon proportion of men of considerable talents devoted to social excesses, in which their talents were wasted and debased.

"Burns entered into several parties of this description with the usual vehemence of his character. His generous affections, his ardent eloquence, his brilliant and daring imagination, fitted him to be the idol of such associations; and, accustoming himself to conversation of unlimited range, and to festive indulgences that scorned restraint, he gradually lost some portion of his relish for the more pure, but less poignant, pleasures to be found in the circles of taste, elegance, and literature. The sudden alteration in his habits of life operated on him physically as well as morally. The humble fare of an Ayrshire peasant he had now exchanged for the luxuries of the Scottish metropolis, and the effects of this change on his ardent constitution could not be inconsiderable. But, whatever influence might be produced on his conduct, his excellent understanding suffered no corresponding debasement. He estimated his friends and associates of every description at their proper



value, and appreciated his own conduct with a precision that might give scope to much curious and melancholy reflection. He saw his danger, and at times formed resolutions to guard against it, but he had embarked on the tide of dissipation, and was borne along its stream."

It may be remarked that the situation of Burns, after arriving in Edinburgh, was extremely hazardous and critical. He had come to the capital of his native country in quest of fortune, which could only be attained by his becoming an object of public attention. He could not therefore, with propriety, shun the gay parties to which he was invited, or withdraw to sober obscurity. But his own rank in society was so extremely humble that almost every person whom he met was his superior in station, and might without impropriety aspire to his acquaintance. Every student at the advanced classes in the university found it an easy matter to be introduced to his notice, and invited him to his apartments. Every citizen in easy circumstances, being in like manner his equal or superior, invited him to his house. Burns was in the mean time an idle man, who had nothing else to do but to see the world; wherever he went he found parties assembled to receive him, which contained always a mixture of intelligent persons. From the situation out of which he had so recently emerged, when introduced into a strange city it was impossible for him at once to discriminate the invitations which he ought to accept from those which he might with prudence have avoided. Had he been merely a poet, the public curiosity, having gratified itself, might have soon left him in peace; but his talents for conversation, which were now undoubtedly improved by being frequently called forth, produced a general fondness for his society. Add to this that it would imply great ignorance of human nature to suppose that Burns was not gratified by finding his company steadily courted, or that he could without reluctance deny himself the enjoyment of all the combined luxuries of sense and vanity. The result of the whole was that during a twelve-month Burns was engaged in a continual succession of festivity, and may be said to have run the gauntlet of eating and drinking against the whole city of Edinburgh. This was undoubtedly more than either the health or the self-command of Burns, educated in penury and hard labour, was adequate to resist. The workings and efforts of a powerful and restless mind, particularly when devoted to the indulgence and the labour of the imagination, as must occur to a poet, can scarcely fail to derange the ordinary operations of the vital system, and to produce a portion of what are styled nervous affections, or complaints of the stomach and the head. Accordingly, though Burns was a strong man and capable of enduring much bodily labour, his frame had a delicacy in this respect which would have rendered habits of strict temperance necessary to the enjoyment of a long and a happy life; but both his bodily strength and his powers of self-command were exposed to harder trials than usually fall to the lot of humanity. He had been reared amidst poverty and toil, and he had been suddenly introduced to a state of idleness and to a train of extreme and unusual luxury. This last sort of pleasure coming in an irresistible form, it is not to be wondered at that he acquired a love of it, or such a want of severe temperance as might ultimately prove dangerous to him.

BIOGRAPHY.—VOL. I.

In the summer and autumn of 1787 Burns was enabled, by the profits arising from a new edition of his works, to make a tour to the south of Scotland, and afterwards to the north. Wherever he went he was treated with the most flattering attention, and received as a welcome guest by the noble, the learned, and the gay. In February 1788, when he settled with his bookseller, he found himself in possession of 500*l.* after deducting all expenses incurred by his subsistence and journey. With this sum he returned to Ayrshire, and immediately lent 200*l.* to his brother, to enable him to conduct with success his employment as a farmer. He himself immediately married the young woman whom he had formerly wished to marry, and with the sum of 300*l.* was now to begin the world. It was the great misfortune of Burns that he had been bred to no professional employment, even of a mechanical nature. Hence it became difficult for him to engage in that sort of steady industry which might have enabled him to surmount any improper habits acquired during his residence in Edinburgh; and it also became extremely difficult for him to rise in the world, or for the persons who sincerely wished to promote his best interests to be of any service to him. Had he been bred to any mechanical trade, his talents would have raised him in the world, as he had friends enough to have procured him abundance of credit and employment. He might thus speedily have reached, without any sort of severe drudgery, that independence which was extremely dear to him, and his good sense might have led him to withdraw from the familiarity of those who could not associate with him without riot or festivity. Burns himself appears to have been not a little perplexed about the course of life which he ought to follow for the purpose of supporting a future family. In casting his eyes around, he unfortunately found no employment, excepting that of an excise-officer, in which he could hope successfully to engage. Mr. Graham of Finty, one of the commissioners of excise, readily gave him a promise of his patronage, and this promise was afterwards faithfully fulfilled. Burns immediately set about acquiring the arithmetical knowledge necessary to enable him to fulfil the duties of such an office. In the mean time Mr. Miller of Dalswinton, in Dumfriesshire, had the generosity to send for Burns, and to offer him any farm, then out of lease, upon his estate, at such a rent as Burns or his friends should think proper. Burns chose a farm called Ellisland; but his spirit was too proud to allow him to take undue advantage of Mr. Miller's liberality. He consulted two persons skilled in the value of land about the rent which might be obtained by the proprietor for the farm. They fixed upon it such a rent as a man, with a suitable capital and skill, devoting himself to its cultivation, would be able to pay. This rent Burns offered to his landlord, and the offer was accepted. Soon after, by Mr. Graham's interest, Burns was appointed exciseman of the district in which he lived.

In this situation Burns did not and scarcely could have been expected to prosper. Had he possessed a capital of 2000*l.*, and sat down as a farmer in a fertile corn district, the example of his neighbours would have given him sufficient necessary instructions, which, when added to his skill as a workman, might have ensured his success, and at the same time have afforded him the leisure and the

affluence enjoyed by a gentleman farmer; but, in the situation of a small tenant, with a trifling capital, success could only be purchased by constant labour, and a frugality approaching to extreme penury. Burns, however, was by this time a public character; he enjoyed that currency which fashion confers. He was a welcome guest at the tables of the gentlemen of Nithsdale, and his company was eagerly solicited on every occasion of festivity. He was thus withdrawn from his business, and led to regard with disgust the humble fare and the dwelling which his own circumstances could afford. The matter was not mended by endeavouring to add the income of an exciseman to the profits of his farm. The farm being left chiefly to the management of servants could not be conducted in the best manner; and Burns, degraded in his own eyes, was rendered the associate of persons in the lowest rank, and not of the most sober habits. Thus he appears to have passed some unhappy years, his affairs unprosperous, his family increasing, and his proud spirit agitated by fits of intemperance and repentance. About the end of the year 1791 he found it necessary to relinquish his farm and remove to Dumfries, to which district he had been promoted by the board of excise, and where his emoluments as an officer amounted to about seventy pounds per annum.

Allan Cunningham, in his admirable life of the poet prefixed to his works, furnishes us with the following sketch of Burns' doings at Ellisland:—"In the month of May, 1788, Burns made his appearance as a farmer in Nithsdale. His fame had flown before him, and his coming was expected. Ellisland is beautifully situated on the south side of the Nith, some six miles above Dumfries. Though he got possession of the farm in May, the rent did not commence till Martinmas, as the ground was unenclosed and the houses unbuilt. By the agreement, Millar granted to Burns four nineteen years' leases of Ellisland, at an annual rent for the first three years of fifty pounds, and seventy pounds for the remaining seventy-three years of the tack: the poet undertook for a sum not exceeding 300*l.* to build a complete farm onstead, consisting of dwelling-house, barn, byre, stable, and sheds, and to permit the proprietor to plant with forest trees the scaur or precipitous bank along the side of the Nith, and a belt of ground towards Friar's Carse, of not more than two acres, in order to shelter the farm from the sweep of the north-west wind. Burns was assisted in the choice of the farm, and the terms on which it was taken, by one or two Ayrshire friends. There were other farms to let of a superior kind on the estate, and those were pointed out by my father, steward to the proprietor—a Lothian farmer of skill and experience—but the fine romantic look of Ellisland induced Burns to shut his eyes on the low-lying and fertile Foregirth, upon which my father said, 'Mr. Burns, you have made a poet's, not a farmer's choice.'

"The poet was now a busy and a happy man. He had houses to build and grounds to enclose. That he might be near both he sought shelter in a low smoky hovel on the skirts of his farm. There he was to be found by all who had curiosity or taste, with a table, books, and drawings before him, sometimes writing letters about the land and the people among whom he had dropped like a slung stone, sometimes giving audience to workmen who were busy at dyking or digging foundations, and not unfrequently

brushing up, as Mrs. Burns said, an old song for Johnson's Musical Museum.

"The walls of the poet's onstead began now to be visible from the north side of the Nith, and the rising structures were visited by all who were desirous of seeing how he wished to house himself. The plans were simple, the barn seemed too small for the extent of the farm, and the house for the accommodation of a large family. It contained an ample kitchen, which was to serve for dining-room, a room to hold two beds, a closet to hold one, and a garret, coom-ceiled, to contain others for the female servants. One of the windows looked down the holms, another opened on the river, and the house stood so nigh the lofty bank that its afternoon shadow fell across the stream upon the opposite fields. The garden was a little way from the house. A pretty footpath led southward along the river side; another ran northward, affording fine views of the Nith, and of the groves of Friar's Carse and Dalswinton; while, half-way down the steep declivity, a fine clear cool spring supplied water to the household. The situation was picturesque, and at the same time convenient for the purposes of the farm.

"During the progress of the work, Burns was often to be found walking among the men, urging them on, and eyeing with an anxious look the tedious process of uniting lime and stone. On laying the foundation he took off his hat, and asked a blessing on the home which was to shelter his household gods. I enquired of the man who told me this if Burns did not put forth his hand and help him in the progress of the work.—'Ay, that he did mony a time. If he saw us like to be beat wi' a big stane he would cry, 'Bide a wee!' and come rinnin'. We soon found out when he put to his hand—he beat a' I ever met for a dour lift.' When the walls rose as high as the window-heads, he sent a note into Dumfries ordering wood for the interior lintels. Twenty carpenters flocked round the messenger, all eager to look at the poet's hand-writing. In such touches the admiration of the country is well expressed.

"When it was made known in December, 1791, that Burns was about to relinquish the lease of Ellisland, his merits as a farmer were eagerly canvassed by the husbandmen around. One imputed his failure to the duties of the excise, to his being condemned to gallop 200 miles per week to inspect yeasty barrels, when his farm required his presence; another said that Mrs. Burns was intimate with a town life, but ignorant of the labours of barn and byre; a third observed that Ellisland was out of heart, and, in short, was the dearest farm in Nithsdale; while James Currie, a sagacious farmer whose land lay contiguous, remarked, when I enquired the cause of the poet's failure, 'Fail! how could he miss but fail when his servants ate the bread as fast as it was baked, and drank the ale as fast as it was brewed? Consider a little: at that time close economy was necessary to enable a farmer to clear twenty pounds a year by Ellisland. Now, Burns' handy-work was out of the question: he neither ploughed, nor sowed, nor reaped like a hard-working farmer; and then he had a bevy of idle servants from Ayrshire. The lasses were ay baking bread, and the lads ay lying about the fire-side eating it warm with ale. Waste of time and consumption of food would soon reach to twenty pounds a-year.'

In the year 1793 the ferment extended itself to



this country which had been diffused through Europe in consequence of the French revolution. The romantic spirit of Burns had previously interested him in the fallen fortunes of the exiled royal house of Stuart, and rendered him a sort of Jacobite; but the promise of unbounded amelioration to the destiny of the human race which the dawn of the French revolution held out produced a sympathy in its favour in a great number of benevolent and ardent spirits, and Burns, who had sung the patriotic triumphs of Bruce and Wallace, did not escape the contagion. He entered into none of the political associations which were frequent at that period; but, when the first of them was established at Edinburgh, he approved of its views in a letter to one of the members. In proportion as the sanguinary career of the French revolution had developed itself, and after the British government engaged in war with France, a terror of innovation diffused itself among all men of property, and a jealous persecution began to be exercised against all persons who had expressed any favour for the views of the first French leaders, or for political novelties. No man could prosper in ordinary business to whom this political crime was ascribed. Burns being a servant of government, and a public character, the board of excise, who had previously intended to promote him, instructed a superior officer to enquire into his conduct. Burns defended himself in a letter written with eloquence, but at the same time with independence. His steady friend Mr. Graham interposed in his behalf, and he was allowed to retain his situation, but given to understand that his promotion was deferred, and must depend upon his future good conduct. Burns now felt with extreme bitterness how much misery it is sometimes in the power of poverty to produce. He felt that he was a servant, that his success must depend, not upon the fidelity of his conduct, but upon moulding his language according to the views of his masters. Thus he had no choice between the support of his family and the sacrifice of a romantic independence of character which was dear to his imagination. The suspicions entertained of him by the board of excise made much noise. He was said to have been dismissed from his office, and a gentleman of much respectability proposed a subscription in his favour. He declined the offer in a letter which gave an account of the transaction, and contained the following remarks:—"The partiality of my countrymen," he observes, "has brought me forward as a man of genius, and has given me a character to support. In the poet I have avowed manly and independent sentiments, which I hope have been found in the man. Reasons of no less weight than the support of a wife and children have pointed out my present occupation as the only eligible line of life within my reach. Still my honest fame is my dearest concern; and a thousand times have I trembled at the idea of the degrading epithets that malice or misrepresentation may affix to my name. Often in blasting anticipation have I listened to some future hackney scribbler, with the heavy malice of savage stupidity, exultingly asserting that Burns, notwithstanding the *fanfaronade* of independence to be found in his works, and after having been held up to public view and to public estimation as a man of some genius, yet, quite destitute of resources within himself to support his borrowed dignity, dwindled into a paltry exciseman, and slunk out the rest of his insignificant existence

in the meanest of pursuits, and among the lowest of mankind. In your illustrious hands, Sir, permit me to lodge my strong disavowal and defiance of such slanderous falsehoods. Burns was a poor man from his birth, and an exciseman by necessity; but, I *will* say it, the sterling of his honest worth poverty could not debase, and his independent British spirit oppression might bend, but could not subdue."

We now come to the closing scene of the poet's life. Burns acknowledged that he owed some of his illness to folly; and, speaking of his besetting sins, he blames the spirit of evil for

"Showing us the tempting ware,  
Bright wines and bonnie lassies fair,  
To put us daft."

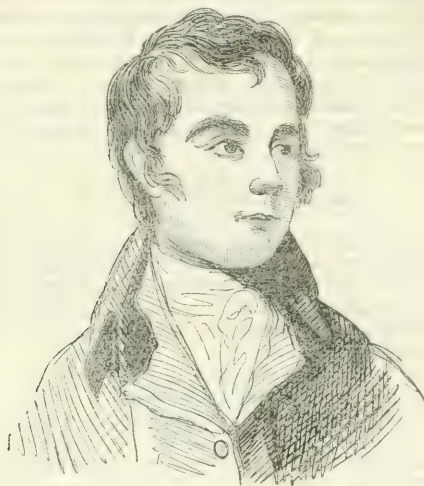
This is honest, and may mark some feelings of repentance for his early follies; but what shall we say to the last perfect offering of his Muse, always bearing in mind that it was written to a young lady who, from the purest motives, was attending the sick-bed of the dying poet:—

"Although thou maun never be mine,  
Although even hope is denied,  
'Tis sweeter for thee despairing  
Than aught in the world beside."

Now, at the time the poet was bestowing these very questionable compliments on the lady, his own "sweet lovely Jane," his long and devotedly attached wife, was struggling beneath the same roof to procure every comfort for their family, and to smooth the poet's death-couch.

Suffering from the most severe pecuniary embarrassments, Burns ultimately sunk under a complication of bodily infirmities, July 21, 1796. The death of Burns made a powerful impression throughout Scotland. In the previous year he had enrolled himself among the volunteers of Dumfries, and they resolved to bury their illustrious associate with military honours. According to the account given by Dr. Currie, "the fencible infantry of Angusshire, and the regiment of cavalry of the Cinque Ports, at that time quartered in Dumfries, offered their assistance on this occasion; the principal inhabitants of the town and neighbourhood determined to walk in the funeral procession; and a vast concourse of people assembled, some of them from a considerable distance, to witness the obsequies of the Scottish bard. On the evening of the 25th of July, the remains of Burns were removed from his house to the town-hall, and the funeral took place on the succeeding day. A party of the volunteers, selected to perform the military duty in the churchyard, stationed themselves in the front of the procession with their arms reversed. The main body of the corps surrounded and supported the coffin, on which were placed the hat and sword of their friend and fellow-soldier. The numerous body of attendants ranged themselves in the rear; while the fencible regiments of infantry and cavalry lined the streets from the town-hall to the burial-ground in the southern churchyard, a distance of more than half a mile. The whole procession moved forward to that sublime and affecting strain of music, the *dead march* in Saul; and three volleys fired over his grave marked the return of Burns to his parent earth." The scene was rendered more interesting by the consideration that his widow was at the same time undergoing the pains of labour; and during the funeral a posthumous son was born, who did not long survive. Burns left four other children, all

sons. He was in great poverty; but the prudence of his wife, and his own independence of spirit, had preserved him from debt, and from almost every sort of pecuniary meanness.



The following description of the person and character of Burns, given by his biographer, will be found to harmonize with the graphic sketch placed above:—"He was nearly five feet ten inches in height, and of a form that indicated agility as well as strength. His well-raised forehead, shaded with black curling hair, indicated extensive capacity. His eyes were large, dark, full of ardour and intelligence. His face was well-formed, and his countenance uncommonly interesting and expressive. His mode of dressing, which was often slovenly, and a certain fullness and bend in his shoulders, characteristic of his original profession, disguised in some degree the natural symmetry and elegance of his form. The external appearance of Burns was most strikingly indicative of the character of his mind. On a first view his physiognomy had a certain air of coarseness, mingled, however, with an expression of deep penetration, and of calm thoughtfulness approaching to melancholy. There appeared in his first manner and address perfect ease and self-possession, but a stern and almost supercilious elevation, not indeed incompatible with openness and affability, which, however, bespoke a mind conscious of superior talents. Strangers that supposed themselves approaching an Ayrshire peasant who could make rhymes, and to whom their notice was an honour, found themselves speedily overawed by the presence of a man who bore himself with dignity, and who possessed a singular power of correcting forwardness and repelling intrusion. But, though jealous of the respect due to himself, Burns never enforced it where he saw it was willingly paid; and, though inaccessible to the approaches of pride, he was open to every advance of kindness and benevolence. His dark and haughty countenance easily relaxed into a look of good will, of pity, or of tenderness; and, as the various emotions succeeded each other in his mind, assumed with equal ease the expression of the broadest humour, of the most extravagant mirth, of the deepest melancholy, or of the most sublime emotion.

The tones of his voice happily corresponded with the expression of his features and with the feelings of his mind. When to these endowments are added a rapid and distinct apprehension, a most powerful understanding, and a happy command of language, of strength as well as brilliancy of expression, we shall be able to account for the extraordinary attractions of his conversation, for the sorcery which in his social parties he seemed to exert on all around him. In the company of women this sorcery was more especially apparent. Their presence charmed the fiend of melancholy in his bosom, and awoke his happiest feelings; it excited the powers of his fancy as well as the tenderness of his heart, and, by restraining the vehemence and the exuberance of his language, at times gave to his manners the impression of taste, and even of elegance, which in the company of men they seldom possessed. This influence was doubtless reciprocal. A Scottish lady, accustomed to the best society, declared, with characteristic *naïveté*, that no man's conversation ever carried her so completely off her feet as that of Burns; and an English lady, familiarly acquainted with several of the most distinguished characters of the times, said that in the happiest of his social hours there was a charm about Burns which she had never seen equalled. This charm arose not more from the power than the versatility of his genius. No languor could be felt in the society of a man who passed at pleasure *from grave to gay*, from the ludicrous to the pathetic, from the simple to the sublime, who wielded all his faculties with equal strength and ease, and never failed to impress the offspring of his fancy with the stamp of his understanding.

"This indeed is to represent Burns in his happiest mood. In large and mixed parties he was often silent and dark, sometimes fierce and overbearing; he was jealous of the proud man's scorn, jealous to an extreme of the insolence of wealth, and prone to avenge, even on its innocent possessor, the partiality of fortune. By nature kind, brave, sincere, and in a singular degree compassionate, he was on the other hand proud, irascible, and vindictive. His virtues and his failings had their origin in the extraordinary sensibility of his mind, and equally partook of the chills and glows of sentiment. His friendships were liable to interruption from jealousy or disgust, and his enmities died away under the influence of pity or self-accusation. His understanding was equal to the other powers of his mind, and his deliberate opinions were singularly candid and just; but, like other men of great and irregular genius, the opinions which he delivered in conversation were often the offspring of temporary feelings, and widely different from the calm decisions of his judgment. This was not merely true respecting the characters of others, but in regard to some of the most important points of human speculation. On no subject did he give a more striking proof of the strength of his understanding than in the correct estimate he formed of himself. He knew his own failings; he predicted their consequence; the melancholy foreboding was never long absent from his mind; yet his passions carried him down the stream of error, and swept him over the precipice he saw directly in his course. The fatal defect in his character lay in the comparative weakness of his volition, that superior faculty of the mind which governing the conduct according to the dictates of the understanding, alone entitles it to be denomi-



nated rational, which is the parent of fortitude, patience, and self-denial."

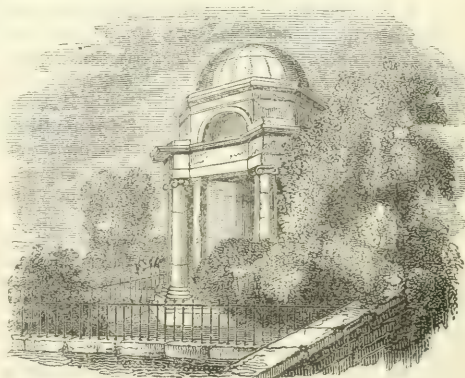
It is unnecessary to speak here of the poems of Burns, because they are in the hands of all the world; and, in spite of the peculiar dialect, the ancient Scottish language in which they are expressed, they have been generally received in England, and studied wherever the English language is known. The melancholy fate of their author will probably suggest some important reflections. The first and most obvious is the importance of that form of the virtue of self-command which is denominated *temperance*, which enables its possessor to withdraw from the society of the festive and the gay, and to devote himself to really valuable labours. The mind of Burns unquestionably belonged to the highest order of intellect; yet, from the want of this virtue, his happiness, and ultimately his life, suffered shipwreck. He was cut off at what ought to have been his best days, when his mature talents were most capable of rearing a lasting monument of their own superiority. He encountered a train of temptation which happily falls to the lot of few, and which, with a thousand times less ardour of enjoyment, few men would be found able to resist. Another reflection, little friendly to that form of exertion in which Burns excelled, will probably suggest itself to the reflecting reader. It is this, that a man who devotes his life to the cultivation of his poetical powers acts an imprudent part, and that no man ought to do so entirely who has not previously, by the favour of fortune in early life, or by professional success, attained to independence. Even when Burns was in Edinburgh in all his glory, courted by the great, the gay, and the learned, his future fortunes were in some measure actually foreseen by young men at college, who were nearly seven years younger than himself. They said, "He has learned no profession; he cannot therefore fix his own fortune, by rendering it the interest of the industrious, the prudent, and the covetous, to give him money. In the meanwhile, as he is a man of an independent spirit, he can perform no bribe-worthy service to induce a statesman to place him upon a pension-list. He must therefore gradually sink into poverty; and the recollection of the admiration he has received, and the luxury in which he has lived, will only serve to embitter his days."

The poems of Burns are none of them of any great length, nor do they appertain to the higher kinds of poetical composition. It appears, indeed, from his correspondence, that he at one time meditated an epic or dramatic effort, but the mode of spending his time to which he had become habituated utterly prevented the necessary application. Whatever he has done, however, he has done well. His songs, his tales, and his poetical epistles, display pathos, humour, a vigour of sentiment, and a purity and elegance of style, which, in spite of their being clothed in what may be termed a provincial dialect, will not only ensure a permanent fame to their author, but advance him high in the records of native genius. His prose compositions, which consist almost entirely of private letters, never intended for the press, are altogether as extraordinary productions as his poems; and those literary men who were acquainted with him have asserted that his conversation was not less calculated to leave a powerful impression of the extent and accuracy of his knowledge and observation, and the strength and vivacity of his genius.

There are several editions of the works of Burns; and there are four remarkably well-written lives. Passing by those written by Dr. Currie, Gilbert Burns, and Mr. Lockhart, we must briefly notice the admirable memoir of the poet from the pen of Allan Cunningham. This edition of the works of Burns contains many additions to some of his most favourite poems. We may select as a specimen two new verses of the sweet ballad, "Of a' the airs the wind can blaw."

"O blaw, ye westlin winds, blaw saft  
Among the leafy trees,  
Wi' balmy gale frae hill and dale  
Bring hame the laden bees;  
And bring the lassie back to me  
That's ay sae neat and clean;  
Ae smile o' her wad banish care,  
Sae charming is my Jean.  
What sighs and vows among the knowes  
Hae passed atween us twa!  
How fond to meet, how wae to part,  
That night she gae awa!  
The powers aboon can only ken,  
To whom the heart is seen,  
That nane can be sae dear to me  
As my sweet lovely Jean!"

Mrs. Burns, whose life seems to have been a model of good conduct, both as a wife and mother, died of paralysis in 1834. The deceased was born at Mauchline in February, 1765, and had thus entered the seventieth year of her age. Her father was an industrious master-mason, in good employment, who enjoyed the esteem of the gentry and others within the district, and reared the numerous family of eleven sons and daughters, four of whom alone survive: viz. Robert, a respectable merchant in London, James, who resides in the town of Paisley, Mrs. Lees, and Mrs. Brown. To the poet Jean Armour, bore a family of five sons and four daughters. The whole of the latter died in early life, and were interred in the cemetery of their maternal grandfather, in Mauchline church-yard. Of the sons two died very young, viz. Francis Wallace and Maxwell Burns, the last of whom, as we have already stated, was born the very day his father was buried. Of the said family of nine, three sons still survive: Robert, the eldest, a retired officer of the accountant-general's department, Stamp-Office, and William and James Glencairn Burns, captains in the Hon. East India Company's Service. The tomb of Burns, which forms a beautiful model of classic skill, is represented in the annexed cut:—



BURROW, SIR JAMES, an English lawyer of

considerable eminence, who was born in 1701, and was made master of the crown-office in 1724. On the death of Mr. West, in 1772, he was prevailed on to fill the president's chair at the Royal Society until the anniversary election, when he resigned it to Sir John Pringle; and in 1773, when the society presented an address to the king, he received the honour of knighthood. During the memorable presidency of the earl of Mansfield, Sir James was the first reporter of law cases. From a series of many years' attendance on the court of king's bench officially, and from a constant habit and attention to accuracy in preserving notes of the business in that court, and being further assisted by the records which passed through his hands in the course of his office, he was enabled to give a collection of the Cases from 26 George II. to 12 George III., in which generally the arguments of the counsel as well as those of the court are stated with great accuracy. These reports have passed through several editions. He also published a separate collection of his "Reports of the Decisions of the Court of King's Bench, upon Settlement Cases, from the Year 1732 to 1776," having during the whole of that period uniformly attended that court, and made it a part of his employment to record the proceedings of it; and in this part of his labours he had the satisfaction of being greatly instrumental in promoting the knowledge of this much litigated branch of the law, and his work seems to have had the effect of lessening the number of appeals to the court of king's bench. Sir James also published, without his name, a few "Anecdotes and Observations relating to Oliver Cromwell and his Family, serving to rectify Several Errors respecting them." Sir James Burrow died at a very advanced age.

BURTON, JOHN, a learned critic and divine, born at Wembworth in Devonshire in 1696. He was educated at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, of which he became a tutor, and while only bachelor of arts he delivered a Greek lecture. In 1733 he was chosen a fellow of Eton College; and about the same time he was presented to the living of Maple Derham in Oxfordshire, where he married the widow of his predecessor in the benefice, and passed some years as a country clergyman. On the death of his wife in 1748, he removed to Eton, and resumed his literary pursuits. In 1752 he took the degree of D.D., and in 1766 obtained the rectory of Worplesdon in Surrey. He died in 1771, and was interred in the chapel of Eton College. Dr. Burton's works consist of sermons, theological dissertations in Latin, and Greek, Latin, and English poetry. But his literary reputation is chiefly founded on a selection of ancient Greek tragedies, published under the title of "Pentologia." This work was commenced by Joseph Bingham, a pupil of Dr. Burton, who dying before it was completed, the Doctor added a preface, dissertations, and notes, which contribute much to the value of the book.

BURTON, JOHN, a physician and writer on ecclesiastical antiquities, who was a native of Rippon in Yorkshire. He studied at Oxford, and afterwards at the university of Rheims in France, where he took the degree of M.D. He settled in practice at York, and attained much reputation for professional skill; but, during the rebellion in favour of the pretender in 1745, his equivocal conduct occasioned his loyalty to the reigning family to be suspected, and he thought

it necessary to publish a pamphlet in defence of his principles and character. He died in 1771.

Dr. Burton was the author of some medical tracts; and he wrote a treatise on midwifery, which involved him in a controversy with Dr. Smellie, as to the relative value of the obstetrical instruments invented by these rival practitioners. Upon this point experience has decided in favour of Smellie, who however laid himself open to the criticism of his antagonist, by actually committing the ludicrous blunder alluded to by Sterne, in his *Tristram Shandy*, vol. ii. chap. 2. The title "*Lithopædii Senonensis Icon*" occurring in some catalogue as the designation of an engraving of a petrified child, the learned doctor supposed it to belong to a book, which he quoted or referred to as a work on midwifery by *Lithopædus Senonensis*. Sterne, probably on some private account, entertained a dislike to Burton, as he is said to have been the prototype of Dr. Slop. Besides his professional works, Dr. Burton was the author of "*The Ecclesiastical History of Yorkshire*," &c.

BURTON, ROBERT, a celebrated writer of the seventeenth century. He was born at Lindley, in Leicestershire, in 1576, and educated at Oxford, where he embraced the ecclesiastical profession, and became rector of Segrave in Leicestershire. His learning, which was various and extensive, is copiously displayed in the "*Anatomy of Melancholy*, by Democritus Junior," first published in 1621, and repeatedly reprinted. Burton died in 1640, and was buried at Christ Church, with the following epitaph, said to have been his own composition:—

Paucis notus, paucioribus ignotus,  
Hic jacet Democritus Junior;  
Cui vitam pariter et mortem  
Dedit Melancholia.

He was a man of integrity and benevolence, but subject to strange fits of hypochondriac melancholy, which rendered his conduct flighty and inconsistent. Sometimes he was an agreeable and lively companion, delighting those around him with perpetual sallies of wit and humour; while at other times, devoured with spleen and *ennui*, he sought relief by listening to the jests of the bargemen on the river near Oxford. He is reported also to have undertaken the composition of his "*Anatomy of Melancholy*" with a view to the dissipation of his morbid feelings. Among those who have been most deeply indebted to Burton is the facetious author of "*Tristram Shandy*," who has, however, been perhaps too harshly censured for a fault which every man of general and extensive reading knows to be common to almost all great writers.

BUSBEQ, or BUSBEQUIUS, AUGIER GHISLEN, the natural son of a nobleman, born in 1522 at Comines in Flanders. After having studied in the most celebrated universities of Flanders, France, and Italy, he accompanied Peter Lassa, ambassador of Ferdinand, king of the Romans, to England. In the next year that prince made him his ambassador to Soliman II. His first negotiation was not very successful, as he obtained only an armistice for six months, and a letter, which he delivered immediately to Ferdinand. He then returned to his post, and this time his negotiations were completely successful. After seven years, he returned home and was made tutor of the sons of Maximilian II. When this prince became emperor, Busbecq was sent to accompany the archduchess Elizabeth (who was to be



married to Charles IX.) on her journey to France. He remained there in the character of steward with Elizabeth, and when she left France, after the death of her husband, he continued there as ambassador of Rodolph II. In 1592 he set out on his return to Flanders, and was attacked on the way by a party of the Leaguers. As soon as they had seen his passports, they permitted him to continue his journey unmolested from respect to his character of an ambassador; but the terror which he had suffered threw him into a violent fever, of which he died several days afterwards. His style as a writer is pure, elegant, and simple. During his stay in Turkey he collected Greek inscriptions, which he communicated to Andreas Schott, Justus, Lipsius, and Gruter. We are indebted to him for a copy of the celebrated "*Monumentum Ancryanum*," which he had transcribed and brought to Europe. More than 100 Greek manuscripts, which he had collected, were presented by him to the library of Vienna.

BUSBY, RICHARD, a celebrated schoolmaster, who was born at Lutton in Lincolnshire in 1606, and was educated at Westminster School, and elected student of Christ Church, Oxford, in 1624. At the university he distinguished himself as a classical scholar and orator, and in 1631 took his degree of M.A. On entering into orders, in 1639, he obtained the prebend and rectory of Cudworth, in the church of Wells, and in 1640 was appointed master of Westminster School, which situation he held upwards of fifty-five years. It is not recorded that he was distinguished for any peculiar excellence or method, or for any thing more than the length of his reign and severity of his discipline, which was more the result of habit and system than any ill-nature. He was so pleased with any display of juvenile wit that he would even pardon the exercise of it upon himself. At the restoration he was made prebendary of Westminster, and treasurer and canon residentiary of Wells, and at the same time took the degree of D.D. As a literary man he is known only by the books which he published for his school, which prove him to have been an accurate grammarian. He was zealously attached to the church and monarchy, and was very charitable both on public and private occasions. He died in 1695.

BUSCHING, ANTHONY FREDERIC.—This learned geographer was born in 1724 at Stadthagen, and studied theology in Halle in 1744, where he found a friend and protector in Baumgarten. On his travels, as tutor of the young count of Lynar, he became convinced of the defects of existing geographical treatises, and resolved to write a new one, which he began on his return to Germany in 1752, by publishing a short description of Sleswic and Holstein as a specimen. In 1754 he was made professor of philosophy in Gottingen, and in 1755 he married Christiana Dilthey, a lady who was remarkable as a member of the Gottingen learned society. Notwithstanding some difficulties about his heterodox opinions, he received an invitation to become pastor in a Lutheran church at Petersburg, and in 1766 he was made director of the united gymnasiums of Berlin and of the suburb of Koln, and discharged his duties with great diligence. He died in 1793. Before his great work "*Allgemeine Erdbeschreibung*," which he began to publish in 1754 in separate volumes, and which, though not entirely completed by the author, passed through eight large editions

during his life, the Germans, nor indeed any other nation, had a thoroughly scientific geographical work.

BUSEMBAUM, HERMANN, a celebrated Jesuit, born at Nottelen in Westphalia. In 1600 he became rector of the Jesuits' colleges at Hildesheim and Munster, and his celebrated work, entitled "*Medulla Theologiæ Moralis ex Variis Probatisque Auctoribus Concinnata*," was for many years employed in the seminaries of that order. It passed through fifty editions in a comparatively short space of time, when Father Lacroix published it, increased from a single duodecimo to two folios by his own commentaries and the additions of Father Collendall. It was published at Lyons in 1729 with further additions by Father Montausan. The latter edition was reprinted in 1758 at Cologne, and it was then found to contain principles concerning homicide and regicide which appeared the more reprehensible on account of the recent attempt on the life of Louis XV. by Damiens. The parliament of Toulouse caused the work to be publicly burnt, and summoned the superiors of the Jesuits to appear at their bar for trial. They disavowed the doctrines of the book, declared themselves ignorant of the author, and denied that any Jesuit had any share in it. The parliament of Paris was satisfied with condemning the book. Against both these sentences Father Zacharia, an Italian Jesuit, with the permission of his superiors, stepped forward as the defender of Busembaum and Lacroix; but his defence was condemned by the parliament of Paris. Busembaum died in 1668.

BUTE, JOHN STUART, EARL OF, a distinguished statesman, born in the beginning of the eighteenth century, in Scotland. His ancestors had been early elevated to the peerage, and were connected with the old kings of Scotland. In his youth he seemed devoted to pleasure, and little inclined to engage in politics; nevertheless, in 1737, after the death of a Scottish peer, he was chosen to fill his seat in parliament. In consequence of his opposition to the measures of the ministry, he was left out when a new parliament was convened, in 1741. Offended by this neglect, the earl of Bute retired to his estates, and lived there, wholly secluded, till the landing of the Pretender in Scotland, in 1745, induced him to go to London, and offer his services to the government. Notwithstanding this manifestation of zeal, he would not have been brought forward again if he had not attracted the notice of the prince of Wales at an exhibition of private theatricals, in consequence of which he was invited to the court. Here he soon gained influence, and succeeded in making himself indispensable to the prince. At his death, in 1751, he was appointed, by the widowed princess, chamberlain to her son, and was entrusted by her with his education. Bute never lost sight of his pupil, and possessed so much more influence with the princess of Wales than her son's particular tutors, the earl of Harcourt and the bishop of Norwich, that they resigned their offices. Lord Waldegrave and the bishop of Lincoln, who were chosen in their stead, opposed him unsuccessfully.

George II. died October 25, 1760, and, two days after, the earl of Bute was appointed a member of the privy council. Shortly after he was made secretary of state, in the place of Lord Holderness, and appointed Charles Jenkinson, afterwards Lord Hawkesbury and earl of Liverpool, his under-secretary. Legge, chancellor of the exchequer, was removed.

Pitt (the great Chatham), who saw his influence in the new council annihilated, gave in his resignation the same year. This event made an unfavourable impression on the nation; but Bute, possessing the unbounded confidence of his king, stood at the head of the state. Soon after, he removed the old duke of Newcastle, then first lord of the treasury, and the only one of the former ministry remaining in office, and immediately took this important post upon himself, receiving, at the same time, the order of the garter. After a severe contest in parliament, he concluded a peace with France, in which the terms for England were perhaps not disproportionate to the successes obtained during the war; but it was disgraceful that the king of Prussia, in violation of former treaties, should have been left to his fate. The earl of Bute was obliged to hear the most bitter reproaches; yet he succeeded in winning the popular favour, and every thing seemed to promise the power of the minister a long continuance.

He had rendered the whigs objects of suspicion to the king, and excluded them from the administration; on the contrary, he favoured the Tories, even the former Jacobites, and thus surrounded the king with persons whose principles coincided with his own, especially with his Scotch countrymen. The people murmured, and numberless pamphlets attacked the minister with bitterness, who was slowly gaining the confidence of the public, when new causes of dissatisfaction produced a great irritation against him. To discharge the debt contracted by the war, he was obliged to negotiate a loan, the interest of which was to be paid by a tax on cider, perry, &c., and, in despite of the opposition, the bill passed both houses. The city of London in vain petitioned the king to refuse his consent. The influence of Bute seemed unbounded, when it was made known, contrary to expectation, that he had resigned his office as prime minister, and was, in future, to live as a private man. George Grenville succeeded him in the ministry, and Bute soon perceived the weakness of the administration, and endeavoured to unite himself with Pitt. The plan failed, and the exasperation of the people was redoubled. However he was still considered as the soul of the royal resolutions, and particularly as the author of the stamp act, which kindled the first flame of discord between Great Britain and the North American colonies. Those ministers who did not support Bute's views were removed, and his adherents, who called themselves friends of the king, formed a powerful party. They were stigmatised with the old name of *cabal*, and were denounced as the authors of all the present evils.

In 1766 Bute declared, in the house of lords, that he had wholly withdrawn from public business, and no longer saw the king; still it was not doubted but that his great influence continued. On the death of the princess of Wales, in 1772, he seems first to have given up all participation in the affairs of government; and public hatred towards him ceased, and he was forgotten. He spent his last years on his estate. A costly botanical garden, a library of 30,000 volumes, excellent astronomical, philosophical, and mathematical instruments, afforded him occupation. His favourite study was botany, with which he was intimately acquainted; and for the queen of England he wrote the "Botanical Register," which contained all the plants then known in Great

Britain. This work is remarkable both for its splendour, in which it excels all former botanical works, and for its rarity. Only twelve copies were printed, at an expense of more than £10,000 sterling. The earl of Bute died in 1792. He had more pretension than ability. By engaging in politics, for which he had neither talent nor knowledge, he lost his own quiet, and his imprudent measures brought trouble and confusion on the nation. He was reproached with haughtiness; but this was the fault of a high spirit; and he steadily refused, during his ministry, to employ venal writers. Distrustful and reserved, he has been described as harsh, imperious, and obstinate; yet he was generally irreligious, and even timid. His morals were irreproachable, and in private life he displayed an amiable simplicity.

BUTLER, CHARLES, a very distinguished lawyer, who was long considered as the leader of the Catholics in this country. He received his education at the seminary of St. Omers, and early in life devoted himself to the study of the law, in which he obtained considerable eminence. He wrote several controversial treatises; but his principal work is entitled "Horæ Biblicæ." He died June 2, 1832.

BUTLER, JAMES, DUKE OF ORMOND, an eminent statesman who lived in the reigns of Charles I. and II. He was born at London, succeeded his grandfather in 1632, and although all his connections were Catholics, his wardship being claimed by James I., he was brought up a member of the church of England, to which he ever after constantly adhered. When Strafford became lord-lieutenant of Ireland, Butler was made commander of the army, which consisting of only 3000 men, he could do little more than keep the enemy in check, and was obliged to agree to a cessation of hostilities, after which, having been created a marquiss, he was appointed lord-lieutenant. On the ruin of the royal cause, he retired to France. After the execution of Charles, he returned to Ireland, with a view to raising the people; but, on the landing of Cromwell, he again returned to France. While abroad, he exerted himself to further the restoration of Charles; and, when that event was brought about by Monk, returned with the king. Before the coronation, he was created duke, and assisted at that ceremony as lord-high-steward of England. In 1662 he was again appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, which country he restored to comparative tranquillity, and was an active benefactor to it, by encouraging various improvements, particularly the growth of flax and manufacture of linen.

On the exile of Lord Clarendon, his attachment to that nobleman involved him in much of the odium attached to him; and, although on his recall from Ireland nothing on the most rigorous enquiry could be proved against him, he was removed by the machinations of Buckingham. In 1670 a desperate design was formed by Colonel Blood, whom he had imprisoned in Ireland, to seize his person and hang him at Tyburn. The project succeeded so far that he was one night forcibly taken out of his coach in St. James's Street, placed behind a horseman, and carried some distance; but at length he threw the man and himself from the horse by his personal exertions, and obtained assistance before he could be replaced. The king sent Lord Arlington to request the duke to forgive the insult, who calmly replied that, "If his majesty could pardon Blood for his at-



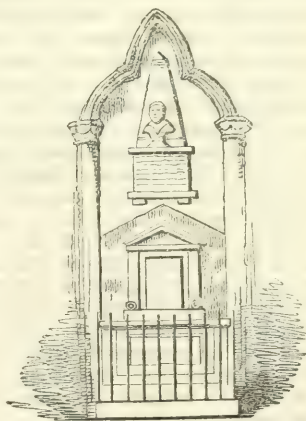
tempt to steal the crown, he might easily pardon that upon his life," adding that "he would obey the king, without enquiring his reason." For six years he was deprived of court favour, but at length was again appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, which place he held during the remainder of the reign of Charles, but soon after resigned, his principles not suiting the policy of James. He died at his seat in Dorsetshire, in 1688, leaving behind him the character of a man who united the courtier and the man of honour and integrity better than any nobleman of the time. His body was removed to London, and interred with great magnificence in Westminster Abbey, and a splendid monument was erected to his memory.

BUTLER, JOSEPH, an English prelate of distinguished eminence as a writer on ethics and theology. He was born in 1692, at Wantage, in Berkshire, where his father was a shopkeeper and a presbyterian dissenter. After some previous education at a grammar-school, he was sent to an academy at Tewkesbury, with a view to ordination as a minister among the dissenters. While occupied by his studies, he gave a proof of his talents by some acute and ingenious remarks on Doctor Samuel Clarke's "Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God," in private letters addressed to the author. He likewise paid particular attention to the points of controversy between the members of the established church and the dissenters, the result of which was a determination to be no longer a nonconformist; and he therefore removed to Oxford, in 1714. Having taken orders, he was, in 1718, appointed preacher at the Rolls' Chapel, and, in 1736, he was appointed clerk of the closet to the queen. The same year he published his celebrated work, "The Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature." In 1738 Doctor Butler was promoted to the bishopric of Bristol, on the recommendation of Queen Caroline; and, in 1750, obtained his highest preferment—the bishopric of Durham. He died in 1752, and was interred in Bristol cathedral. A charge delivered to the clergy of the diocese of Durham on the subject of external religion, together with the circumstance of his erecting a marble cross in his chapel at Bristol, gave rise to suspicions that he was inclined to the principles of catholicism; and, after his death, a report was spread that he had died in the catholic faith. But this story was satisfactorily contradicted by Archbishop Secker.

BUTLER SAMUEL, a poet of considerable celebrity, who was born at Strensham, in Worcestershire, in 1612. Having received a grammatical education at the free-school at Worcester, he was sent to Cambridge, where he remained six or seven years. On his return he lived some years as clerk to Mr. Jeffery, of Earl's Coombe, an eminent justice of the peace, where he had much leisure to prosecute his literary studies and also to cultivate music and drawing. He next lived under the countess of Kent, where he became acquainted with the learned Selden, and acted as his amanuensis. His next residence was with Sir Samuel Luke, a gentleman of an ancient family in Bedfordshire, and a distinguished commander under Cromwell. It was in this last situation that Butler acquired the materials for his "Hudibras," by a study of the manners and principles of those around him, and particularly of Sir Samuel himself, a caricature of whom constituted the cele-

brated knight Hudibras. Casuists have pondered whether in this indulgence of his wit the poet was deficient in gratitude. So little is known of the nature of the connection it is difficult to decide; but possibly wits are not very remarkable for punctilio on these occasions. After the restoration, Butler was employed as secretary by the earl of Carbury, lord president of Wales, who appointed him steward to the court held at Ludlow Castle, about which time he married Mrs. Herbert, a lady of good family and some fortune.

The first part of "Hudibras" was published in 1663, and was brought under the notice of the court by the well-known earl of Dorset. It immediately became highly popular with the prevailing party in church and state, and served as a general source of quotation, the king himself perpetually answering his courtiers out of "Hudibras." Celebrated as it of course rendered its author, it did nothing towards extricating him from a situation of comparative obscurity; and, although his indigence has been overstated, his circumstances were always extremely narrow. All the bounty of the heedless and unfeeling Charles was included in a gratuity said to amount to 300*l.*; and an attempt to secure him the patronage of the giddy duke of Buckingham failed, owing to that nobleman's thoughtless volatility. Thus unpatronised, but respected for his integrity and beloved for his social qualities, he died in 1680, and was buried in St. Paul's Church, Covent Garden, where he latterly lived, at the expense of his friend Mr. Longueville of the Temple. With the usual posthumous good fortune of poets, a monument was forty years after erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey, by Alderman Barber, the printer.



After his death were published three small volumes of his posthumous works, and subsequently two volumes more were printed by Mr. Thyer of Manchester, indubitably genuine. From none of these pieces can his life be traced, or his character fully discovered. Some verses in the last collection show him to have been among those who ridiculed the institution of the Royal Society, of which the enemies were for some time very numerous and very acrimonious; for what reason it is hard to conceive, since the philosophers professed not to advance doctrines, but to produce facts; and the most zealous enemy of innovation must admit the gradual progress of experience, however he may oppose hypothetical temerity.



In this mist of obscurity passed the life of Butler, a man whose name can only perish with his language.

BUTTURA, ANTONIO, a clever Italian poet, born at Verona, in 1771. When the combined Austrian and Russian armies overthrew the Italian republics, in 1799, Buttura took refuge in France. At this time he was known in his own country by some pleasing sonnets, and an Italian translation of "Arnault's Tragedy of the Venetians;" but while in Paris he translated Boileau's "Art Poétique" into Italian verse, with a strict adherence to the ideas of the original. The attempt was the more difficult as Boileau had so harshly censured the master work of Tasso. Nevertheless, the translation met with approbation in Italy, and this approbation of the public induced him to translate, also, Racine's "Iphigénie, en Aulide," into Italian verse. In 1811 he printed a volume of poems, mostly odes, full of enthusiasm for France. His "Essay on the History of Venice," in Italian prose, received the highest approbation in Italy and France, as likewise did his "Tableau de la Littérature Italienne," which is merely an introduction to his lectures at the *Athénée* in Paris. Buttura died in 1835.

BUXHOWDEN, FREDERIC WILLIAM, COUNT OF. — This distinguished military commander was descended from an ancient Livonian family, and born on the isle of Moen, near Osel. In 1784 he was made colonel, owing his promotion chiefly to his marriage with Natalia Alexijeff, in 1777. In 1790 he defeated the Swedish generals Hamilton and Meyerfeld, and rescued Fredericksham and Viborg. In Poland he commanded a Russian division in 1792 and 1794; and, at the storming of Praga, he restrained as far as he was able the fury of the soldiers. Suwaroff entrusted him with the command of Warsaw and the administration of Poland, where his moderation and disinterestedness gained him the esteem of the Poles. While military governor in Petersburg, he fell into disgrace under the emperor Paul, but Alexander made him inspector of the troops in Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, with the dignity of governor-general. In 1805 he commanded the left wing at Austerlitz, which advanced whilst the centre and the right wing were beaten. In 1806 he commanded 50,000 Russians, and withstood the French in the eastern part of Prussia; but, after the defeat of Pultusk, he was unjustly superseded by Count Bennigsen. After the battles of Eylau and Friedland, he was again made commander-in-chief. In 1808, with 18,000 Russians, he conquered Finland, obliged Sweaborg to capitulate, and terminated the war at Tornea. In 1809 he resigned his command on account of his health, and died in 1811.

BUXTON, JEDEDIAH, an extraordinary calculator, who was born in Eberton, in Derbyshire. His education was wholly neglected: he was never taught to read or write, and how he first learned the proportions of numbers, their powers and denominations, he never could remember. His power of abstraction was so great that no noise whatever could disturb him, and when asked any question he would reply, and immediately return to his calculation without the least confusion. He was once asked this question, In a body whose three sides are 23,145,789 yards, 5,642,732 yards, and 54,965 yards, how many cubical eighths of an inch? He immediately set to work, though in the midst of a hun-

dred labourers, and in about five hours produced the exact answer. His application to figures prevented his making the smallest progress in any other branch of knowledge, and, on other subjects, his ideas were as confined as those of a child. In 1754 he walked to London, and was introduced to the royal society. He was also taken to see Richard III. at Drury Lane, where, instead of paying attention to the entertainment, he was engaged in counting how many words Garrick uttered, and the steps of the dancers. He died at an advanced age.

BUXTORF, JOHN, an eminent Calvinistic divine, who was born in 1564, at Camen, in Westphalia. Being very learned in Hebrew and Chaldaic, in the acquirement of which he obtained the assistance of many learned Jews, he was engaged by the magistrates of Basil in the professorship of those languages, which he taught with great success. He died at Basil in 1629. His works are "Lexicon Chaldaicum Thalmudicum et Rabbinicum," "Thesaurus Lingue Hebraicæ," "Hebrew Bible, with the Rabbinical and Chaldaic Paraphrases, the Massora, &c.," "Hebrew and Chaldaic Dictionary," "Hebrew Grammar," "Synagoga Judaica," "A Collection of Modes and Ceremonies," "Bibliotheca Rabbinica," "Institutio Epistolaris Hebraica," "Concordantiæ Hebraicæ," &c., &c."

BUXTORF, JOHN, a son of the preceding, who was born at Basil in 1599, and was made a professor of the oriental languages there. He published a "Chaldaic and Syriac Lexicon," "Tractatus de Punctorum Vocalium et Accentuum in Libris Veteris Testamenti Hebraicis Origine, Antiquitate et Auctoritate," and "Anti-critica, seu Vindiciæ Veritatis Hebraicæ," in the two last of which he defended his father's opinions respecting the Hebrew vowel points. He was also the author of "Dissertationes on the Old and New Testament." He died at Basil in 1664. There were two other Buxtorfs, John James, and John, relations of the former, who both were professors in the same chair at Basil, and both writers on Hebrew literature.

BYNG, GEORGE LORD VISCOUNT TORRINGTON.—This distinguished naval commander



was born in 1663, and at an early age entered the navy, which, however, he quitted on the invitation of General Kyrk, who made him ensign, and after-



wards lieutenant. In 1684 he again entered the navy, and was appointed lieutenant of the *Oxford* by Lord Dartmouth; and the year after, while acting lieutenant of the *Phoenix* to the East Indies, he was near losing his life in boarding a pirate vessel. In 1688, being in the fleet fitted out to oppose the landing of the prince of Orange, he was confidentially employed in some negotiations to bring it over to the prince's party. He was soon after raised to the post of captain, and in 1703 was made rear-admiral, in which capacity he served under Sir Cloudesley Shovel, and distinguished himself at the battle of Malaga, for which he was knighted by Queen Anne.

In 1706, having been created vice-admiral, he was sent to relieve Barcelona, then closely besieged by the duke of Anjou. He effected this object; and in 1708, being admiral of the blue, he had the command of the fleet designed to prevent an invasion by the pretender assisted by the French from Dunkirk, and pursued the French fleet to the coast of Scotland, forcing it to return without landing any of the troops. In the same year he conveyed the queen of Portugal to Lisbon on her marriage, and on his return was made one of the commissioners of the admiralty; but, not concurring with the political measures of the latter end of the reign of Queen Anne, he was removed. On the accession of George I., he was re-instated in his employment, and created a baronet; and in 1717, a discovery being made of an intended invasion by Charles XII. of Sweden, he was sent with a fleet into the Baltic, where he remained acting in concert with the Danes until the Swedes abandoned their design. In 1718 he was sent with a fleet for the protection of Sicily against the Spaniards. He arrived in the bay of Naples on the first of August, and found that the Spaniards had landed an army, and were then engaged in the siege of the citadel of Messina, having made themselves masters of the town. As England and Spain were not at war, the admiral made every attempt to induce the Spanish commander to cease hostilities against the Sicilians, whom the English were bound to defend; but, not succeeding, he proceeded according to his instructions to employ force, and, giving chase to the Spanish fleet, he came up with the foremost ship off Cape Pesaro, and began the attack, which ended in his obtaining a complete victory, for which he received letters of thanks from the emperor, George I. and the king of Sardinia. His great services were rewarded by making him treasurer of the navy and rear-admiral of Great Britain; and in 1721 he was created Viscount Torrington and a knight of the Bath. He was placed by George II. at the head of the admiralty, in which situation he died in 1733. He left several children; his fourth son, the honourable John Byng, became admiral of the blue, and was shot for a defect of duty, upon a rigorous sentence, now universally acknowledged to have been inflicted by the heartless policy of a weak and degraded administration.

BYROM, JOHN, an English poet of considerable celebrity, who was born at Kirsall near Manchester, in 1691, and received his education at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took the degree of B. A., and afterwards obtained a fellowship. Shortly after he retired to Montpelier, on account of his health; and during his residence in France he became acquainted with Malebranche's "Search after Truth," and some of the works of Mademoiselle Bourignon,

the consequence of which was that he came home strongly possessed with the visionary philosophy of the former and the enthusiastic extravagances of the latter. On his return home he became in love with his cousin Elizabeth, daughter of John Byrom, a mercer at Manchester, then on a visit in London. To this young lady he disclosed his passion, and followed her to Manchester, where his addresses soon procured a favourable return. Her father, however, was extremely averse to the match, and when it took place without his consent refused the young couple any means of support. He then as a means of support adopted the employment of teaching short-hand on new and improved principles. In 1724 he was chosen a fellow of the royal society; and on the death of an elder brother he inherited the family estate. He died at Manchester in 1763. Byrom wrote poetry or rather verse with extraordinary facility, and produced some pieces on very unusual subjects. His pastoral entitled "Colin and Phœbe," first published in the *Spectator* when the author was quite young, has been much admired. All his poetical productions are included in "Chalmers's Collection of the English Poets." Byrom died in September 1763.

BYRON, GEORGE GORDON.—The name of Lord Byron is imperishably connected with the literature of our native land. Much of the notice which he attracted, and the ascendancy he obtained during his brief career, is no doubt attributable to certain singularities in his temper and character. But his eccentricity formed food but for his vulgar admirers, whilst his high poetical genius ensured the admiration of every part of the civilized globe. The subject of this memoir was born January 22nd, 1788, and his father died three years afterwards, leaving Mrs. Byron in very embarrassed circumstances. They shortly afterwards retired to Aberdeen, where he was his mother's only companion. There can be little doubt that in his early years excessive maternal indulgence, and the absence of that salutary discipline and control so necessary to childhood, materially contributed to the formation of the less pleasing features of Lord Byron's character. At the same time it must be remembered, in Mrs. Byron's extenuation, not only that the circumstances in which she had been left with her son were of a very peculiar nature, but also that a slight malformation of one of his feet and great weakness of constitution naturally procured for him, in the heart of a mother, a more than ordinary portion of tenderness. For these latter reasons he was not sent very early to school, but was allowed to brace his limbs upon the mountains of the neighbourhood. This course was evidently the best adapted for imparting strength to his bodily frame, and the sequel showed that it was far from the worst for giving tone and vigour to his mind. The grandeur of nature around him, the feeling that he was upon hills which had never been permanently trodden by the foot of a conqueror, the intercourse with a people whose amusements consisted in a great measure of the recital of old heroic exploits against invaders, of feats of manhood, and of demonstrations of independence, mingled with all the wild goblin stories peculiar to remote and thinly populated districts, afforded an initiatory education, certainly far more poetical than he could have obtained had he been nurtured at the Abbey of Newstead, after the fashion of its lords, in



the proudest times of that high-spirited, but latterly, wild and wayward family. Of the effect which the events and contemplations of this period of his life had upon Lord Byron's mind the single poem of *Loch na Garr*, which, though of course not written in infancy, was a recollection of infant impressions, exhibits abundant proof.

At the age of seven years young Byron, whose previous instruction in the English language had been his mother's sole task, was sent to the grammar school at Aberdeen, where he continued till his removal to Harrow, with the exception of some intervals of absence, which were deemed necessary for the establishment of his health. His progress beyond that of the general run of his class-fellows was never so distinguished as after those occasional intervals, when he would, in a few days, master exercises which in the school routine it had required weeks to accomplish. But, when he had overtaken the rest of the class, he always relaxed his exertions, and, contenting himself with being considered a tolerable scholar, never made any violent effort to place himself at the head of the highest form. It was out of school that he aspired to be the leader of every thing. In all boyish games and amusements he would be first if possible. For this he was eminently calculated; quick, enterprising, and daring, the energy of his mind enabled him to overcome the impediments which nature had thrown in his way. No boy could outstrip him in the race or in swimming. Even at that early period (from eight to ten years of age) all his sports were of a manly character; fishing, shooting, swimming, and managing a horse, or steering and trimming the sails of a boat, constituted his chief delights, and, to the superficial observer, seemed his sole occupations. He was exceedingly brave; and, in the juvenile wars of the school, he generally gained the victory. Upon one occasion, a boy who had been attacked, rather without just cause, took refuge in Mrs. Byron's house, and George interposed in his defence, declaring that nobody should be ill-used while under his roof and protection. Upon this the aggressor dared him to fight; and, although the former was by much the stronger of the two, the spirit of young Byron was so determined that, after the combat had lasted for nearly two hours, it was suspended, because both the boys were entirely out of breath.

The following occurrence shows at once the generosity of his youthful character and the deep impression which the romantic legends and superstitions of the country had made upon his mind. A school-fellow of his had a little Shetland pony, and one day the two friends had taken out the pony to have an alternate ride, or to "ride and tie," as it is vulgarly called along the banks of the Don. When they came to the old bridge, Byron stopped his companion, and insisted that he should dismount, while he himself rode along the bridge, "for," said he, "you remember the prophecy,

'Brig o' Balgownie, though wight be thy wa',  
Wi' a widow's ae son, an' a mare's ae foal,  
Down thou'lt fa'.'

"Now who knows but the pony may be 'a mare's ae foal,' and we are both widow's ae sors;' but you have a sister, and I have nobody to lament for me but my mother." The other boy consented, but as soon as young Byron had escaped the terrors of the bridge insisted upon following his example. He

too rode safely across, and they concluded that the pony was not the only production of its mother.

While young Byron was occupied in this manner, William, the fifth Lord Byron, died at Newstead Abbey; and as the son of Lord William had died in the same year in which George was born, and as the descent both of the titles and of the estates was to heirs male, the latter of course succeeded to the titles and estates of his great uncle. The old lord died on the 17th of May, 1798; and thus the state and prospects of the heir were completely changed when he was little more than ten years old.

It is the custom of the grammar-school at Aberdeen that the boys of all the five classes of which it is composed should be assembled for prayers in the public school at eight o'clock in the morning, previous to which a censor calls over the names of all, and those who are absent are fined. The first time that Lord Byron came to school after his accession to his title, the rector had caused his name to be inserted in the censor's book *Georgius, Dominus de Byron*, instead of *Georgius Byron Gordon*, as formerly. The boys, unused to this aristocratic sound, set up a loud and involuntary shout, which had such an effect on his sensitive mind that he burst into tears, and would have fled from the school had he not been restrained by the master.

Upon this change in his fortune, Lord Byron was removed from the immediate care of his mother, and placed as a ward under the guardianship of the earl of Carlisle, who had married Isabella the sister of the late Lord Byron. This grand aunt resembled the bard a little, both in her talents and at least in one or two points of her character. She wrote verses of exquisite beauty and considerable power; and, after showing for many years how well she was calculated to be the first ornament of the gay and fashionable world, she left it without any apparent cause and with perfect indifference, and in a great measure shut herself up from society. It was immediately resolved that the young nobleman should receive the usual education which England bestows upon her titled sons, and that, in the first instance, he should be sent to one of the great public schools. Harrow was chosen; Lord Byron was accordingly placed there, under the tuition of the reverend Dr. Drury. A change of scene and of circumstances so unforeseen and so rapid would have been hazardous to any boy, but it was doubly so to one of Byron's ardent mind and previous habits. Taken at once from the society of lads in humble life, and placed among youths of his own newly-acquired rank, with means of gratification which to him must have appeared without limit, it is not at all wonderful that he should have been betrayed into all sorts of extravagances. None of them however appear to have been of a very criminal nature. "Though he was lame," says one of his school-fellows, "he was a great lover of sports, preferred hockey to Horace, relinquished even Helicon for 'duck-puddle,' and gave up the best poet that ever wrote hard Latin for a game of cricket on 'the common.' He was not remarkable for his learning, but he was a clever, plain-spoken, and undaunted boy. I have seen him fight by the hour like a Trojan, and stand up against the disadvantages of his lameness with all the spirit of an ancient combatant. 'Don't you remember your battle with Pit?' said I to him in a letter (for I had witnessed



it); but it seems that he had forgotten it: 'You are mistaken, I think (said he in reply); it must have been with Rice-pudding Morgan, or Lord Jocelyn, or one of the Douglasses, or George Raynsford, or Price (with whom I had two conflicts), or with Moses Moore, or with somebody else, and not with Pit; for with all the above-named and other worthies of the fist had I an interchange of black eyes and bloody noses at various and sundry periods. However, it may have happened for all that.'"



In a subsequent part of Lord Byron's life he indulged in some severe animadversions upon the nature and tendency of the system of our great public schools in general, and of Harrow in particular; yet he always cherished an affectionate remembrance of the school, and a great veneration for his preceptor. "I believe," he observes in a note to the fourth Canto of "*Childe Harold*," "I believe no one could be more attached to Harrow than I have always been, and with reason—a part of the time passed there was the happiest of my life, and my preceptor (the reverend Dr. Joseph Drury) was the best and worthiest friend I ever possessed, whose warnings I have remembered but too well, but too late, when I have erred," &c. The fact was that Lord Byron ill-brooked the restraints of school-discipline; for, besides the evil of extensive indulgence in his infancy, his natural violence of temper had been encouraged by the flattery of servants, and he had been accustomed to command. Every thing like a task was therefore repugnant to his feelings.

In the summer of 1801 Byron accompanied his mother to Cheltenham, and his feelings are thus recorded by his biographer Mr. Galt:—"While he resided there the views of the Malvern hills recalled to his memory his enjoyments amidst the wilder scenery of Aberdeenshire. The recollections were re-impressed on his heart, and interwoven with his strengthened feelings. But a boy gazing with emotion on the hills at sunset because they remind him of the mountains where he passed his childhood is no proof that he is already in heart and imagination a poet. To suppose so is to mistake the materials for the building. The delight of Byron in contemplating the Malvern hills was not because

they resembled the scenery of Loch na Gar, but because they awoke trains of thought and fancy associated with recollections of that scenery. The poesy of the feeling lay not in the beauty of the objects, but in the moral effect of the traditions to which these objects served as talismans of the memory. The scene at sunset reminded him of the Highlands, but it was those reminiscences which similar scenes recalled that constituted the impulse which gave life and elevation to his reflections. There is not more poesy in the sight of mountains than of plains; it is the local associations that throw enchantment over all scenes, and resemblance that awakens them, binding them to new connections. Nor does this admit of much controversy; for mountainous regions, however favourable to musical feeling, are but little to poetical. The Welsh have no eminent bard. The Swiss have no renown as poets. Nor are the mountainous regions of Greece, or the Appennines, celebrated for poetry. The Highlands of Scotland, save the equivocal bastardy of Ossian, have produced no poet of any fame, and yet mountainous countries abound in local legends which would seem to be at variance with this opinion, were it not certain, though I cannot explain the cause, that local poetry, like local language or local melody, is, in proportion to the interests it awakens among the local inhabitants, weak and ineffectual in its influence on the sentiments of the general world. The '*Rans de Vaches*,' the most celebrated of all local airs, is lame and common-place—unmelodious to all ears but those of the Swiss '*forlorn in a foreign land*.'"

At the age of little more than sixteen Lord Byron removed to the university of Cambridge, where he became a student of Trinity College. Of course, however, he entertained a great dislike for college as for all other rules; and here, as at Harrow, the irregularity of his conduct drew down upon him the severe but just animadversions of his superiors. These animadversions were replied to on the part of Lord Byron by sarcasm and satire. Among other means which he adopted to show his contempt for academical honours was that of keeping a bear, which he told all his friends he was training up for a degree. When about nineteen years of age Lord Byron bade adieu to the university, and took up his residence at the family seat of Newstead Abbey. Here his pursuits were principally those of amusement. Among others he was extremely fond of the water. In his aquatic exercises he had seldom any other companion than a large Newfoundland dog, to try whose sagacity and fidelity he would sometimes fall out of the boat, as if by accident, when the dog would seize him, and drag him ashore. On losing this dog, in the autumn of 1808, his lordship caused a monument to be erected, with an inscription commemorative of his attachment.

In the year 1807, while still at Newstead, Lord Byron arranged, and caused to be printed at Newark, a small collection of his poems, under the whimsical title of "*Hours of Idleness*. By George Gordon, Lord Byron, a Minor."

It appears that the majority of the poems were written before his lordship was nineteen years of age, and from the dates prefixed it should seem that many were written between his sixteenth and eighteenth year. This circumstance the Edinburgh reviewers thought proper to comment upon in very harsh and unbecoming language. They commence their

critique by saying, "The poetry of this young lord belongs to that class which neither gods nor men are said to admit. Indeed, we do not recollect to have seen a quantity of verse with so few deviations in either direction from that exact standard. His effusions are spread over a dead flat, and can no more get above or below the level than if they were so much stagnant water. As an extenuation of this offence, the noble author is peculiarly forward in pleading minority. We have it in the title-page, and on the very back of the volume; it follows his name like a favourite part of his *style*. Much stress is laid upon it in the preface, and the poems are connected with this general statement of his case by particular dates, substantiating the age at which each was written. Now the law upon the point of minority we hold to be perfectly clear. It is a plea available only to the defendant; no plaintive can offer it as a supplementary ground of action. Thus, if any suit could be brought against Lord Byron for the purpose of compelling him to put into court a certain quantity of poetry, and if judgment were given against him, it is highly probable that an exception would be taken, were he to deliver *for poetry* the contents of this volume. To this he might plead *minority*; but, as he now makes voluntary tender of the article, he hath no right to sue, on that ground, for the price in good current praise, should the goods be unmarketable. This is our view of the law on the point, and we dare say so will it be ruled. Perhaps however, in reality, all that he tells us about his youth is rather with a view to increase our wonder than to soften our censures. He possibly means to say, 'See how a minor can write! This poem was actually composed by a young man of eighteen, and this by one only of sixteen!' But, alas! we all remember the poetry of Cowley at ten, and Pope at twelve, and so far from hearing with any degree of surprise that very poor verses were written by a youth from his leaving school to his leaving college, inclusive, we really believe this to be the most common of all occurrences,—that it happens in the life of nine men in ten who are educated in England,—and that the tenth man writes better verse than Lord Byron."

How far this spirit of prophetic criticism has been verified the public are already pretty well acquainted; and were it not for the influence which it had upon his lordship's future conduct, and to display the sudden transition from severity to adulation, from gall to honey, on the part of his unmerciful castigators, we should not have distended our pages with this extract.

This critique elicited from his lordship's pen one of the bitterest and most powerful satires ever published, a satire in which his lordship attacks the reviewers and the review in general terms, as will be seen by the following extract:—

"To these young tyrants, by themselves misplaced,  
Combined usurpers on the throne of Taste—  
To these when authors bend in humble awe,  
And hail their voice as truth, their words as law;  
While these are censors, 'twould be sin to spare;  
While such are critics, why should I forbear?  
But yet, so near all modern worthies run,  
'Tis doubtful whom to seek or whom to shun;  
Nor know we when to spare, or where to strike,  
Our bards and censors are so much alike.  
"Yet say! why should the bard at once resign  
His claim to favour from the sacred nine?  
For ever startled by the mingled howl  
Of northern wolves that still in darkness prow—  
A coward brood which mangle, as they prey  
By hellish instinct, all that cross their way;  
Aged or young, the living or the dead,

No mercy find, these harpies must be fed;  
Why do the injured unresisting yield  
The calm possession of their native field?  
Why tamely thus before their fangs retreat,  
Nor hunt the bloodhounds back to Arthur's seat."

His lordship's pen, however, was not entirely dipped in gall; on the contrary, there are many very beautiful lines eulogizing the productions of Messrs. Gifford, Kirke White, Southey, Macneil, Crabbe, Shee, Rogers, and Campbell.

Lord Byron declares towards the termination of the poem that it was his intention to close, from that period, his newly-formed connection with the muses, and that should he return in safety from the "minarets" of Constantinople, the "maidens of Georgia," and the "sublime snows" of Mount Caucasus, nothing on earth should tempt him to resume the pen.

Happily for the republic of letters this resolution was not preserved; and the noble Bard, with that generosity which usually accompanies true genius, not only forgave Mr. Jeffrey, the editor of the Edinburgh Review, but thus flatteringly alludes to him in one of his poems:—

"And all our little feuds, at least all mine,  
Dear Jeffrey, once my most doubted foe,  
(As far as rhyme and criticism combine  
To make such puppets of us things below),  
Are over; here's a health 'to Auld Lang Syne.'  
I do not know you, and may never know  
Your face; but you have acted on the whole  
Most nobly, and I own it from my soul."

Byron's autograph at this period is given in the subjoined sketch.

Up to the time of his majority, the noble lord continued to follow his fancies, as they led him alternately to Newstead and to the metropolis. The life he led when in London was, unhappily, one of riot and dissipation. The miserable consequences of such a course were soon apparent. His own master at an age when he most required a guide, and left to the dominion of his passions when they were the most unmanageable, with a fortune anticipated before he came into possession of it, and a constitution impaired by early excesses, in the year 1809 he determined to travel; but it was, as he himself said, "with a joyless indifference to the world that was all before him."

His original intention included a much larger portion of the world than that which he actually visited. He first thought of Persia, to which idea, indeed, he for a long time adhered. He then contemplated sailing for India, and even wrote for information from the Arabic professor at Cambridge, and made many enquiries respecting the necessary preparations for the voyage. At one time it occurred to him that he would enter into some foreign service, the Austrian, the Russian, or even the Turkish, if he liked their manners. At length, in July, 1809, in company with John Cam Hobhouse, Esq. (his acquaintance with whom commenced at Cambridge), Lord Byron embarked at Falmouth for Lisbon, and thence proceeded, by the southern provinces of Spain, to the Mediterranean. The objects that he met with as far as Gibraltar seem to have occupied his mind, to the temporary exclusion of his gloomy and misanthropic thoughts; for a letter which he wrote to his mother from thence contains no indication of them, but, on the contrary, much playful



description of the scenes through which he had passed. At Seville Lord Byron lodged in the house of two single ladies, one of whom, however, was about to be married. Though he remained there only three days she paid him the most particular attentions, and at their parting embraced him with great tenderness, cutting off a lock of his hair, and presenting him with one of her own. With this specimen of Spanish female manners, he proceeded to Cadiz, where various incidents occurred to confirm the opinion he had formed at Seville of the Andalusian belles, and which made him leave Cadiz with regret and determine to return to it. Lord Byron kept no journal; but he wrote to his mother from Malta, announcing his safety, and again from Previsa, in November. Upon arriving at Yanina, Lord Byron found that Ali Pacha was with his troops in Illyrium, besieging Ibrahim Pacha in Berat; but the vizier, having heard that an English nobleman was in his country, had given orders at Yanina to supply him with every kind of accommodation free of expense. From Yanina Lord Byron went to Tepaleen. Here he was lodged in the palace, and the next day introduced to Ali Pacha, who declared that he knew him to be a man of rank from the smallness of his ears, his curling hair, and his white hands, and sent him a variety of sweetmeats, fruits, and other luxuries. In going in a Turkish ship of war, provided for him by Ali Pacha, from Previsa, intending to sail for Patras, Lord Byron was very nearly lost in but a moderate gale of wind, from the ignorance of the Turkish officers and sailors, and was driven on the coast of Suli. He was afterwards conveyed in the Salsette frigate to Smyrna.

While the Salsette frigate, in which Lord Byron was a passenger to Constantinople, lay in the Dardanelles, a discourse arose among some of the officers respecting the practicability of swimming across the Hellespont. Lord Byron and Lieutenant Ekenhead agreed to make the trial; they accordingly attempted this enterprise on the 3rd of May, 1810. The following is the account given of it by his lordship:—"The whole distance from Abydos, the place from whence we started, to our landing at Sestos on the other side, including the length we were carried by the current, was computed by those on board the frigate at upwards of four English miles, though the actual breadth is barely one. The rapidity of the current is such that no boat can row directly across; and it may in some measure be estimated from the circumstance of the whole distance being accomplished by one of the parties in an hour and five and by the other in an hour and ten minutes. The water was extremely cold, from the melting of the mountain-snows. About three weeks before, we had made an attempt; but having ridden all the way from the Troad the same morning, and the water being of an icy chillness, we found it necessary to postpone the completion till the frigate anchored below the castles, when we swam the straits, as just stated, entering a considerable way above the European, and landing below the Asiatic, fort. Chevalier says that a young Jew swam the same distance for his mistress; and Oliver mentions its having been done by a Neapolitan; but our consul at Tarragona remembered neither of these circumstances, and tried to dissuade us from the attempt. A number of the Salsette's crew were known to have accomplished a greater distance; and the only thing that surprised me was that, as doubts had

been entertained of the truth of Leander's story, no traveller had endeavoured to ascertain its practicability." The result of this extraordinary feat Lord Byron recorded in some lively lines, comparing himself with Leander, and concluding thus:—

"Twere hard to say who fared the best  
(Sad mortals, thus the gods still plague you):  
He lost his labour, I my jest;  
For he was drowned, and I've the ague."

After an absence of nearly three years, Lord Byron revisited his native shores, and exhibited the advantages of travelling in his "Childe Harold." The fictitious personage (whose sentiments, however, no one could help identifying with those of the author himself) avowed a proud disregard of all the attributes which most men would be gladly supposed to possess. "Childe Harold" is represented as satiated by indulgence in pleasure, and seeking, in change of place and clime, a relief from the tedium of a life which glided on without an object. The assuming of such a character as the medium of communicating his poetry and his sentiments indicated a feeling towards the public, which, if it fell short of contemning their favour, at least disdained all attempt to propitiate them. Yet the very audacity of his repulsive personification, joined to the energy with which it was supported and to the indications of a bold, powerful, and original mind, which were manifested in every line of the poem, electrified the mass of readers, and placed at once upon Lord Byron's head the garland for which other men of genius have toiled long, and which they have gained late. Those who had so rigorously criticised his juvenile essays were the first to pay warm homage to his matured efforts; while others, who saw in "Childe Harold" much to regret and to censure, could not withhold their tribute of applause to the depth of thought, the force of expression, the beauty of description, and the energy of sentiment, by which it was animated. If the volume was laid aside for a moment, under the melancholy and unpleasing impression that it seemed calculated to chase hope from the side of man and to dim his prospects both of this life and of futurity, it was immediately, and almost involuntarily, resumed, as a feeling of the author's genius predominated over our dislike to contemplate the gloomy views of human nature, which it was his pleasure to place before us. Something was set down to the angry recollection of his first failure, which might be supposed to authorise so lofty a mind to hold the world's opinion in contempt; something was allowed for the recent family losses to which the poem alluded; and it seemed to most readers as if gentler and more kindly features were at times seen to glance from under the cloud of misanthropy which the author had flung around his hero. Thus, as all admired the "Pilgrimage of Childe Harold," all were prepared to greet the author with that fame which is the poet's best reward, and which is due to one who, in these exhausted days, strikes out a new and original line of composition.

It is well known how wide the doors of society are opened in London to literary merit, even of a degree far inferior to Lord Byron's, and that it is only necessary to be honourably distinguished by the public voice to move as a denizen in the first circles. This passport was not requisite to Lord Byron, who possessed the hereditary claims of birth and rank. But the interest which his genius attached to his presence and to his conversation was of a nature far be-

yond what these hereditary claims could of themselves have conferred, and his reception was, consequently, most enthusiastic. His countenance presented to the physiognomist an admirable subject for the exercise of his art. The predominating expression was that of deep and habitual thought, which gave way to a rapid play of features when engaged in interesting discussion, so that a brother poet compared them to the sculpture of a beautiful alabaster vase, seen to perfection only when lighted up from within. The flashes of gaiety, indignation, or satirical dislike, which frequently animated Lord Byron's countenance, might, during an evening's conversation, be in turn mistaken by a stranger for the habitual expression; but those who had an opportunity of studying his features for a length of time, and upon various occasions, both of rest and of emotion, agreed that their proper language was that of melancholy.

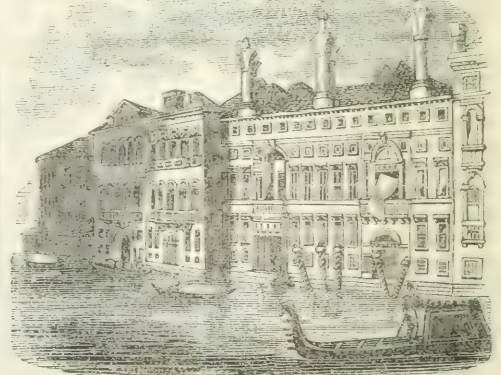
The keen and scrutinising glance which Lord Byron had cast on eastern character and customs soon manifested itself in other productions. "The Giaour," "The Bride of Abydos," "The Corsair" (the copy-right of which he presented to Mr. Dallas), "Lara," "The Siege of Corinth," followed each other with a celerity which was rivalled only by their success. Exquisitely beautiful in themselves, these tales received new charm from the romantic climes into which they introduced us, and from the oriental costume so strictly observed and so picturesquely exhibited. Greece, the cradle of the poetry with which our earliest studies are familiar, was presented to us among her ruins and her sorrows. Her delightful scenery, once dedicated to those deities who, though dethroned from their own Olympus, still preserve a poetical empire, was spread before us in Lord Byron's poetry, varied by all the moral effect derived from what Greece is and what she had been: while it was doubled by comparisons perpetually excited between the philosophers and heroes who formerly inhabited that romantic country and their descendants, who either stooped to their Scythian conquerors or maintained among the recesses of their classical mountains an independence as wild and savage as it was precarious. The oriental manners, also, and diction, so peculiar in their picturesque effect that they can cast a charm even over the absurdities of an eastern tale, had here the more honourable occupation of decorating that which in itself was beautiful, and enhancing by novelty what would have been captivating without its aid.

Almost all Lord Byron's heroes, however, possessed the general attributes of Childe Harold. Almost all had minds which seemed at variance with their fortunes, and exhibited high and poignant feelings of pain and pleasure, a clear perception, though certainly not always a laudable practice, of what is noble and honourable, and at least an equally keen susceptibility of injustice or injury; the whole under the garb of stoicism, or contempt of mankind. The strength of early passions and the glow of youthful feeling were uniformly painted as chilled or subdued by a train of early imprudences or of darker guilt; and the sense of enjoyment as tarnished by too intimate and experienced an acquaintance with the vanity of human wishes. The public, ever ready to attach to fictitious characters real prototypes, were obstinate in declaring that, in these leading traits of character, Lord Byron copied from the individual

features reflected in his own mirror. On this subject the noble author entered, on one occasion, a formal protest, though without entirely disavowing the ground on which the conjecture was formed. It was as follows:—"With regard to my story, and stories in general, I should have been glad to have rendered my personages more perfect and amiable, if possible; inasmuch as I have been sometimes criticised and considered no less responsible for their deeds and qualities than if all had been personal. Be it so. If I have deviated into the gloomy vanity of 'drawing from self,' the pictures are probably like, since they are unfavourable; and, if not, those who know me are undeceived, and those who do not I have little interest in undeceiving. I have no particular desire that any but my acquaintance should think the author better than the beings of his imagining; but I cannot help a little surprise, and perhaps amusement, at some odd critical exceptions in the present instance, when I see several bards (far more deserving, I allow) in very reputable plight, and quite exempt from all participation in the faults of their heroes, who, nevertheless, might be found with little more morality than 'The Giaour' and perhaps—but no—I must admit Childe Harold to be a very repulsive personage; and, as to his identity, those who like it must give him whatever '*alias*' they please."

On the 3d of January, 1815, Lord Byron married, at Seham, in the county of Durham, the only daughter of Sir Ralph Milbank Noel, Baronet, and towards the close of the same year his lady brought him a daughter, for whom he always manifested the strongest affection. Within a few weeks, however, after that event, a separation took place, for which various causes have been stated, none of which appear very creditable to the noble poet. This difference excited a great sensation at the time, and was the last stroke to the domestic happiness of his lordship.

He crossed over to France, through which he passed rapidly to Brussels, taking in his way a survey of the field of Waterloo. He proceeded to Coblenz, and thence up the Rhine, as far as Basle. After visiting some of the most remarkable scenes in Switzerland, he proceeded to the north of Italy. He took up his abode for some time at Venice, where he was joined by Mr. Hobhouse, who accompanied him in an excursion to Rome, where he completed his



"Childe Harold." Lord Byron's beautiful Italian residence is represented in the above engraving.



Soon after the Third Canto of "Childe Harold" appeared "The Prisoner of Chillon, a Dream; and other Poems." Inferior in interest to "Childe Harold," they were nevertheless stamped with the peculiar character of Lord Byron's genius.

At Venice Lord Byron avoided as much as possible any intercourse with his countrymen. This seems to have been, in some measure, necessary, in order to prevent the intrusion of impertinent curiosity. In an appendix to one of his poems, written with reference to a book of travels, the author of which disclaimed any wish to be introduced to the noble lord, he loftily and sarcastically chastises the incivility of such a gratuitous declaration, expresses his "utter abhorrence of any contact with the travelling English," and thus concludes: "Except Lords Lansdown, Jersey, and Lauderdale, Messrs. Scott, Hammond, Sir Humphrey Davy, the late M. Lewis, W. Bankes, M. Hoppner, Thomas Moore, Lord Kinnaird, his brother, Mr. Joy, and Mr. Hobhouse, I do not recollect to have exchanged a word with another Englishman since I left *their* country; and almost all these I had known before. The others, and, God knows, there were some hundreds who bored me with letters or visits, I refused to have any communication with, and shall be proud and happy when that wish becomes mutual." In 1817 were published "Manfred, a Dramatic Poem," and "The Lament of Tasso." The former of these pieces was thought by some to exhibit "palpable indications of faded faculty;" but the latter was universally allowed to be worthy of Lord Byron's talents.

The libertine course of life pursued by Byron during the early part of his stay in Italy was of so gross a character as to induce his friend and biographer Moore absolutely to rejoice in his having entered into a fresh intrigue with the Countess Guiccioli, a young and beautiful woman who had not long been married to the count her husband. But we cannot trust ourselves as chroniclers of this revolting event, and would rather take the language of his apologist Moore.

It may be proper to state that the commencement of Byron's acquaintance with the countess occurred in 1819, "and when, like the first return of reason after intoxication, a full consciousness of some of the evils of his late libertine course of life had broken upon him, that an attachment differing altogether, both in duration and devotion, from any of those that, since the dream of his boyhood, had inspired him, gained an influence over his mind which lasted through his few remaining years; and, undeniably wrong and immoral (even allowing for the Italian estimate of such frailties) as was the nature of the connection to which this attachment led, we can hardly perhaps,—taking into account the far worse wrong from which it rescued and preserved him,—consider it otherwise than an event fortunate both for his reputation and happiness.

"The fair object of this last and (with one signal exception) only real love of his whole life was a young Romagnese lady, the daughter of Count Gamba, of Ravenna, and married but a short time before Lord Byron first met with her to an old and wealthy widower of the same city, Count Guiccioli. Her husband had in early life been the friend of Alfieri, and had distinguished himself by his zeal in promoting the establishment of a national theatre, in which the talents of Alfieri and his own wealth were

co be combined. Notwithstanding his age, and a character, as it appears, by no means reputable, his great opulence rendered him an object of ambition among the mothers of Ravenna, who, according to the too frequent maternal practice, were seen vying with each other in attracting so rich a purchaser for their daughters, and the young Teresa Gamba, then only eighteen, and just emancipated from a convent, was the selected victim.

"The first time that Lord Byron had ever seen this lady was in the autumn of 1818, when she made her appearance, soon after her marriage, at the house of the Countess Albrizzi, in all the gaiety of bridal array, and the first delight of exchanging a convent for the world. At this time, however, no acquaintance ensued between them. It was not till the spring of the present year that, at an evening party of Madame Benzoni's, they were introduced to each other. The love that sprang out of this meeting was instantaneous and mutual,—though with the usual disproportion of sacrifice between the parties, such an event being, to the man, but one of the many scenes of life, while, with woman, it generally constitutes the whole drama. The young Italian found herself suddenly inspired with a passion of which till that moment, her mind could not have formed the least idea. She had thought of love but as an amusement, and now became its slave. If at the outset, too, less slow to be won than an Englishwoman, no sooner did she begin to understand the full despotism of the passion than her heart shrunk from it as something terrible, and she would have escaped, but that the chain was already around her.

"No words, however, can describe so simply and feelingly as her own the strong impression which their first meeting left upon her mind:—'I became acquainted,' says Madame Guiccioli, 'with Lord Byron in the April of 1819:—he was introduced to me at Venice by the Countess Benzoni, at one of that lady's parties. This introduction, which had so much influence over the lives of us both, took place contrary to our wishes, and had been permitted by us only from courtesy. For myself, more fatigued than usual that evening on account of the late hours they keep at Venice, I went with great repugnance to this party, and purely in obedience to Count Guiccioli. Lord Byron, too, who was averse to forming new acquaintances, alleging that he had entirely renounced all attachments, and was unwilling any more to expose himself to their consequences, on being requested by the Countess Benzoni to allow himself to be presented to me, refused, and at last only assented from a desire to oblige her.'

"About the middle of April, Madame Guiccioli had been obliged to quit Venice with her husband. Having several houses on the road from Venice to Ravenna, it was his habit to stop at these mansions, one after the other, in his journeys between the two cities; and from all these places the enamoured young countess now wrote to her lover, expressing, in the most passionate and pathetic terms, her despair at leaving him. So utterly, indeed, did this feeling overpower her, that three times, in the course of her first day's journey, she was seized with fainting-fits. In one of her letters, which I saw when at Venice, dated, if I recollect right, from 'Cà Zen, Cavanella di Po,' she tells him that the solitude of this place, which she had before found irksome, was, now that one sole idea occupied her mind, become

dear and welcome to her, and promises that, as soon as she arrives at Ravenna, 'she will, according to his wish, avoid all general society, and devote herself to reading, music, domestic occupations, riding on horseback, every thing in short that she knew he would most like.' What a change for a young and simple girl, who, but a few weeks before, had thought only of society and the world, but who now saw no other happiness but in the hope of becoming worthy, by seclusion and self-instruction, of the illustrious object of her love!

"On leaving this place she was attacked with a dangerous illness on the road, and arrived half-dead at Ravenna; nor was it found possible to revive or comfort her till an assurance was received from Lord Byron, expressed with all the fervour of real passion, that in the course of the ensuing month he would pay her a visit. Symptoms of consumption brought on by her state of mind had already shown themselves; and, in addition to the pain which this separation had caused her, she was also suffering much grief from the loss of her mother, who, at this time, died in giving birth to her twentieth child. Towards the latter end of May she wrote to acquaint Lord Byron that having prepared all her relatives and friends to expect him he might now she thought venture to make his appearance at Ravenna. Though, on the lady's account, hesitating as to the prudence of such a step, he, in obedience to her wishes, on the 2nd of June, set out from La Mira (at which place he had again taken a villa for the summer), and proceeded towards Romagna.

"While he was lingering irresolute at Bologna, the Countess Guiccioli had been attacked with an intermittent fever, the violence of which, combining with the absence of a confidential person to whom she had been in the habit of entrusting her letters, prevented her from communicating with him. At length, anxious to spare him the disappointment of finding her so ill on his arrival, she had begun a letter, requesting that he would remain at Bologna till the visit to which she looked forward should bring her there also, and was in the act of writing, when a friend came in to announce the arrival of an English lord in Ravenna. She could not doubt for an instant that it was her noble lover, and he had, in fact, notwithstanding his declaration to Mr. Hoppner that it was his intention to return to Venice immediately, wholly altered his resolution before the letter announcing it was despatched, the following words being written on the outside cover:—"I am just setting off for Ravenna, June 8th, 1819. I changed my mind this morning and decided to go on."

"The reader, however, shall have Madame Guiccioli's own account of these events, which, fortunately for the interest of my narration, I am enabled to communicate:—"On my departure from Venice he had promised to come and see me at Ravenna. Dante's tomb, the classical pinewood, the relics of antiquity which are to be found in that place, afforded a sufficient pretext for me to invite him to come, and for him to accept my invitation. He came in fact, in the month of June, arriving at Ravenna on the day of the festival of the Corpus Domini; while I, attacked by a consumptive complaint, which had its origin from the moment of my quitting Venice, appeared on the point of death. The arrival of a distinguished foreigner at Ravenna, a town so remote from the routes ordinarily followed by travel-

lers, was an event which gave rise to a good deal of conversation. His motives for such a visit became the subject of discussion, and these himself afterwards involuntarily divulged; for having made some enquiries with a view to paying me a visit, and being told that it was unlikely that he would ever see me again as I was at the point of death, he replied, if such were the case, he hoped that he should die also, which circumstance being repeated revealed the object of his journey. Count Guiccioli, having been acquainted with Lord Byron at Venice, went to visit him now, and, in the hope that his presence might amuse and be of some use to me in the state in which I then found myself, invited him to call upon me. He came the day following. It is impossible to describe the anxiety he showed, the delicate attentions that he paid me. For a long time he had perpetually medical books in his hands, and, not trusting my physicians, he obtained permission from Count Guiccioli to send for a very clever physician, a friend of his, in whom he placed great confidence. The attentions of the Professor Aglietti (for so this celebrated Italian was called), together with tranquillity, and the inexpressible happiness which I experienced in Lord Byron's society, had so good an effect on my health that only two months afterwards I was able to accompany my husband in a tour he was obliged to make to visit his various estates."

The same ingenious but latitudinarian biographer furnishes so graphic a sketch of Byron's appearance and habits at this period that we cannot do better than quote his words.

"Having parted at Milan with Lord John Russell, whom I had accompanied from England, and whom I was to rejoin after a short visit to Rome at Genoa, I made purchase of a small and (as it soon proved) crazy travelling carriage, and proceeded alone on my way to Venice. My time being limited, I stopped no longer at the intervening places than was sufficient to hurry over their respective wonders, and, leaving Padua at noon on the 8th of October, I found myself about two o'clock at the door of my friend's villa, at La Mira. He was but just up, and in his bath; but, the servant having announced my arrival, he returned a message that if I would wait till he was dressed he would accompany me to Venice. The interval I employed in conversing with my old acquaintance, Fletcher, and in viewing under his guidance some of the apartments of the villa.

"It was not long before Lord Byron himself made his appearance, and the delight I felt in meeting him once more after a separation of so many years was not a little heightened by observing that his pleasure was to the full as great, while it was rendered doubly touching by the evident rarity of such meetings to him of late, and the frank outbreak of cordiality and gaiety with which he gave way to his feelings. It would be impossible, indeed, to convey to those who have not, at some time or other, felt the charm of his manner, any idea of what it could be when under the influence of such pleasurable excitement as it was most flatteringly evident he experienced at this moment. I was a good deal struck, however, by the alteration that had taken place in his personal appearance. He had grown fatter both in person and face, and the latter had most suffered by the change, having lost by the enlargement of the features some of that refined and spiritualized look that had in other times distinguished it. The addi-



tion of whiskers too, which he had not long before been induced to adopt, from hearing that some one had said he had a 'faccia, di musico,' as well as the length to which his hair grew down on his neck, and the rather foreign air of his coat and cap, all combined to produce that dissimilarity to his former self I had observed in him. He was still, however, eminently handsome; and, in exchange for whatever his features might have lost of their high romantic character, they had become more fitted for the expression of that arch waggish wisdom, that epicurean play of humour, which he had shown to be equally inherent in his various and prodigally gifted nature; while, by the somewhat increased roundness of the contours, the resemblance of his finely formed mouth and chin to those of the Belvidere Apollo had become still more striking. His breakfast, which I found he rarely took before three or four o'clock in the afternoon, was speedily despatched, his habit being to eat it standing, and the meal in general consisting of one or two raw eggs, a cup of tea without either milk or sugar, and a bit of dry biscuit. Before we took our departure, he presented me to the Countess Guiccioli, who was at this time living under the same roof with him at La Mira, and who, with a style of beauty singular in an Italian, as being fair complexioned and delicate, left an impression upon my mind during this our first short interview of intelligence and amiableness such as all that I have since known or heard of her has but served to confirm.

"We now started together, Lord Byron and myself, in my little Milanese vehicle for Fusina, his portly gondolier Tita, in a rich livery and most redundant mustachios, having seated himself on the front of the carriage, to the no small trial of its strength, which had already once given way even under my weight between Verona and Vicenza. On our arrival at Fusina, my noble friend, from his familiarity with all the details of the place, had it in his power to save me both trouble and expense in the different arrangements relative to the custom-house, remise, &c., and the good-natured assiduity with which he bustled about in despatching these matters gave me an opportunity of observing in his use of the infirm limb a much greater degree of activity than I had ever before, except in sparring, witnessed. As we proceeded across the Lagoon in his gondola the sun was just setting, and it was an evening such as Romance would have chosen for a first sight of Venice, rising 'with her tiara of bright towers' above the wave, while, to complete as might be imagined the solemn interest of the scene, I beheld it in company with him who had lately given a new life to its glories, and sung of that fair city of the sea thus grandly:—

"I stood in Venice on the Bridge of Sighs;  
A palace and a prison on each hand;  
I saw from out the wave her structures rise  
As from the stroke of the enchanter's wand:  
A thousand years their cloudy wings expand  
Around me, and a dying glory smiles  
O'er the far times, when many a subject land  
Look'd to the winged lion's marble piles,  
Where Venus sat in state, throned on her hundred isles."

"But, whatever emotions the first sight of such a scene might under other circumstances have inspired me with, the mood of mind in which I now viewed it was altogether the very reverse of what might have been expected. The exuberant gaiety of my companion, and the recollections, any thing

but romantic, into which our conversation wandered, put at once completely to flight all poetical and historical associations; and our course was, I am almost ashamed to say, one of uninterrupted merriment and laughter till we found ourselves at the steps of my friend's palazzo on the Grand Canal. All that had ever happened of gay or ridiculous during our London life together, his scrapes and my lecturings, our joint adventures with the Bores and Blues, the two great enemies, as he always called them, of London happiness, our joyous nights together at Watier's, Kinnaird's, &c., and 'that d—d supper of Ranccliffe's which ought to have been a dinner,' all was passed rapidly in review between us, and with a flow of humour and hilarity, on his side, of which it would have been difficult even for persons far graver than I can pretend to be not to have caught the contagion."

Byron was much attached to the poet Shelley. It appears that they first met at Geneva. There was no want of disposition towards acquaintance on either side, and an intimacy almost immediately sprung up between them. Among the tastes common to both that for boating was not the least strong, and in this beautiful region they had more than ordinary temptations to indulge in it. Every evening during their residence under the same roof at Sécheron they embarked, accompanied by the ladies and Polidori, on the lake, and to the feelings and fancies inspired by these excursions, which were not unfrequently prolonged into the hour of moonlight, we are indebted for some of those enchanting stanzas in which the poet has given way to his passionate love of nature so fervidly.

"There breathes a living fragrance from the shore  
Of flowers yet fresh with childhood; on the ear  
Drips the light drop of the suspended oar.

At intervals, some bird from out the brakes  
Starts into voice a moment, then is still,  
There seems a floating whisper on the hill;  
But that is fancy, for the starlight dews  
All silently their tears of life instil,  
Weeping themselves away."

Departing from the usual style of Lord Byron's composition, in 1818 appeared a little playful poem, under the title of "Beppo, a Venetian Story." It wanders on from digression to digression, and is occasionally pointed even to satire; but its gaiety and wit are its great fascinations. In 1819 was published the wild and romantic tale of "Mazeppa." In the same year Lord Byron, then in the meridian of his poetical glory, chose in an evil hour to commence the exercise of his extraordinary powers on a theme until that fatal period known only as the vehicle of dramatic horror. Melancholy, indeed, was it to see the greatest poet of the age issuing on such a subject as Don Juan periodical cantos, replete, it is true, with passages of wonderful splendour and beauty, but debased by an admixture of the grossest indecency. In some of Lord Byron's former works there was much that approached to the sensual and the voluptuous. These, however, seemed to be incidental qualities, and seldom became positively offensive. But in Don Juan, with a singular and lamentable perversion of taste, he employed the whole force of his brilliant imagination to render licentious pleasures attractive and seducing. Nor was the manner less censurable in which the most masterly descriptions of profound human misery

were suddenly interrupted, or closely followed, by passages of as masterly wit and humour in which that misery was made the subject of heartless ridicule and demoniac merriment. This publication, in every respect but talent so unworthy of the noble lord, was extended to sixteen cantos. Towards the close, however, dulness being added to its other demerits, it found comparatively few readers.

In 1820 was published "*Marino Faliero, Doge of Venice, an Historical Tragedy*." In this tragedy Lord Byron professed to adhere to, or at least to approach, the dramatic unities, from which he contended that no dramatic work ought distantly to depart. "*The Doge of Venice*" had most of the requisites of tragedy—sublimity, terror, and pathos. But it was deficient in that without which all the rest are unavailing—interest. This was rendered more evident, when, in direct and unjustifiable contradiction to Lord Byron's expressed wish and intention, it was brought upon the stage.

In 1821 appeared a letter on the poetical character of Pope, and in the same year appeared "*Sardanapalus, a Tragedy*," and "*The Two Foscari, a Tragedy*," and "*Cain, a Mystery*."

Lord Byron's acquaintance with Mr. Leigh Hunt, the former editor of the *Examiner*, originated in his grateful feeling for the manner in which Mr. Hunt stood forward in his justification at a time when the current of public opinion ran strongly against him. This feeling induced him to invite Mr. Hunt to the Lanfranchi palace, where a suite of apartments was fitted up for him. On his arrival a periodical publication was projected under the title of "*The Liberal*," of which Mr. Hunt was to be the editor, and to which Lord Byron and Mr. Percy Bysshe Shelley were to contribute. Three numbers of "*The Liberal*" were published, when, in consequence of the unhappy fate of Mr. Shelley (who perished in the Mediterranean by the upsetting of a boat), and of other discouraging circumstances, it expired. The last works from Lord Byron's pen were "*The Vision of Judgment*," *Werner a Tragedy*," "*Heaven and Earth, a Mystery*," and "*The Deformed Transformed*." Of these, the first, although certainly in some degree provoked by the strange composition of which it is a parody, is, nevertheless, deserving of the severest reprehension, for the manner in which it treats the memory of a venerable monarch, the victim of the most lamentable affliction to which humanity is subject. The remaining pieces, although by no means equal to Lord Byron's productions when his powers were in their meridian, and although they are in some respects extremely objectionable, are yet distinguished by great force and beauty.

We may here briefly pause to notice the amount of remuneration received by the noble poet as the price of his literary labours. Mr. Murray, the publisher, acted with a degree of liberality towards his lordship previously unknown in the history of literature. We may, however, give the various items in detail, and they will be found to amount to more than 15,000*l*.

Childe Harold, I. II. ....	£600
..... III. ....	1575
..... IV. ....	2100
Giaour ..... 525	
Bride of Abydos ..... 525	
Corsair ..... 525	

Lara ..... £700	
Siege of Corinth ..... 525	
Parisina ..... 525	
Lament of Tasso ..... 315	
Manfred ..... 315	
Beppo ..... 525	
Don Juan, I. II. .... 1525	
..... III. IV. V. .... 1525	
Doge of Venice ..... 1050	
Sardanapalus, Cain, and Foscari --- 1100	
Mazeppa ..... 525	
Chillon ..... 525	
Sundries ..... 450	

The motives which ultimately induced Lord Byron to leave Italy and join the Greeks, struggling for emancipation, are sufficiently obvious. It was in Greece that his high poetical faculties had been first fully developed. Greece, a land of the most venerable and illustrious history, of peculiarly grand and beautiful scenery, inhabited by various races of the most wild and picturesque manners, was to him the land of excitement. It was necessarily the chosen and favourite spot of a man of powerful and original intellect, of quick and sensible feelings, of a restless and untameable spirit, of various information, and who, above all, was satiated with common enjoyments, and disgusted with what appeared to him to be the formality, hypocrisy, and sameness of daily life. Dwelling upon that country, as it is clear from all Lord Byron's writings he did, with the fondest solicitude, and being, as he was well known to be, an ardent though perhaps not a very systematic lover of freedom, he could be no unconcerned spectator of its recent revolution: and, as soon as it seemed to him that his presence might be useful, he prepared to visit once more the shores of Greece.

Lord Byron embarked from Leghorn, and arrived in Cephalonia in the early part of August, 1823, attended by a suite of six or seven friends, in an English vessel, which he had hired for the express purpose of taking him to Greece. That country, though with a fair prospect of ultimate triumph, was at that time in an unsettled state. The third campaign had commenced with several instances of distinguished success—her arms were every where victorious, but her counsels were distracted. Western Greece was in a critical situation; and, although the heroic Marco Botzaris had not fallen in vain, yet the glorious enterprise in which he perished only checked, and did not prevent, the advance of the Turks towards Anatolicon and Messolonghi. This gallant chief, worthy of the best days of Greece, hailed Lord Byron's arrival in that country with transports; and his last act, before proceeding to the attack in which he fell, was to write a warm invitation for his lordship to come to Messolonghi. In his letter, which is addressed to a friend at Messolonghi, Botzaris alludes to almost the first proceeding of Lord Byron in Greece, which was the arming and provisioning of forty Suliotes, whom he sent to join in the defence of Messolonghi. After the battle Lord Byron transmitted bandages and medicines, of which he had brought a large store from Italy, and pecuniary succour to those who had been wounded. He had already made a very generous offer to the government. He says, in a letter, "I offered to advance a thousand dollars a month for the succour of Messolonghi, and the Suliotes under



Botzaris (since killed), but the government have answered me through — of this island that they wish to confer with me previously, which is, in fact, saying they wish me to expend my money in some other direction. I will take care that it is for the public cause, otherwise I will not advance a para. The opposition say they want to cajole me, and the party in power say the others wish to seduce me; so, between the two, I have a difficult part to play: however, I will have nothing to do with the factions, unless to reconcile them, if possible."

The Greek chief, Mavrocordatos, was at this period endeavouring to fit out a fleet for the relief of Messolonghi, and Lord Byron offered to advance £12,000 for this purpose. With reference to a loan from this country he says, "I must frankly confess that unless union and order are confirmed all hopes of a loan will be in vain, and all the assistance which the Greeks could expect from abroad, an assistance which might be neither trifling nor worthless, will be suspended or destroyed; and, what is worse, the great powers of Europe, of whom no one was an enemy to Greece, but seemed inclined to favour her in consenting to the establishment of an independent power, will be persuaded that the Greeks are unable to govern themselves, and will, perhaps, themselves undertake to arrange your disorders in such a way as to blast the brightest hopes you indulge, and are indulged by your friends.—And allow me to add, once for all, I desire the well-being of Greece and nothing else; I will do all I can to secure it; but I cannot consent—I never will consent—to the English public or English individuals being deceived as to the real state of Greek affairs. The rest, gentlemen, depends on you; you have fought gloriously; act honourably towards your fellow-citizens and towards the world, and then it will no more be said, as has been repeated for 2000 years with the Roman historian, that Philopœmen was the last of the Grecians. Let not calumny itself (and it is difficult to guard against it in so difficult a struggle) compare the Turkish Pacha with the patriot Greek in peace, after you have exterminated him in war."

The dissensions among the Greek chiefs evidently gave great pain to Lord Byron, whose sensibility was keenly affected by the slightest circumstance which he considered would retard the deliverance of Greece. "For my part," he observes, in another of his letters, "I will stick by the cause while a plank remains which can be honourably clung to; if I quit it, it will be by the Greeks' conduct, and not the Holy Allies, or the holier Mussulmans."

Lord Byron shortly afterwards proceeded to Messolonghi. After paying the fleet, which indeed had only come out under the expectation of receiving its arrears from the loan which he promised to make the provisional government, he set about forming a brigade of Suliotes. Five hundred of these, the bravest and most resolute of the soldiers of Greece, were taken into his pay on the 1st of January, 1824. An expedition against Lepanto was proposed, of which the command was given to Lord Byron. This expedition, however, had to experience delay and disappointment. The Suliotes, conceiving that they had found a patron whose wealth was inexhaustible and whose generosity was boundless, determined to make the most of the occasion, and proceeded to the most extravagant demands on their leader for arrears,

and under other pretences. The Suliotes, untameable in the field and unmanageable in a town, were, at this moment, peculiarly disposed to be obstinate, riotous, and mercenary. They had been chiefly instrumental in preserving Messolonghi when besieged, the previous autumn, by the Turks, had been driven from their abodes, and the whole of their families were, at this time, in the town, destitute of either home or sufficient supplies. Of turbulent and reckless character, they kept the place in awe; and Mavrocordatos having, unlike the other captains, no soldiers of his own, was glad to find a body of valiant mercenaries, especially if paid for out of the funds of another; and, consequently, was not disposed to treat them with harshness. Within a fortnight after Lord Byron's arrival, a burgher, refusing to quarter some Suliotes who rudely demanded entrance into his house, was killed, and a riot ensued, in which some lives were lost. Lord Byron's impatient spirit could ill brook the delay of a favourite scheme; but he saw with the utmost chagrin that the state of his troops was such as to render any attempt to lead them out at that time impracticable.

The project of proceeding against Lepanto being thus suspended, at a moment when Lord Byron's enthusiasm was at its height, and when he had fully calculated on striking a blow which could not fail to be of the utmost service to the Greek cause, the unlooked-for disappointment preyed on his spirits, and produced a degree of irritability which, if it was not the sole cause, contributed greatly to a severe fit of epilepsy, with which he was attacked on the 15th of February. His lordship was sitting in the apartment of Colonel Stanhope, and was talking in a jocular manner with Mr. Parry, the engineer, when it was observed, from occasional and rapid changes in his countenance, that he was suffering under some strong emotion. On a sudden, he complained of a weakness in one of his legs, and rose, but, finding himself unable to walk, he cried out for assistance. He then fell into a state of nervous and convulsive agitation, and was placed on a bed. For some minutes his countenance was much distorted. He, however, quickly recovered his senses and resumed his usual occupations.

In a letter, written a few days after Lord Byron's first attack, to a friend in Zante, he spoke of himself as rapidly recovering. "I am a good deal better," he observes, "though of course weakly. The leeches took too much blood from my temples the day after, and there was some difficulty in stopping it; but I have been up daily, and out in boats or on horseback. To-day I have taken a warm bath, and live as temperately as well can be, without any liquid but water, and without any animal food." After adverting to some other subjects, the letter thus concludes: "Matters are here a little embroiled with the Suliotes, foreigners, &c.; but I still hope better things, and will stand by the cause as long as my health and circumstances will permit me to be supposed useful."

Notwithstanding Lord Byron's improvement in health, his friends felt, from the first, that he ought to try a change of air. Messolonghi is a flat, marshy, and pestilential place, and, except for purposes of utility, never would have been selected for his residence. A gentleman of Zante wrote to him early in March to induce him to return to that island for

a time. To his letter the following answer was received :—

"I am extremely obliged by your offer of your country-house, as for all other kindness, in case my health should require my removal; but I cannot quit Greece while there is a chance of my being of (even *supposed*) utility. There is a stake worth millions such as I am; and, while I can stand at all, I must stand by the cause. While I say this, I am aware of the difficulties, and dissensions, and defects of the Greeks themselves: but allowance must be made for them by all reasonable people."

The last moments of Byron have been carefully chronicled by his servant Fletcher, and they furnish an interesting picture of the man when divested of the tinsel and glare of worldly selfishness. "I do not believe," says his attached domestic, "that his lordship had any apprehension of his fate till the 18th, when he said, 'I fear you and Tita will be ill by sitting up constantly night and day.' I answered, 'we shall never leave your lordship till you are better.' As my master had a slight fit of delirium on the 16th, I took care to remove the pistols and stiletto which had hitherto been kept at his bedside in the night. On the 18th his lordship addressed me frequently, and seemed to be very much dissatisfied with his medical treatment. I then said, 'Do allow me to send for Dr. Thomas,' to which he answered, 'Do so, but be quick. I am only sorry I did not let you do so before, as I am sure they have mistaken my disease; write yourself, for I know they would not like to see other doctors here.' I did not lose a moment in obeying my master's orders, and, on informing Dr. Bruno and Mr. Millingen of it, they said it was very right, as they now began to be afraid themselves. On returning to my master's room, his first words were, 'Have you sent?' 'I have my lord,' was my answer; upon which he said, 'You have done very right, for I should like to know what is the matter with me.' Although his lordship did not appear to think his dissolution was so near, I could perceive he was getting weaker every hour, and he even began to have occasional fits of delirium. He afterwards said, 'I now begin to think I am seriously ill, and, in case I should be taken off suddenly, I wish to give you several directions, which I hope you will be particular in seeing executed.' I answered I would, in case such an event came to pass, but expressed a hope that he would live many years to execute them much better himself than I could. To this my master replied, 'No, it is now nearly over,'—and then added, 'I must tell you all without losing a moment.' I then said, 'Shall I go, my lord, and fetch pen, ink, and paper?' 'Oh! my God, no—you will lose too much time, and I have it not to spare, for my time is now short,' said his lordship; and immediately after, 'Now pay attention;' his lordship commenced by saying, 'You will be provided for.' I begged him, however, to proceed with things of more consequence; he then continued, 'Oh, my poor dear child! my dear Ada! my God, could I but have seen her! give her my blessing—and my dear sister Augusta and her children;—and you will go to Lady Byron, and say—tell her every thing—you are friends with her.' His lordship appeared to be greatly affected at this moment. Here my master's voice failed him, so that I could only catch a word at intervals, but he kept muttering something very seriously for some time, and

would often raise his voice and say, 'Fletcher, now, if you do not execute every order which I have given you, I will torment you hereafter if possible.'—Here I told his lordship, in a state of the greatest perplexity, that I had not understood a word of what he said, to which he replied, 'Oh, my God! then all is lost; for it is now too late—can it be possible you have not understood me?' 'No, my lord,' said I, 'but I pray you to try and inform me once more.' 'How can I?' rejoined my master; 'it is now too late, and all is over.' I said, 'Not our will, but God's be done,' and he answered, 'Yes, not mine be done—but I will try——.' His lordship did indeed make several efforts to speak, but could only repeat two or three words at a time, such as 'My wife! my child! my sister! you know all—you must say all—you know my wishes;' the rest was quite unintelligible. A consultation was now held (about noon), when it was determined to administer some Peruvian bark and wine. My master had now been nine days without any sustenance whatever except what I have already mentioned. With the exception of a few words which can only interest those to whom they were addressed, and which, if required, I shall communicate to themselves, it was impossible to understand anything his lordship said after taking the bark. He expressed a wish to sleep. I at one time asked whether I should call Mr. Parry, to which he replied, 'Yes, you may call him.' Mr. Parry desired him to compose himself. He shed tears, and apparently sunk into a slumber. Mr. Parry went away, expecting to find him refreshed on his return—but it was the commencement of the lethargy preceding his death. The last words I heard my master utter were at six o'clock on the evening of the 18th, when he said, 'I must sleep now,' upon which he laid down never to rise again." Lord Byron's body was embalmed, and brought over to this country.

We may now briefly advert to the last resting-place of Byron's remains, and must with that conclude our memoir of the noble poet. It was generally expected that he would have been buried in the Abbey, and that Poets' Corner would have possessed another bright memento of the literature of our native land. It was, however, determined by Mrs. Leigh that the ashes of Lord Byron should repose with those of his ancestors, and his body was ultimately transferred to the church of Hucknall Torkard in Nottinghamshire. The church has been for many years



the burial-place of the Byrons, though the only memorial of them, with the exception of the tablet to the



memory of the noble bard, is a neat monument to Richard, Lord Byron, who lived in the reign of Charles I. An external view of the church is given in the previous page.

The funeral of Lord Byron took place on the 16th of July, 1824, and was attended by few persons save the corporation of Nottingham, so that of all the rich and great, the beautiful and the sceptic, who were found to pay their homage of adulation before the shrine of the god of their idolatry when living, a few "base plebeian weavers" were the main attendants to "that bourne from whence no traveller returns." This indeed needs no comment. The man who was alien alike to his country and to its moral and religious institutions could hardly expect that the vastness of his misapplied talents should, with his own countrymen at least, gloss over his vices as a man. His genius as a poet must ever place him first in the list of England's literary worthies; but the biographer who attempts to trace his moral career finds little to repay him for his labour but a deep sense of the moral degradation which the selfish follower of worldly pleasures may carve out for himself.

CABOT, SEBASTIAN, an English navigator of great eminence and abilities, who was born at Bristol, about the year 1477. He was the son of John Cabot, a Venetian pilot who resided at Bristol and was highly esteemed for his skill in navigation. Sebastian was early instructed in the mathematical knowledge required by a seaman, and at the age of seventeen had made several voyages. In 1495 John Cabot obtained from Henry VII. letters patent empowering him and his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian, and Sanctius, to discover unknown lands, and conquer and settle them. In consequence of this permission, the king supplied one ship, and the merchants of London and Bristol a few smaller ones, and in 1496 John and Sebastian sailed to the north-west. In July of the same year, they discovered Newfoundland and explored it up to latitude 67°. The accounts of this voyage are attended with much obscurity, but it appears that, in a subsequent voyage, the father and son sailed as far as Cape Florida, and were actually the first who saw the mainland of America.

Little, however, is known of the proceedings of Sebastian Cabot for the ensuing twenty years, but it seems that in the reign of Henry VIII., by the patronage of Sir Thomas Peart, vice-admiral of England, he procured another ship to make discoveries, and attempted a southern passage to the East Indies, in which he failed. This disappointment is supposed to have induced him to quit England and visit Spain, where he was treated with great respect, and appointed pilot-major. An opulent company of Spanish merchants soon after gave him the command of an expedition to the Spice Islands, through the newly-discovered straits of Magellan. Accordingly, in 1525, he sailed from Cadiz to the Canaries and Cape de Verd islands; and, failing from the opposition of his crew in his view of reaching the Spice Islands, he proceeded to the river La Plata, where he discovered St. Salvador, and erected a fort there. He subsequently reached the great river Paraguay, and remained on the American coast a considerable time with the view of forming an establishment. Being disappointed in the expected aid from Spain, he ultimately returned home with all his crew, but

was not very favourably received owing to his failure in respect to the Spice Islands, and his severe treatment of the mutineers of his crew. He notwithstanding continued in the service of Spain for some years longer, but at length returned to England towards the latter end of the reign of Henry VIII.

At the beginning of the reign of Edward VI. he was introduced by the protector Somerset to the young king, who took much pleasure in his conversation, and settled a pension on him as grand pilot of England. From this time he was consulted on all questions relating to trade and navigation, and in 1552, being governor of the company of merchant adventurers, he drew up instructions, and procured a licence for an expedition to discover a passage to the East Indies by the north. These instructions, which are preserved in Hackluyt's collection of voyages, form a very honourable proof of his penetration. He was also governor of the Russian company, and was very active in their affairs. He is supposed to have died in the year 1557, at a very advanced age, leaving behind him a high character both as a skilful seaman and a man of great general abilities. He was the first who noticed the variations of the compass, and, besides the ordinances to be found in Hackluyt, he published a large map of the world, as also a work under the title of "*Navagazione nelle parte Septentrionali*."

CADOGAN, WILLIAM. — This distinguished officer, who was first earl of that name, entered the army at an early age. He was at the battles of Tintern, Ramilies, and Tanniers.

When the duke of Marlborough was disgraced and went abroad, he resigned all his employments, preferring, as he had a share in his grace's prosperity, to be a partaker in his adversity. At the accession of George I. he was made master of the robes and colonel of the second regiment of footguards, and also envoy extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the States General. In 1715 he was appointed governor of the Isle of Wight, and, having extinguished the remains of the rebellion in Scotland, he was elected a knight of the thistle in June 1716, and on the 30th of the same month was created a peer by the title of Lord Cadogan, baron of Reading. His lordship soon after was again sent ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the States of Holland, and, arriving at Brussels in September 1717 signed at the Hague the treaty of defensive alliance between Great Britain, France, and the States General. He set out for Utrecht in January 1716 to wait on the king, expected there that afternoon, and he returned with his majesty to England. Mr Leathes, his majesty's secretary at Brussels, was appointed to reside at the Hague, during his lordship's absence.

On his return, he was sworn of the privy council, on March 30, 1717, and in the month of July ensuing was constituted general of all his majesty's foot forces employed or to be employed in his service. The following year he was again appointed ambassador extraordinary at the Hague, where he arrived in September 1717, and, having brought his negotiations to a conclusion, embarked for England.

On May 8, 1718, he was advanced to the dignity of baron of Oakley, Viscount Caversham, and earl of Cadogan, with remainder of the barony of Oakley to Charles his brother. He set out for the Hague immediately after. Ten days after he went

to Antwerp, where he conferred with the marquis de Prie, governor for the emperor in the Netherlands, in order to put an end to the difficulties that had long obstructed the execution of the barrier treaty. He laboured with great diligence in adjusting the difficulties, which deferred the finishing of the convention for the entire execution of the treaty of barrier, and had frequent conferences with the imperial ministers and the States-General for that purpose.

His lordship remained for some time on the continent, but returned to England in 1723. After having had several additional distinctions conferred on him, he died July 17, 1726, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

CADALSO, JOSE, a man of very respectable standing among the later writers of Spain. He was born at Cadiz in 1741 of an ancient and noble family, and educated in Paris, where he made himself master of Greek and Latin, and the principal languages of modern Europe. He afterwards travelled through England, France, Portugal, Germany, and Italy. At the age of twenty, he returned home, and joined the Spanish forces then employed against Portugal. He remained in the army till his death in 1782 attentive to his military duties, though devoted to literature. He was the friend of the most distinguished writers then living in Spain, and, by his advice and example, contributed much to bring out the talent of several among them. He was killed by a shell at the siege of Gibraltar in 1782.

CADE, JOHN, better known as Jack Cade, a man of low birth, who had been obliged to fly into France for his crimes. Observing the discontents of the people on his return to England in 1450, in the reign of Henry VI., he took the name of John Mortimer, published complaints against the abuses of government, and soon found himself at the head of 20,000 men of Kent. Having defeated a force sent against him, he advanced to London, which opened its gates; but the riotous disposition of his followers alarmed the citizens. They drove out and defeated the rebels, who soon dispersed, and Cade was killed by a gentleman of Kent.

CADWALADER, JOHN.—This eminent American was born in Philadelphia, and, at the commencement of the revolution, commanded a volunteer corps, of which almost all the members received commissions in the line of the army. He was afterwards appointed colonel of one of the city battalions, from which rank he rose to that of brigadier-general, and was entrusted with the command of the Pennsylvania troops. He acted in this command, and, as a volunteer, in the battles of Princeton, Brandywine, Germantown, Monmouth, and on other occasions, and received the thanks of General Washington, whose confidence and esteem he always possessed. Cadwalader was appointed to command one of the divisions into which the army was separated when Washington determined to attack the British at Trenton, but, in consequence of the ice in the river, neither he nor General Irvine, the commander of another division, could cross the river in time. But, the day after Washington's return, he effected the passage supposing him still on the Jersey side, and pursued the vanquished troops to Burlington. In 1778 he was appointed by congress general of cavalry, an appointment which he declined on the score of being more useful in the sta-

tion which he occupied. He died February 10, 1786, in the forty-fourth year of his age.

CÆSAR, CAIUS JULIUS.—This great general, statesman, and historian was born B. C. 100. He was the son of the pretor Caius Julius Cæsar, and of Aurelia, a daughter of Aurelius Cotta. From his earliest boyhood he discovered extraordinary talents, being gifted with a remarkably strong memory and a lively imagination. When the party of Marius gained the ascendancy in Rome, Cinna gave his daughter Cornelia in marriage to Cæsar, with the view of establishing his own power more firmly. Sylla, when he came to Rome, tried to prevail on him to repudiate her, and his refusal provoked the anger of the usurper, who was prevented only by the earnest entreaties of his friends from putting him under proscription. The saying of Sylla, that "he saw in this stripling many a Marius," hastened the departure of Cæsar from Rome. While travelling into the Sabine territory, he was seized by the soldiers of Sylla, and was obliged to procure his release by a bribe. He then proceeded to the court of Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, and from thence he went to Minucius Thermus, the pretor in Asia, who entrusted him with the command of the fleet which was to blockade Mitylene, and in the execution of this trust Cæsar distinguished himself highly although but twenty-two years old. Some time after he returned to Rome, and became military tribune, questor, and edile. At the same time, he had the address to win the favour of the people by splendid entertainments and public shows; and, trusting to his popularity, he ventured to erect again the statues and trophies of Marius, who was hated by the senate and the patricians. By means of one of his relations, L. Julius Cæsar, whom he had used in obtaining the consulship, he caused many of Sylla's followers to be banished or put to death, and in the conspiracy of Cataline he certainly had a secret part, as he defended the conspirators, who were arrested, and succeeded in raising a tumult against Cato, who strongly opposed him, so that he was obliged to quit the rostrum, and even his life was endangered. Cato, however, prevailed, and Cæsar was for a time kept out of the pretorship. But he was soon after chosen pontifex maximus, and was about to go as governor to further Spain, when, his creditors refusing to let him depart, Crassus became his bondsman for the enormous sum of 830 talents. It was on his journey to Spain that he expressed, on seeing a miserable village, the well-known sentiment, that "he would rather be first there than second at Rome." In Spain he made several conquests, and returned to Rome with money enough to pay off his debts.

In order to gain the consulship, he now found it expedient to bring about a reconciliation between Pompey and Crassus, whose enmity had divided Rome into two parties. He succeeded in his design, and all three agreed to divide the sovereign power between them. This was the first triumvirate in Roman history, and Cæsar then became consul with M. Calpurnius Bibulus, confirmed the measures of Pompey, and procured the passage of a law, in opposition to the senate and his colleague, to distribute certain lands among the poor citizens. This brought him into the highest favour with the people. With Pompey he formed a still more intimate connection by giving him his daughter Julia in marriage, and gained the favour of the equestrian order by remitting a third part of their taxes. In vain did the



heads of the patriotic party, Cicero and Cato, raise their voices against the triumvirate: they only drew upon themselves their vengeance. When the year of his consulship had expired, Cæsar obtained the government of Gaul for five years, with the command of four legions.

After his marriage with the accomplished Calpurnia, the daughter of one of the new consuls, Calpurnius Piso, he repaired to Gaul, compelled the Helvetians who had invaded that province to retreat to their native country, subdued Ariovistus, who, at the head of a German tribe, intended to settle in the country of the Ædui, and conquered the Belgians. In nine years he reduced all Gaul, crossed the Rhine twice B. C. 55 and 53, and twice passed over to Britain, defeated the gallant natives of this island in several battles, and compelled them to give him hostages. The senate had continued his government in Gaul for another period of five years, while Pompey was to have the command of Spain, and Crassus that of Syria, Egypt, and Macedonia, for five years also. But the death of Crassus, in his campaign against the Parthians, dissolved the triumvirate, and the death of Julia, which took place about the same time, cooled the friendship between Cæsar and Pompey. Meanwhile the power and authority of Pompey were constantly increasing, and Cæsar strove to strengthen and enlarge his own party in the capital by enormous bribes. He made Gaul a Roman province, and governed the conquered lands with policy and kindness. Pompey, on the other hand, promoted Cæsar's enemies to the consulship, and persuaded the senate to pass a decree by which Cæsar was to leave his army, and resign his government of the province. He declared himself ready to obey if Pompey would do the same, upon which the senate ordered Cæsar to resign his offices and commanded him to do so within a certain time, or be proclaimed an enemy to the state, and appointed Pompey general of the army of the republic. Upon the receipt of this intelligence Cæsar urged his soldiers to defend the honour of their leader, passed the Rubicon, 49 B. C., and made himself master of Italy without striking a blow, as Pompey, destitute of troops to meet him, had left the city with the consuls, senators, and magistrates. Cæsar then levied an army with the treasures of the state, and hastened into Spain, which he reduced to submission without coming to a pitched battle with Pompey's generals. He next conquered Marseilles, and returned to Rome, where he was appointed dictator by the pretor, M. Æmilius Lepidus. At the same time, he was chosen consul for the following year by the people. In the meanwhile Pompey had collected an army in the east, and his rival hastened to Epirus with five legions by land. But, when the vessels which were intended to transport the rest of his troops had been captured by Pompey's fleet, Cæsar proposed an accommodation, which, however, was refused. Meanwhile, Cæsar received the expected reinforcements, and challenged his antagonist to battle. Pompey declined coming to an engagement, but at last, being surrounded in his camp, was forced to take a decisive step, in order to break through the enemy's line. This measure was successful, and Cæsar retreated to Pharsalia, where in a bloody but decisive engagement, 48 B. C., he gained the victory. Pompey fled to Asia, and then to Egypt, to raise a new army. As his party was only weakened, but not

destroyed, Cæsar hastened after him, passed over the Hellespont where Cassius surrendered to him with his fleet, and then went to Egypt, where he received intelligence of the murder of Pompey. He shed tears at the tragical end of his rival, gave his body an honourable burial, and loaded his followers with favours, by which many of them were won to embrace his cause. Being detained by contrary winds, he made use of the time to compose the differences between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra, the celebrated queen of Egypt. In Rome, the senate and the people strove eagerly to gain the favour of the victor, and they appointed him consul for five years, dictator for one year, and tribune of the people for life. Pharnaces, king of Pontus, a son of Mithridates the Great, having attempted to recover the territories of his father in Asia, Cæsar marched against him, pardoned King Dejotarus, an adherent of Pompey, on his way, and finished the war so speedily that he announced his success to his friends in the celebrated words *Veni, vidi, vici*. Returning to Rome, he granted an amnesty to all the followers of Pompey, and gained, by his clemency, the universal love of the people. When his dictatorship had expired, he caused himself to be chosen consul again, and, without changing the ancient forms of government, ruled with almost unlimited power.

In Africa, however, the friends of the republic had gathered under the standard of Cato and other generals. Cæsar passed over with an army, and fought several battles with various success, till the victory at Thapsus over Scipio Metellus decided the contest in his favour. Cato, who was in Utica, stabbed himself, and the city surrendered to the conqueror. Cæsar then made Mauritania and Numidia Roman provinces, and gave orders for the rebuilding of Carthage and Corinth, which was accomplished in a year. On his return to Rome, he was received with the most striking marks of honour, and the term of his dictatorship was prolonged to ten years, the office of censor conferred on him alone; his person was declared inviolable, and his statue placed by that of Jupiter in the capitol. In a speech to the people on this occasion, he declared his resolution to use his power for the good of the state, and put an end to the apprehensions which some still entertained, by the pardon of Marcellus, one of his most open and bitter enemies. He soon after celebrated the four triumphs which had been decreed him over Gaul, Egypt, Pharnaces, and Juba, all in one month, and among the most magnificent ever witnessed in Rome. He now passed many useful laws, and invited the learned men of foreign countries to Rome. Amongst other things he undertook the reformation of the calendar.

During these peaceful occupations, the sons of Pompey had collected new forces in Spain, so that Cæsar took the field in person against them. Corduba was captured after a most obstinate resistance, and, soon after, the parties came to a general engagement at Munda. In seven months Spain was conquered, and Cæsar returned to Rome in triumph. He was now made perpetual dictator, and received the title of imperator, with full powers of sovereignty. He continued, meanwhile, to conciliate his enemies by clemency, and to heap honours upon his friends. The number of senators he increased from 300 to 900, but this degradation of the senate offended the Roman people, and their displeasure was increased by the arrogance with which he conducted himself

towards that order. On one occasion as he was sitting in the rostrum, in his chair of gold, Mark Antony offered him a royal diadem. He refused it, however, and his refusal drew shouts of applause from the people. The next morning his statues were decked with diadems. The tribunes of the people, who had them taken off, and imprisoned the persons who had done the act, were deposed from their office by Cæsar, and this act occasioned so much discontent amongst the republicans of Rome that a conspiracy was formed, of which Caius Cassius was the prime mover. Cæsar's friends stated that, according to the Sibylline books, the Parthians could be conquered only by a king, and therefore proposed that Cæsar should retain the title of dictator with regard to Italy, but should be saluted with that of king in all the conquered countries. For this purpose a meeting of the senate was appointed for the 15th of March; and this was the day fixed upon by the conspirators for the execution of the plot. A soothsayer warned Cæsar of his danger, and his wife, disturbed by a frightful dream, conjured him not to go to the senate-house. His doubts, however, were overcome by Decimus Brutus, one of the conspirators, and he proceeded to the capitol. On his way thither a billet was handed him, giving him information of the conspiracy; but, in the crowd, he put it by without reading it. The conspirators had concerted that Metellus Cimber should entreat a pardon for his brother, and, if Cæsar should refuse, he was to tear the mantle from his shoulders, which was to be the signal for their rushing upon him with their daggers. All was done as they had planned; Casca's dagger first pierced him in the neck. Scarcely had Cæsar turned and uttered the words "Accursed Casca, what doest thou?" when the conspirators rushed upon him from all sides. However, he defended himself bravely until he perceived Brutus among the conspirators, when he exclaimed "And thou too, my son!" and covering his face with his mantle he fell covered with wounds at the foot of Pompey's statue. Thus died Cæsar, the victor of 500 battles and the conqueror of a thousand cities.

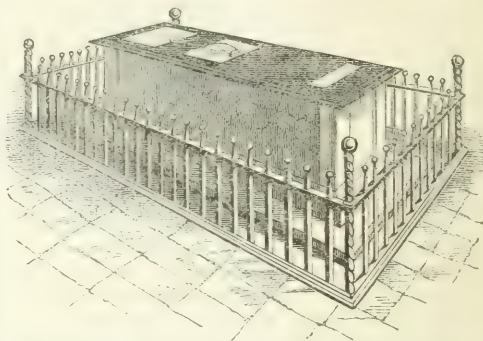
**CÆSAR, JULIUS.**—This learned civilian was born at Tottenham in 1557. He received a good classical education at Magdalen College, Oxford, and afterwards studied in the university of Paris. In the reign of Queen Elisabeth we find him judge of the high court of admiralty; and at the commencement of James's reign he was knighted. On the death of Sir Edward Phillips he became master of the rolls and possessed immense patronage. His autobiography is subjoined.

*Jul. Cæsar*

It is said that "He entertained for some time in his house the most illustrious Francis Lord Bacon, Viscount St. Alban's. He made his grants to all persons double kindnesses by expedition, and clothed (as one expresses it) his very denials in such robes of courtship that it was not obviously discernible whether the request or denial were most decent. He had also this peculiar to himself, that he was very cautious of promises, lest falling to an incapacity of

performance he might forfeit his reputation, and multiply his certain enemies, by his design of creating uncertain friends. Besides, he observed a sure principle of rising, namely, that great persons esteem better of such they have done great courtesies to, than those they have received great civilities from, looking upon this as their disparagement, the other as their glory."

In 1613 he was one of the commissioners, or delegates employed in the business of the divorce between the earl of Essex and his countess; and gave sentence for that divorce. About the same time he built a chapel at his house on the north side of the Strand in London, which was consecrated May 8, 1614. As he had been privy-counsellor to King James I. so was he also to his son King Charles I., and appears to have been *custos rotulorum* of the county of Hertford. We are likewise informed by one author that he was chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. After having thus passed through many honourable employments, and continued, in particular, master of the rolls for above twenty years, he departed this life April 28, 1636, in the seventy-ninth year of his age. The accompanying monument was erected to his memory.



**CAGLIOSTRO, COUNT OF.**—This notorious individual, whose real name was Giuseppe Balsamo, was born in 1743 at Palermo. His father died when he was young, and he was educated by his maternal relations. He entered the order of the Brothers of Mercy, where he found an opportunity to cultivate his talents for medical science, by which he afterwards distinguished himself. But he showed at the same time a great love of dissipation, and was at last compelled to separate from the order. He returned to Palermo, where, among other vagaries, he deceived many credulous persons by his pretended skill in magic and the finding of hidden treasures. He also showed himself adroit in counterfeiting handwriting, and attempted to get possession of a contested estate by means of a forged document, but was discovered, and obliged to flee. He now determined to go to Rome, and in his journey through Calabria became acquainted with a young woman of great beauty, who, according to his own account, appeared intended by fortune to assist his designs. He formed an intimacy with her, and compelled her to assist in the accomplishment of his purposes by the loss of her virtue. They now began their travels, in which he assumed the character of a man of rank, first appearing under the name of the marquis Pellegrini, and finally under that of the count Cagliostro. He travelled through many countries of Europe,



stopping in the capital cities, as we find him in Madrid, Lisbon, Paris, London, and many other cities. He knew how to cheat with great ingenuity, and was always fortunate enough to preserve himself by an early flight, if men's eyes began to be opened, or waking justice threatened him with imprisonment. The discovery of the philosopher's stone, the preparation of a precious elixir vitæ, &c., were the pretences under which he extracted from credulous people considerable sums in ready money.

Many had recourse to his assistance, not indeed to be initiated into the mysteries of magic, but to purchase at a high rate different kinds of medicine, one of which was the *water of beauty*. This profitable business employed our hero many years; but, with the fading charms of his lady, many sources of wealth failed. His trade in medicine also began to grow less lucrative, and he determined to seek his fortune as the founder of a new and secret sect. In pursuance of this plan he passed himself off during his second residence in London for a freemason, and played the part of a magician and worker of miracles, in which character he drew upon himself the eyes of all the enthusiasts in Europe. The countess on her part did not remain idle. She was the first and most perfect scholar of her husband, and played the part of a priestess to this new order in as able a manner as she had before played that of a priestess to another goddess. His plan for reviving an old Egyptian order, the founders of which he declared to be Enoch and Elias, contained a mass of the greatest absurdities and nonsense. But his pretensions to supernatural power, the mystery with which his doctrines were enveloped, his pretended ability to work miracles, his healing the sick without pay, with the greatest appearance of generosity, and the belief that, as the *great Kophtha* (this name he had taken as the restorer of Egyptian masonry), he could reveal the secrets of futurity, gained him many friends and supporters. Cagliostro again travelled through Europe, and attracted great attention in Mittau, Strasburg, Lyons, and Paris. While in this last city he had the misfortune to be implicated in the scandalous affair of the "diamond necklace," and was banished the country as a confidant of Cardinal Rohan. He now returned to London, and sent many epistles to his followers, wherein he bitterly complained of the injury he had received in France, and painted the French court in the blackest colours. From London, where he could not long remain, he went to Basle, and other cities in that quarter. But at length, listening to the repeated entreaties of his wife and other friends, he returned in 1789 to Rome. Here he busied himself about freemasonry; but, being discovered, and committed to the castle of St. Angelo, he was condemned by a decree of the pope to imprisonment for life, as a freemason, an arch-heretic, and a man very dangerous to religion. He died in the summer of 1795, in the castle of St. Leo, a small city in the states of the church.

CAILLÉ, NICHOLAS LOUIS DE LA, was born at Rumigny, not far from Rosoy, in 1713, and in early life much wished to dedicate himself to the service of the church. But at this time his attention was directed to astronomy, and he carried the spirit of geometry into the scholastic philosophy, and even into theology, of which he wished to reform the language, and treat the propositions after the manner of Euclid. He, however, soon renounced

theology altogether. Cassini and Maraldi were his friends, and with them he drew up a description of the coast of France, from Nantes to Bayonne. On account of the accuracy and skill which he displayed in this operation, he was selected to take part in the verification of the meridian, which was then beginning to be a subject of interest. He began this great work April 30, 1739, and in that year finished all the triangles from Paris to Perpignan, measured the bases of Bourges, Rhodéz, and Arles, observed the azimuths and zenith distances of the stars at Bourges, Rhodéz, and Perpignan, and took the principal share in the measurement of the degree of longitude which terminates at the harbour of Cette. During the severe winter of 1740 he extended his triangles over the principal mountains of Auvergne, to connect with the meridian a new basis measured at Riom. The object of this excursion was to procure additional information for the purpose of clearing up the doubt which he entertained respecting the basis of Juvisy, measured by Picard in 1669. He had discovered and demonstrated that this basis was a thousandth part too long, from whence it follows that the toise used by Picard was at least a line shorter than the toise of the academy. This assertion of his, so long contested, was now placed beyond doubt. During his absence, he was made professor of mathematics in the college of Mazarin, in consequence of which the continuation of the meridian in the north was delayed till the next autumn. Caille ended his surveys in the course of a few months, during which he measured two bases more, and made the astronomical observations at Paris and Dunkirk.

After his return he commenced the calculations for which he had prepared the materials by these long operations, and, by a comparison of the different arcs which he had measured, he showed that the degrees increase from the equator to the poles—a result diametrically opposite to the old measurement. His works on geometry, mechanics, astronomy, and optics, which followed each other in a few years, show with what ability he discharged the duties of professor. His "Ephemerides," and the many and able memoirs which he presented to the academy of sciences, and his calculations of the eclipses for 1800 years, in the first edition of his "Art de verifier les Dates," prove with what ardour he pursued his astronomical studies. He had undertaken the correction of the list of stars, according to the method of corresponding heights: and in 1746 he was in possession of an observatory erected for him at the *collège Mazarin*. True to the laborious method which he believed the best, Caille spent his days and nights, for fourteen years in making observations on the sun, the planets, and the stars, to rectify the astronomical catalogues and tables. Desirous of observing the stars of the southern hemisphere, which never appear above the horizon at Paris, he formed the plan of a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope. He saw immediately the advantage to be derived from this change of place, in determining the parallax of the moon, of Mars and Venus, and the refraction of the rays of light. Lalande, then nineteen years old, was sent to Berlin, which lies nearly under the same meridian as the cape, to take corresponding measures at the same time. This astronomical undertaking cost four years of journeys and labour. Caille determined the position of about 10,000 stars, in 127

nights, with wonderful accuracy. As his departure from the cape was delayed, he employed the interval in measuring a degree of the southern hemisphere. He also received orders to superintend the construction of an accurate chart of the Isle of France and the Isle of Bourbon, though one had recently been executed by the celebrated navigator d'Après.

After his return he employed himself with great assiduity in comparing the different methods which had been proposed for solving the problem of the longitude. He chose, for this purpose, the distances of the moon from the sun or the stars, showed the advantage of this method, and proposed a plan for a nautical almanac, since universally adopted. For the use of navigators with but little knowledge, he contrived ingenious and graphic means of assistance, by which they were made acquainted, in an easy manner, with a method which must otherwise have alarmed them by the length of the calculations. Caille divided his time between his observatory, his calculations, his duties as an academician and professor, and the publication of his different works.

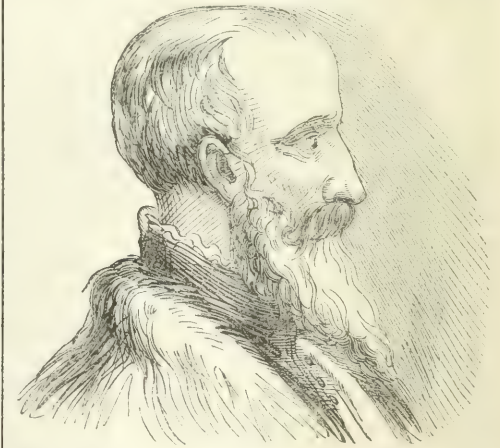
He was particularly engaged in observations of the moon, and the stars of the zodiac. Finding the method of corresponding heights too slow for the vast plan which he had formed, he fixed in his observatory a meridian telescope, which gave him the right ascension of the stars with much more ease. But, in order to attain the degree of accuracy at which he aimed, he made it a rule to admit no star into his new catalogue which he had not observed for three or four nights, comparing it each time with several of those, the places of which he had previously determined with so much care. He thus attained a greater degree of accuracy than his celebrated rivals, Bradley and Mayer, who were furnished with better instruments, and generally contented themselves with a single observation of the stars of lesser magnitude. Engaged in so many employments, Caille still found time for other labours. From the manuscripts of Bouguer, who had entrusted them to him at the time of his death, he published "*Traité de la Gradation de la Lumière*," and wholly revised the "*Traité de Navigation*." He afterwards published the observations of the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel and Walther, the travels of Chazelle in Egypt, and Feuillée's voyage to the Canary islands. A violent attack of the gout having interrupted his labours, he resumed them as soon as he was able, with too much eagerness, exhausted his weak frame, and died in 1762. He bequeathed his manuscripts to his friend Maraldi, who published the "*Ciel Austral*," preceded by an *éloge* of the author, by Brotier. Never was there a greater friend of labour and mathematical truth than Caille. The number as well as the accuracy of his observations is worthy of admiration, more particularly if we consider that all his astronomical labours took place within twenty-seven years.

CAIUS, a learned lawyer of the time of Adrian and Antoninus Pius, of whose life but very little is known. Of his numerous works, his "*Institutes*" are particularly important, first as having been for centuries, down to the time of Justinian, one of the most common manuals of law; secondly as having been the foundation of the official compendium of the law, which occupies an important place in the reform of the judicial system by Justinian; and, thirdly, as the only tolerably full, systematic, and well-ar-

ranged source of the old Roman law. Some parts of this work have been known for a considerable time: two leaves of a manuscript of it were discovered in the library of the cathedral chapter at Verona as early as the beginning of the last century, by Scipio Maffei; but the entire manuscript itself was first discovered in 1816 by Niebuhr, who staid two days at Verona on his way to Rome as Prussian Ambassador. The parchment on which the "*Institutes*" of Caius were written had been used to copy the letters of St. Jerome. Maffei had perceived it to be a "*Codex Rescriptus*," without, however, having very accurately examined it. Niebuhr saw that an old juridical work lay here concealed, and Von Savigny, professor of law in Berlin, at that time at Paris, happily conjectured that it might be the "*Institutes*" of Caius.

The academy of sciences at Berlin sent, in 1817, two professors, Bekker the philologist and Goschen the jurist, to Italy, to investigate this discovery with accuracy; and Professor Bethmann Holweg offered his services to them, and by their united efforts the greatest part of the book was brought into order, and that part which was before illegible wholly restored. The fragments of Caius were printed at Berlin, in 1820. The manuscript has been again examined by Professor Blume, and many additional discoveries have been made, which have been introduced into a new edition, published at Berlin in 1825. They have opened new views upon many points of the history of Roman law, and have also destroyed many acute and learned hypotheses.

CAIUS, JOHN.—This eminent English physician was born at Norwich, October 6, 1510. He received a good classical education at Gonvil Hall, Cambridge, and appears to have made several translations from the Greek language before he had attained his twenty-first year. The study of divinity might probably have engaged his attention at this time, but we find that when he went afterwards,



according to the custom of the age, to Italy, he studied physic under the learned Montanus, and soon became himself so eminent in that faculty as to deliver lectures in the university of Padua for some years. We also find him delivering lectures on Aristotle at that university about 1542, but he took his doctor's degree at Bononia. In 1543 he travelled through the greatest part of Italy, Germany,



and France, and on his return to England practised both at Shrewsbury and Norwich with such success as to be considered one of the ablest physicians in England. It was doubtless this high reputation which procured him the honour of being successively physician to Edward VI., Queen Mary, and Queen Elizabeth.

In 1547 he was admitted fellow of the College of Physicians in London, of which he held all the higher offices, of censor, president, &c., and upon every occasion showed himself a zealous defender of the college's rights and privileges, and a strict observer of her statutes, never, even in advanced life, absenting himself from the comitia, or meetings, without a dispensation. He also compiled the annals of the college from 1555 to 1572, entering every memorable transaction in its due time and order. In 1557, being in great favour with Queen Mary, he determined to employ this influence in behalf of literature in general, and accordingly obtained a licence to advance Gonvil Hall, in which he had been educated, into a college. As yet it was not a corporation, or body politic; but, by Caius's interest at court, it was now incorporated by the name of Gonvil and Caius College, which he endowed with considerable estates, purchased by him on the dissolution of the monasteries, for the maintenance of an additional number of fellows and scholars. He also built, at his own expense, the new square called Caius Court. The first statutes of this new foundation were drawn up by him, and, that he might have the better opportunity of consulting its interest, he accepted and retained the mastership almost as long as he lived. Some short time before his decease he caused another master to be appointed in his room, but continued in college as a fellow-commoner, assisting daily at divine service in a private seat in the chapel, which he had built for himself. Here he died July 29, 1573, and was buried in the college-chapel, with the short epitaph of "Fui Caius. Vivit post funera virtus."

Caius's religious principles have been disputed. The most probable conjecture is that he had a secret inclination to the principles of his early years, but conformed, at least in outward observances, to the reformation in his latter days. Of his learning there is no difference of opinion. It was various and extensive; and his knowledge of the Greek language, particularly, gave him a superiority over most of his contemporaries, the study of that language in this country being then in its infancy. His zeal for the interests of learning appears from his munificence to his alma mater, and the same motive led him in 1557 to erect a monument in St. Paul's Cathedral to the celebrated Linacre. Dr. Caius wrote many works both on medicine and natural history, but they are now but slightly estimated, the great progress of modern science having superseded their original utility.

**CALAMY, EDMUND.**—This eminent presbyterian divine was born in 1600, and educated at Cambridge, where his opposition to the principles of the Arminians prevented him from obtaining a fellowship. He however acquired the favour of Dr. Felton, bishop of Ely, who gave him a living. He was afterwards a lecturer at St. Edmund's Bury, till the order for reading the book of sports, and other similar measures of the high church party, induced

him to resign and openly declare himself a nonconformist. Soon after the valuable rectory at Rochford in Essex was bestowed on him by the earl of Essex; and in 1639 he was chosen minister of the church of St. Mary Aldermanbury, on which he removed to London, and engaged warmly in the religious disputes then in agitation. He was one of the writers of the celebrated treatise against episcopacy, entitled "Smectymnuus," a word formed from the initials of the Christian and surnames of those connected with it. He frequently preached before the house of Commons, and became a member of the assembly of divines at Westminster. Like the rest of the leading presbyterians, however, he disapproved of the trial and execution of the king, and made a fruitless opposition to the usurpation of Cromwell. He even took an active part in the restoration; and after that event he was made chaplain to Charles II., and was offered the bishopric of Lichfield, which he refused. The memorable act of uniformity, passed in 1662, confirmed the triumph of the high church party, and obliged Calamy, among many others, to resign his church preferment. He died October 29, 1666, shortly after the great fire in the metropolis, which he had witnessed, and which is stated to have caused or hastened his death. Besides his controversial writings he was the author of several sermons, formerly very popular.

His son, Dr. Benjamin Calamy, who was educated at Cambridge, became an episcopal clergyman, and distinguished himself by the publication of "A Discourse about a Scrupulous Conscience" in 1683, designed as a censure of the nonconformists. It provoked a reply from Thomas Delaune, a minister of that party, for writing which he was imprisoned in Newgate, where he died.

Edmund Calamy, nephew of the preceding, adhered to the sentiments of his grandfather, and was a dissenting minister of considerable eminence. He was born in 1671, and, after some previous education in an English academy, he studied at Utrecht. Having been ordained in 1694, he officiated in different metropolitan chapels for some years, and then was chosen pastor of a large congregation in Westminster. In 1709 he made a visit to Scotland, when the degree of D.D. was conferred on him by the universities of Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and Glasgow. He died in 1732. His principal literary production is an "Abridgment of Baxter's History of his Life and Times; with a Continuation of the Account of the Ministers, Lecturers, &c., ejected by the Act of Uniformity."

**CALAS, JOHN.**—This unfortunate man, who died on the scaffold, a victim of fanaticism, was born in 1698 in Lacaparde, near Chartres, in Languedoc, educated in the protestant religion, and established as a merchant in Toulouse. He had three sons and three daughters, whom he educated himself, and was held in general esteem, when, in his sixty-eighth year, he was suddenly accused of the dreadful crime of murdering his son. In 1761 his oldest son, Marc Antoine, was found strangled in his father's house. It was reported that the unfortunate youth had been put to death by his father, because he had become a catholic. John Calas and his whole family were arrested, and a prosecution instituted against him, in support of which numerous witnesses, whose insufficiency was apparent, appeared against him. In vain did the old man plead his affection for his

son, and that son's melancholy; in vain did he assert that he had another son who had embraced the catholic religion, who still received his yearly allowance, that it was impossible for him, a weak old man, to execute such a deed of violence on a youth full of strength, and that he had not murdered a catholic maid-servant whom he had in the house. The parliament of Toulouse condemned him, by eight voices against five, to be tortured, and then broken on the wheel; and, on the 9th of March, 1762, the sentence was executed. He suffered the torture with firmness, and ascended the scaffold with these words:—"I die guiltless; my judges have been deceived; but Christ, who was himself guiltless, suffered a death even more dreadful." The youngest son was banished for ever, but the mother and the maid were acquitted. The family of the unhappy man retired to Geneva. Voltaire, who was then at Ferney, became acquainted with them, and formed the design of defending the memory of Calas. He brought the cause before the bar of public opinion, and directed the attention of men to the defects of the criminal law. The widow and children of Calas solicited a revision of the trial. Fifty judges once more examined the circumstances, and declared Calas altogether innocent. The king, by his liberality, sought to recompense the family for their undeserved losses, and people of the first rank emulated each other in endeavouring to relieve them.

CALDARA, POLIDORO, a painter of considerable talents, who was born in 1495 at Caravaggio, in the Milanese, and went to Rome in his youth, where he was occupied to carry bricks for the masons who worked in the Vatican, and felt a great desire to become a painter, from seeing Giovanni da Udina and the other painters who were employed in the Vatican. He formed a close friendship with Maturing of Florence, who assisted him with his advice, and Caldara soon surpassed him who exerted himself to introduce improvements in drawings, having always in view the antique works of art. Raphael employed him in the galleries of the Vatican, where he painted under his direction several excellent friezes. At Messina he executed an oil-painting which represents Christ bearing the cross, contains a number of beautiful figures, and proves his ability to treat the most elevated subjects. He has approached more than any other artist to the style and the manner of the ancients, particularly in imitating their *basso-relievos*. His figures are correct, well-distributed and arranged; the positions are natural, the heads full of expression and character. It is evident that he would have acquired great celebrity if he had undertaken greater works. He applied himself to the *chiaro-oscuro*, particularly to that kind of it which is called *sggraffiato*, and he showed also much talent in his landscapes. At the sack of Rome in 1527 he fled to Naples, and on his return from that place to Rome in 1543 he was murdered by his domestic.

CALDERON, DON PEDRO.—This celebrated dramatic writer was born at Madrid, in January 1601, and received his early education in the Jesuit's college of his native city. He studied at Salamanca, where he devoted himself chiefly to history, philosophy, and jurisprudence. His poetical genius early discovered itself, for before his fourteenth year he had written his first play, "El Carro

del Cielo." His talent for this species of poetry, which has brought his name down to posterity, and perhaps his powers of invention in the preparation of entertainments for festivals, soon gained him friends and patrons. When he left Salamanca in 1625 to seek employment at the court of Madrid, many noblemen interested themselves in bringing forward the young poet, but, having an inclination for the military profession, he entered the service in 1625 and bore arms with distinction for ten years in Milan and the Netherlands. In 1636 he was recalled by Philip IV., who gave him the direction of the court entertainments, and, in particular, the preparation of plays for the court theatre. The following year he was made knight of the order of St. Jago, and served in the campaign in Catalonia. The unexpected termination of the war restored him again to his peaceful occupation, and the king immediately conferred on him a monthly pension of thirty *escudos de oro*; but he still employed his talents with unintermitted industry in composing for the theatre and the church. Ten years after, in 1651, he procured permission from the order of San Jago to enter the clerical profession, and in 1653 obtained a chaplain's office in the archiepiscopal church at Toledo, without quitting, however, his former occupation. But, as this situation removed him too far from court, he received in 1663 another at the king's court chapel (being still allowed to hold the former); and at the same time a pension was assigned him from the Sicilian revenue.

His fame very considerably increased his income, as he was solicited by the principal cities of Spain to compose their *autos sacramentales*, for which he was liberally paid. He bestowed particular pains on the composition of these pieces, and, in fact, eclipsed all that the Spanish literature, so rich in this department of fancy, had hitherto produced. These subjects were particularly suited to his religious turn of mind, and he set a peculiar value on his performances of this description, so much indeed as even to disparage his other works, which deserve no mean reputation. Religion is the ruling idea, the central point of his poems; but, whatever subject he takes in hand, he exhibits true poetical genius. Even allowing that he is inferior in richness of invention to Lope de Vega, he certainly excels him in fineness of execution, elevation of feeling, and aptness of expression. If we find in him much that is foreign to our modes of thinking and feeling, to our accustomed views and manner of expression, we shall have occasion much oftener to admire his unrivalled genius. The Spanish nation esteem Calderon among the greatest poetical geniuses. Among his dramatic works are many pieces of intrigue, full of complicated plots, and rich in interesting incidents. There are besides comedies, and historical plays, many of which merit the name of tragedies. To this class belongs the "Constant Prince," which deserves an honourable place among romantic tragedies of the first rank. Besides these Calderon has left ninety-five *autos sacramentales*, 200 *loas* (preludes), and more than 100 *saynetes* or farces. The smaller poems of Calderon, his songs, sonnets, ballads, &c., notwithstanding the applause which they received from his contemporaries, are now forgotten; but his plays have maintained their place on the stage even more than those of Lope de Vega. The number of his collected plays amounts to 130. He wrote, however,



many more, some of which were never published. Goethe and Schlegel have the merit of having opened the German stage to the genius of Calderon, as Schroder before them had done to that of Shakspeare. The "Constant Prince" shows, perhaps, in the highest degree, the skill of Calderon as a tragic poet. It turns on one of the most perplexing of all subjects, viz. the idea of destiny, managed in a truly poetical way, in a tragedy terminating happily. The great fertility of this author's invention has heaped up a vast quantity of materials, from which foreign theatres might be enriched. He died in May, 1687, and a splendid monument was erected to his memory.

**CALDERWOOD, DAVID.**—This eminent Scottish divine acted an important part in the reign of James IV. In 1604 we find him settled as a minister near Jedburgh, and twelve years afterwards he was summoned before the high commission court of St. Andrews. After a short imprisonment he was banished to Holland, where he published several works. Calderwood afterwards returned secretly to Scotland, and by his exertions contributed much to the establishment of Presbyterianism in that country, where he became minister of the kirk of Pencaitland near Edinburgh. He then engaged in writing the history of the church of Scotland, in continuation of that of Knox, still existing in manuscript in six volumes, folio, in the library of the university of Glasgow, but an abridgment of this work has been published. Calderwood in 1643 assisted in drawing up the directory for the public worship of God by the general assembly. He died in 1651.

**CALIGULA, CAIUS CÆSAR AUGUSTUS GERMANICUS.**—This celebrated emperor was born in the German camp, and received his education among the soldiery, and it was from them that he received the surname of Caligula on account of his wearing the "caligæ," a kind of small boot, then in use among the soldiers. He became a great favourite of the emperor Tiberius, and has by many writers been accused of administering slow poison to his benefactor, but for charging him with this crime there appears to be no accurate data. When Tiberius was about to die, he appointed, according to Suetonius, Caligula, and the son of Drusus, Tiberius Nero, heirs of the empire. But Caligula, universally beloved for the sake of his father Germanicus, was able without difficulty to obtain sole possession of the throne. Rome received him joyfully, and the distant provinces echoed his welcome. His first actions, also, were just and noble. He interred in the most honourable manner the remains of his mother and his brother, set free all state-prisoners, recalled the banished, and forbade all prosecutions for treason. He conferred on the magistrates free and independent power. Although the will of Tiberius had been declared by the senate to be null and void, he fulfilled every article of it, with the exception only of that above mentioned. When he was chosen consul, he took his uncle Claudius as his colleague. Thus he distinguished the first eight months of his reign by many magnanimous actions, when he fell sick. After his recovery, by a most unexpected alteration, he suddenly showed himself the most cruel and unnatural of tyrants. The most exquisite tortures served him for enjoyments, and during his meals he caused criminals, and even innocent persons, to be stretched on the

rack and beheaded; the most respectable persons were daily executed. In the madness of his arrogance, he even considered himself a god, and caused the honours to be paid to him which were paid to Apollo, to Mars, and even to Jupiter. He also showed himself in public with the attributes of Venus and of other goddesses. At one time he is said to have wished that the whole Roman people had but one head, that he might be able to cut it off at one blow. One of his greatest follies was the building of a bridge between Baïæ and Puteoli (Puzzuoli). He himself consecrated this strange structure with great splendour; and, after he had passed the night following in a revel with his friends, in order to do something extraordinary before his departure, he caused a crowd of persons without distinction of age, rank, and character, to be seized and thrown into the sea.

On his return he entered Rome in triumph, because, as he said, he had conquered nature herself. After this, he made preparations for an expedition against the Germans, passed with more than 200,000 men over the Rhine, but returned after he had travelled a few miles, and that without having seen an enemy. Such was his terror, that, when he came to the river, and found the bridge obstructed by the crowd upon it, he caused himself to be passed over the heads of the soldiers. He then went to Gaul, which he plundered with unexampled rapacity. Not content with the considerable booty thus obtained, he sold all the property of both his sisters, Agrippina and Livilla, whom he banished. He also sold the furniture of the old court, the clothes of Marcus Antoninus, of Augustus, Agrippina, &c. Before he left Gaul, he declared his intention of going to Britain, and in accordance with this intention he collected his army on the coast, embarked in a magnificent galley, but returned when he had hardly left the land, drew up his forces, ordered the signal for battle to be sounded, and commanded the soldiers to fill their pockets and helmets with shells, while he cried out, "This booty, ravished from the sea, is fit for my palace and the capitol!" When he returned to Rome, he was desirous of a triumph on account of his achievements, but contented himself with an ovation. Discontented with the senate, he resolved to destroy the greater part of the members, and the most distinguished men of Rome. This is proved by two books which were found after his death, in which the names of the proscribed were noted down, and of which one was entitled "Gladus or Sword," and the other "Pugillus or Dagger." His horse, named "Incitatus," was his favourite. This animal had a house and a servant, and was fed from marble and gold, and Caligula caused him to be admitted into the college of his priests, and was desirous of making him a consul also. He is said to have even had the intention of destroying the poems of Homer, and was on the point of removing the works and statues of Virgil and Livy from all libraries: those of the former because he was destitute of genius and learning; those of the latter because he was not to be depended upon as an historian. Caligula's morals were from his youth upward corrupt, as he had married and repudiated several wives: however Cæsonia retained a permanent hold on his affections. The reign of Caligula was now, however, drawing to a close. A number of conspira-

tors, at the head of whom were Chaerea and Cornelius Sabinus, both tribunes of the pretorian cohorts, murdered him in the twenty-ninth year of his life, and the fourth of his tyrannical reign.

**CALIXTUS, GEORGE**, one of the most able and enlightened theologians of the Lutheran church. He was born in 1586 at Meelby, in Holstein, and educated at Flensburg and Helmstadt. In 1607 in the latter university he turned his thoughts to theology; and, in 1609, visited the universities of the south of Germany. Shortly after he visited those of Holland, England, and France, where his intercourse with the different religious parties, and the greatest scholars of his time, developed that independence and liberality of opinion for which he was distinguished. After a brilliant victory in 1614, in a religious dispute with the Jesuit Turrianus, he was made professor of theology, and died in 1656. His treatises on the authority of the holy scriptures, transubstantiation, celibacy, supremacy of the pope, and the Lord's supper, belong, even according to the judgment of learned catholics, to the most profound and acute writings against catholicism. But his genius, and the depth of his exegetic and historical knowledge, exposed him to the persecution of the zealots of his time. His assertion, that the points of difference between Calvinists and Lutherans were of less importance than the doctrines in which they agreed, and that the doctrine of the Trinity was less distinctly expressed in the Old Testament than in the New, and his recommendation of good works, drew upon him the reproaches of cryptopapism. The elector John George I. of Saxony protected him in 1655, at the diet of Ratisbon, against the Lutheran theologians. His historical investigations and his philosophical spirit shed new light on dogmatic theology and the egesis of the Bible, and gave them a more scientific form. He made Christian morality a distinct branch of science, and, by reviving the study of the Christian fathers and of the history of the church, prepared the way for Spener, Thomasius, and Semler.

**CALLCOTT, JOHN WALL**, a very eminent musician, who was born in 1766. He received the rudiments of his education at Kensington; and in 1785 took his bachelor's degree of music at Oxford. Haydn being in England in 1790, Callcott availed himself of the opportunity to procure his instruction in instrumental music, and from that year till the catch club discontinued its prizes, in 1793, never failed to carry off at least one every season. In 1800 he took the degree of doctor of music at Oxford, having three years previously commenced the arduous undertaking of compiling a musical dictionary. This work, however, he never lived to complete, a "Musical Grammar," published in 1805, being the only treatise on the subject which he ever brought to maturity. He died after a long illness in May, 1821. His compositions are very numerous, both printed and manuscript; a collection of the most celebrated of his glees, catches, and canons, on which his fame principally rests, was published in two folio volumes by his son-in-law, Mr. Horsley.

**CALLIMACHUS**, a Greek poet and grammarian, born at Cyrene in Libya, of a noble family, and who flourished under the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, about 250 years before Christ. He opened in Alexandria a school of grammar, of the belles lettres, and liberal sciences, and could boast of several scholars of

distinguished attainments, such as Eratosthenes, Apollonius Rhodius, Aristophanes of Byzantium, &c. Ptolemy Philadelphus presented him with a place in the museum, and gave him a salary as he did other men of learning. After the death of Philadelphus, he stood in equal favour with Ptolemy Euergetes; and under these circumstances he wrote most of his works, the number of which was very considerable. With the exception of some fragments, all that we have of these is seventy-two epigrams and a few hymns. His poem on the hair of Berenice has been preserved in the Latin translation of Catullus. Callimachus' poems bear the stamp of their age, which sought to supply the want of natural genius by a great ostentation of learning. Instead of noble, simple grandeur, they exhibit an overcharged style, a false pathos, and a straining after the singular, the antiquated, the learned. His elegies are mentioned by the ancients with great praise, and served Propertius as models.

**CALLOT, JACQUES**, a celebrated artist, who was born in 1594 at Nancy, and vanquished, by perseverance, every obstacle which obstructed his perfection in his art. He twice ran away from his parents, who intended him for another profession, fled to Italy, and learned drawing in Rome under Parigi, engraving under Philip Thomassin, and became afterwards, at Florence, a disciple of Cantagallina, and, at Nancy, of Claude Henriet. He soon gave himself up entirely to his love for engraving, and preferred etching, probably because his active and fertile genius could in that way express itself more rapidly. In the space of twenty years he designed and executed about 1600 works of art. In the composition, the disposition of the parts, and in the distribution of light, Callot was not particularly eminent; but, in the single parts of his pieces, he was very successful. His drawing is correct, the attitudes mostly pleasing, the groups have considerable variety, harsh contrasts are avoided, the expression is vigorous, and the execution displays the ease of a master. He is particularly distinguished by the drawing of the little figures with which he has filled all his pieces. Most of them, except sacred subjects, are representations of battles, sieges, dances, and festive processions. The "Misères et Malheurs de la Guerre" are considered the best. He executed works of this kind for Cosmo II. of Florence, Louis XIII. of France, and the Duke of Lorraine. He was so strongly inclined to the comic that this disposition appears even in his representations of sacred subjects, for instance in the "Temptation of St. Anthony." He not only introduced some burlesque and grotesque figures in his engravings, but executed whole pictures in this style, in which his whole art is displayed. His "Fair" and his "Beggars" are called his best pieces. He was the first who used in his etchings the hard varnish—the *vernice grosso dei lignaiuoli* of the Italians. He died at Nancy in 1635.

**CALMET, AUGUSTINE**, a celebrated Catholic divine, who early in life became a Benedictine monk. In 1718 he was made abbot of the monastery of St. Leopold at Nancy, and in 1728 abbot of Senones. He afterwards refused to accept of a titular bishopric, but continued to preside over his convent, pursuing with indefatigable spirit his literary labours till his death, which took place in 1757. His works are very voluminous, and although occasionally exhibiting great credulity are extremely valuable for the in-



formation they afford. Among them are "A Literary Commentary on the Old and New Testaments," "An Historical, Critical, and Chronological Dictionary of the Bible," "History of the Old and New Testaments," "Universal History, Sacred and Profane," "Ecclesiastical and Civil History of Lorraine," &c. The "Dictionary of the Bible," which is the most popular and widely consulted of the works of Calmet, has been translated into Latin, German, and English.

**CALONNE, CHARLES ALEXANDER DE.**—This celebrated diplomatist was born in 1734 at Douai, where his father was first president of the parliament. He studied at Paris, and devoted himself to the duties of an advocate at Artois. He afterwards went as attorney-general to the parliament of Douai, and was in 1763 appointed *maître des requêtes*, in 1768 intendant of Metz, &c. This was his situation on the death of Louis XV. The minister Maurepas, returning from a long exile, had placed successively in the office of minister of finance, Turgot and Necker, Fleury and Ormesson. In November 1783, after the death of Maurepas, they were succeeded by Calonne, who found the finances already in disorder. Besides the loans and the arrears accumulated under preceding ministers, 176 millions had been raised in advance. Calonne concealed his embarrassment, and assumed an appearance as if all was well. He despised the expedient of retrenchment, paid the instalments which were due, supported the public paper by secret advances of money, hastened the payment of the interest of the public debt, made great improvements in the farming of the royal monopolies and of the public lands, established the credit of the *caisse d'escompte*, projected a sinking fund, and undertook a new coinage of gold money, as if no difficulties existed. At first he followed the system of loans, which was begun before him. According to his estimate, the government had, from 1776 to 1786, borrowed 1250 millions. The annual deficit amounted, however, to 115 millions. This, nevertheless, was to be reduced, in 1797, to 55 millions. To this end the revenues of the state, which might then amount to 475 millions, should have been increased to 590 millions. Calonne's first operations were calculated only for the moment; the national debt rested on no good security. To provide this, the only means was a new system of taxation, and the minister did not hesitate to propose it. His two principal instruments were a general land-tax, payable in kind, and an increase of the stamp-tax. Since, however, it was foreseen that the execution of a plan which called for sacrifices from the two highest ranks of the nation, till this time unheard of, would meet with much opposition from them, and a general assembly of the states seemed too dangerous, Calonne chose a middle course, which seemed to be favourable to the accomplishment of his design. He proposed an assembly of the notables, chosen from the most respectable members of the two first orders, the magistrates and the heads of the most important municipalities.

On the 22d of February, 1787, the notables held their first session at Versailles, when the report of the minister of finance was impatiently expected. He delivered it with all the ability of which he was capable; but this could not diminish the ill impression of his explanations. The deficit of 115

millions was greater than had been feared. Calonne traced the origin of this from the administration of Terray, asserted that it amounted then to forty millions, that from 1776 to 1783 it had increased about as much more, and at last confessed that he himself had increased it about thirty-five millions from that time till 1786. Lafayette appeared at the head of those numerous complainants who now came forward against Calonne; but the king seemed at first to support his minister, and the keeper of the great seal, Calonne's constant adversary, was dismissed. This triumph was, however, of short duration. Independently of the friends of Lafayette and Necker, a third party came forward against him—that party which brought into the ministry the archbishop of Toulouse, Loménie-Brienne. The court was alarmed at the delays of the assembly of the notables and the ferment which it excited, and Calonne was, to satisfy the people, deprived of his office, and banished to Lorraine. Thence he went to England, where he received a flattering invitation from the empress Catharine II.

He now employed himself in refuting the charges which were brought against him. In his petition addressed to the king about the end of 1787, he took a review of all his ministerial operations, and endeavoured to prove that he had always for his object the improvement of the finances. The archbishop of Toulouse, his successor, had informed him of the personal displeasure of the king; the parliaments of Grenoble, Toulouse, Besançon, had made him the object of public animadversion; and the parliament of Paris had come forward formally against him. Calonne defended himself against all these attacks. He besought the king to declare that he had constantly acted by his express command or with his consent, and offered, in case the king should be silent, to justify himself before the tribunal of peers before which he had been accused. To all the charges brought against him his friends opposed this fact, which is certainly true, that he retired from the ministry poor. In a letter of Calonne to the king, in 1789, containing political reflections, and principally directed against Necker, he manifested the intention of offering himself a candidate for the states-general, and actually made his appearance in the electoral assembly of the nobility of Bailleul, but returned to London without effecting his purpose, where he employed himself in writing on the state of affairs in France.

The revolution had in the mean time begun, and Calonne took part in it with a zeal which seemed to exceed his powers. His negotiations, his journeys to Germany, Italy, and Russia, his perseverance, his attachment to their cause, made him invaluable to the party which he served. In order to assist his unfortunate party with the pen, he wrote his "Tableau de l'Europe en Novembre, 1795," remarkable on account of its warmth, and its faithful delineation of events. From that time he lived in London, principally occupied with the fine arts, which he had always cultivated with taste. In 1802 he returned to Paris, where he died in October of the same year. Such was the career of a minister who gave the first impulse to the French revolution. He possessed, in a high degree, the qualities requisite to a great statesman—an accurate acquaintance with details, together with comprehensive views, and the power of conceiving extensive projects. But, if wisdom which

matures the conceptions, if a prophetic glance which foresees all the impediments, if consistency and a spirit of method which provides for the success of the execution, are essential to a statesman, then Calonne can lay no claim to that title.

**CALVIN, JOHN.**—This celebrated reformer was born at Noyon in Picardy, July 10, 1509. He was the son of a cooper, and his real name was Chauvin, which he chose to Latinize into the one by which he is now generally known. He was early in life intended for the church, and in 1529 we find him appointed to the rectory of Pont l'Eveque, near his native place. He afterwards resigned his church preferment, and determined to study the law at Bourges. His father's death having called him back to Noyon, he staid there a short time and then went to Paris, where he wrote a commentary on Seneca's treatise "De Clementia," being at this time about twenty-four years of age. He soon became acquainted with some Parisians, who had privately embraced the reformation, and by frequent intercourse with them became more confirmed in his principles. A speech of Nicholas Cop, rector of the university of Paris, of which Calvin furnished the materials, having greatly displeased the Sorbonne and the parliament, gave rise to a persecution against the protestants; and Calvin, who narrowly escaped being taken in the college of Forteret, was forced to retire to Xaintonge, after having had the honour to be introduced to the queen of Navarre, who allayed this first storm raised against the pro-



testants. Calvin returned to Paris in 1534. This year the reformed met with severe treatment, which determined him to leave France, after publishing a treatise against those who believe "that departed souls are in a kind of sleep." He retired to Basil, where he published his "Institutions of the Christian Religion," which he dedicated to the French king, Francis I. This prince being solicitous, according to Beza, to gain the friendship of the protestants in Germany, and knowing that they were highly incensed by the cruel persecutions which their brethren suffered in France, he, by advice of William de Bellay, represented to them that he had only punished certain enthusiasts who substituted their

own imaginations in the place of God's word, and despised the civil magistrate. Calvin, stung with indignation at this wicked evasion, wrote this work as an apology for the protestants who were burnt for their religion in France. But this treatise, when first published in 1535, was only a sketch of a larger work. The complete editions, both in Latin and in French, with the author's last additions and corrections, did not appear till 1558. After the publication of this work, Calvin went to Italy to pay a visit to the duchess of Ferrara, a lady of eminent piety, by whom he was very kindly received.

From Italy Calvin came back to France, and, having settled his private affairs, he purposed to go to Strasbourg, or Basil, in company with his sole surviving brother, Antony Calvin; but as the roads were not safe on account of the war, except through the duke of Savoy's territories, he chose that road. "This was a particular direction of Providence," says Bayle; "it was his destiny that he should settle at Geneva, and, when he was wholly intent on going further, he found himself detained by an order from heaven, if I may so speak." William Farel, a man of a warm enthusiastic temper, who had in vain used many entreaties to prevail with Calvin to be his fellow-labourer in that neighbourhood, at last solemnly declared to him that, "if he would not stay, the curse of God would attend him wherever he went, as seeking himself and not Christ." Calvin therefore was obliged to comply with the choice which the consistory and magistrates of Geneva made of him, with the consent of the people, to be one of their ministers, and professor of divinity. It was his own wish to undertake only this last office, but he was obliged to take both upon him in August, 1536. The year following he made all the people declare upon oath their assent to a confession of faith, which contained a renunciation of popery; and because this reformation in doctrine did not put an entire stop to the immoralities that prevailed at Geneva, nor banish that spirit of faction which had set the principal families at variance, Calvin, in concert with his colleagues, declared that they could not celebrate the sacrament whilst they kept up their animosities and trampled on the discipline of the church. He also intimated that he could not submit to the regulation which the synod of the canton of Berne had lately made. On this the syndics of Geneva summoned an assembly of the people; and it was ordered that Calvin, Farel, and another minister should leave the town in two days, for refusing to administer the sacrament.

Calvin retired to Strasbourg, and established a French church in that city, of which he was the first minister; he was also appointed to be professor of divinity there. During his stay at Strasbourg he continued to give many marks of his affection for the church of Geneva, as appears, amongst other things, by the answer which he wrote in 1539 to the letter of Cardinal Sadolet, bishop of Carpentras, inviting the people of Geneva to return into the bosom of the Romish church. Two years after, the divines of Strasbourg being very desirous that he should assist at the diet which the emperor had appointed to be held at Worms and at Ratisbon, for accommodating religious differences, he went thither with Bucer, and had a conference with Melancthon. In the mean time the people of Geneva (the syndics who promoted his banishment being now some of



them executed, and others forced to fly their country for their crimes), entreated him so earnestly to return to them that at last he consented. He arrived at Geneva, Sept. 13, 1541, to the great satisfaction both of the people and the magistrates; and the first measure he adopted after his arrival was to establish a form of church discipline and a consistorial jurisdiction, invested with the power of inflicting censures and canonical punishments, as far as excommunication inclusively. This step was justly exclaimed against, as a revival of Romish tyranny; but it was carried into execution, the new canon being passed into a law, in an assembly of the whole people, held on November 20, 1541; and the clergy and laity solemnly promised to conform to it for ever. Agreeably to the spirit of this consistorial chamber, which may fairly be considered as a kind of inquisition, Calvin proceeded to some of those lengths which have cast a stain upon his memory in the opinion of even his warmest admirers, and he had a considerable hand in the death of Michael Servetus, a Socinian writer, and in the lesser punishments inflicted on Bolsec, Castalio, and others whose opinions were at variance with his new establishment.

The inflexible rigour with which Calvin asserted, on all occasions, the rights of his consistory procured him many enemies; but nothing daunted him; and one would hardly believe, if there were not unquestionable proofs of it, that amidst all the commotions at home he could take so much care as he did of the churches abroad, in France, Germany, England, and Poland, and write so many books and letters. He did more by his pen than his presence; yet on some occasions he acted in person, particularly at Frankfort, in 1556, whither he went to put an end to the disputes which divided the French church in that city. He was always employed, having almost constantly his pen in his hand, even when sickness confined him to his bed; and he continued the discharge of all those duties which his zeal for the general good of the churches imposed on him, till his death, which occurred May 27, 1564.

**CAMDEN, WILLIAM.**—This celebrated antiquary was born in 1551. He received the rudiments of his education at Christ's Hospital, London, and was removed to Magdalen College, Oxford, in 1566. He shortly afterwards returned to the metropolis, where he prosecuted his antiquarian studies under the patronage of Dr. Goodman, dean of Westminster, by whose interest he was made second master of Westminster School in 1575. From the time of his leaving the university to this period, he took several journeys to different parts of England, with a view to make observations and collect materials for his "Britannia," in which he was now deeply engaged. In 1581 he became intimately acquainted with the learned M. Brisson, who was then in England; and in 1586 he published the first edition of his "Britannia," a work which, though much enlarged and improved in future editions, was even then esteemed an honour to its author, and the glory of its country. In 1593 he succeeded to the head mastership of Westminster School on the resignation of Dr. Grant. In this office he continued till 1597, when he was appointed Clarenceux king at arms. In the year 1600 Camden made a tour to the north, as far as Carlisle, accompanied by his friend Mr.

(afterwards Sir Robert) Cotton. In 1606 he began his correspondence with the celebrated president De Thou, which continued to the death of that historian. In the following year he published his last edition of the "Britannia," which is that from which the several English translations have been made, and in 1608 he began to digest his materials



for a history of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. In 1609, after recovering from a dangerous illness, he retired to Chislehurst in Kent, where he continued to spend the summer months during the remainder of his life. The first part of his annals of the queen did not appear till the year 1615, and he determined that the second volume should not appear till after his death. The work was entirely finished in 1617; and from that time he was principally employed in collecting more materials for the further improvement of his "Britannia." In 1622, being then upwards of seventy years of age, and finding his health decline rapidly, he determined to lose no time in executing his design of founding an history-lecture in the university of Oxford. His deed of gift was accordingly transmitted by his friend Mr. Heather to Mr. Gregory Weare, who was, by himself, appointed his first professor. He died at Chislehurst in 1623, in the seventy-third year of his age; and was buried with great solemnity in Westminster Abbey in the south aisle, where a monument of white marble was erected to his memory. Camden was a man of singular modesty and integrity, profoundly learned in the history and antiquities of this kingdom, and a judicious and conscientious historian. He was revered and esteemed by the literati of all nations, and will be ever remembered as an honour to the age and country wherein he lived. Besides the works already mentioned, he was author of a Greek grammar, and of several tracts in Hearne's collection. But his great and most useful work, the "Britannia," is that upon which his fame is chiefly built.

**CAMERON, JOHN.**—This eminent divine was born at Glasgow in 1580, and early in life visited Sedan, where he was afterwards appointed a professor of philosophy. In 1608 he became a protestant minister at Bourdeaux, and afterwards accepted the divinity chair at Saumur. In 1621 he

went to Scotland, but, being induced to return to France, he was so ill-treated by the emissaries of the duke de Rohan that he died soon after in the forty-sixth year of his age.

**CAMILLUS, MARCUS FURIUS.**—This celebrated Roman was chosen tribune of the people in the year B. C. 401, and took part in the siege of Veii. Three years after, he was invested with the same dignity, and went against the Falisci. After he had become censor, he proposed a law to oblige unmarried men to marry the widows of those slain in battle. After the defeat of the military tribunes Atilius and Genucius, before Veii, by the Tuscans, Camillus was made dictator. He defeated the Falisci, Capenates, and Tuscans, advanced to Veii, into which he penetrated by a subterraneous passage, and, B. C. 396, obtained possession of a place which for more than ten years had defied the Roman power. The people murmured when they saw him make a triumphal entry in a splendid chariot drawn by four white horses, and with his face painted; for both of these distinctions were appropriated to the gods: but the discontent of the citizens rose to a still higher pitch when the dictator demanded of them the tenth part of the plunder, to perform a vow which he had made to Apollo in case of success. After a long contention, they agreed to consecrate to the god a golden cup, for which the Roman ladies were obliged to give all their jewels into the public treasury. Not long after, Camillus was appointed military tribune. He besieged Falerii, the inhabitants of which resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity, when a schoolmaster delivered into the power of Camillus the children of the most distinguished Falisci, but he sent back the traitor with his hands bound, while the boys beat him with rods, as they returned to their parents. This generosity induced the besieged to surrender; and the senate allowed their victor to determine their fate. He contented himself with obliging them to pay the arrears due to his soldiers; but this increased the number of his enemies. For some time he was invested with the dignity of an *interrex*, and had to contend with all the consequences of hatred. The tribune of the people, Apuleius, accused him of having embezzled a part of the plunder of Veii, and Camillus, who foresaw his condemnation, went into voluntary exile, although his friends offered to pay the sum demanded of him. Less magnanimous than Aristides in a similar situation, Camillus is said to have prayed the gods to compel his ungrateful country to a speedy repentance. This wish was granted. Brennus had obtained possession of Rome, with the exception of the capitol, and Camillus, who was residing in Ardea, aroused the inhabitants of that city to resistance, and defeated the Gauls, who were carelessly encamped before it. The Romans, who had fled to Veii, besought him to place himself at their head; but he declared that he was ready to do this only in case the Roman people, now in the capitol, would commit to him the chief command. Pontinus Cominius, a young plebeian, had the courage and the good fortune to carry the message from the city. Camillus was unanimously appointed dictator, and soon saw himself at the head of an army of 40,000 men, with which he hastened to the relief of the capitol, where he found the besieged just on the point of purchasing peace, and exclaimed, "With iron, not with gold, Rome buys her free-

dom." The Gauls were defeated, and left their camp by night; but Camillus overtook them on the next day, and obtained a complete victory. He now made a triumphal entry into Rome, amidst the acclamations of the people and the army, who greeted him with the name of *Romulus, father of his country, and second founder of the city*. But the Æqui, Volsci, the Etruscans, and some others, united against Rome, when Camillus, now for the third time dictator, armed the whole people, came to the assistance of the military tribunes, who were surrounded, fired the enemy's camp, and gave the plunder to his soldiers. He then took Bolæ, the chief city of the Æqui, defeated the Volsci, and compelled the Etruscans to retreat. He now triumphed for the third time, restored, from the booty, to the Roman ladies, what they had formerly contributed to the accomplishment of his vow, and retired into a private station.

Soon after, when the inhabitants of Antium attacked Rome, he was appointed military tribune, obtained from his colleagues the chief command, and took severe vengeance on the enemy. His glory excited the jealousy of Manlius. The senate, alarmed, once more raised Camillus to the military tribuneship. Manlius was overcome; but the people resolved to attack the Prænestines, allies of the Volsci, and Camillus was obliged, notwithstanding his age, to take the chief command. It appeared to him hazardous to venture a battle; but Lucius Furius, his colleague, pressed him to attack the enemy. Camillus allowed him to direct the engagement, and confined himself to the command of the reserve. The troops under the command of Furius being thrown into disorder, Camillus came up, and prevented a total defeat. On the day following he obtained a complete victory, being nobly supported by his colleague. The inhabitants of Tusculum, against whom he then advanced, surrendered without resistance, and obtained the friendship of Rome, which they had lost by their own fault. Camillus was appointed dictator for the fourth time on account of the disturbances excited by Licinius and Sextus, the tribunes of the people; but he soon resigned the power which he was obliged to employ against Romans and not against enemies.

He was already eighty years old when the appearance of a new army of Gauls alarmed Rome. He once more resumed the dictatorship, attacked the Gauls, dispersed them entirely, and obtained again the honour of a triumph. As new disturbances had broken out, Camillus did not lay down his office till the ferment was quelled, and after this he caused a temple to Concord to be built near the capitol, retired from public life, and died soon after, B. C. 365, of the plague, greatly lamented by the Romans.

**CAMOENS, LOUIS DE**, the most celebrated poet of the Portuguese, and one of the great men whose merit was first apparent to after time, while their own age suffered them to starve. He was born at Lisbon, probably in 1524; for it appears, from a catalogue of persons embarking for the East Indies in 1550, that Camoens, whose age is there given at twenty-five years, offered himself as a volunteer for the campaign. His father, Simon Vaz de Camoens, was a naval captain, and perished by shipwreck on the coast of Goa in 1556. At that time, writers were esteemed in proportion as they imitated the ancients.



Camoens was inspired by the history of his country, and by the manners of his age, and his lyric poems, like the works of Dante, Petrarch, Ariosto, and Tasso, belong to the literature formed under the influence of Christianity. After the completion of his studies, he returned to Lisbon, where he fell deeply in love with a lady of the palace, Catharine d'Attayde. Violent passions are often joined with great talents: Camoens had both. He was exiled to Santarem, on account of disputes in which his love for Catharine involved him. From despair, he became a soldier, and served in the fleet which the Portuguese sent against Morocco. He composed poetry in the midst of battles; and, as danger kindled his genius, so genius animated his courage. An arrow deprived him of his right eye before Ceuta; but he hoped that his wounds would receive a recompense, though his talents were not appreciated; but envy opposed his claims. Full of indignation at seeing himself neglected, he embarked in 1553 for India. He landed at Goa, where his powerful imagination was excited by the heroic deeds of his countrymen in that quarter; and, although he had much reason to complain of them, he could not resist the desire of celebrating their glory in an epic.

But this vivacity of mind, essential to the poet, is not easily united with the moderation which a dependent condition demands. Camoens was displeased with the abuses of the government in India, and wrote a satire which caused his banishment to Macao. Here he lived several years in no other society than that of nature, which showered round him in abundance all the charms of the east. Here, too, he composed his *Lusiad*. Vasco de Gama's expedition to India is the subject of the poem. The parts of it which are best known are the episode of Ines de Castro, and the appearance of Adamastor, who, by means of his power over the storms, aims to stop Gama's voyage when he is about to double the Cape. In conformity to the taste of the time, Camoens united, in this poem, a narrative of the Portuguese history with the splendour of poetic description, and Christianity with mythological fables. He pleased himself with tracing the descent of the Portuguese from the Romans, of whom Mars and Venus are considered the progenitors and protectors. Since fable ascribes to Bacchus the first conquest of India, it was natural to represent him as jealous of the undertaking of the Portuguese. If the imitation of the works of classical antiquity has been of any disadvantage to the *Lusiad*, the injury consists, perhaps, in a diminution of the originality which one expects in a work in which India and Africa are described by an eye-witness. The versification of the *Lusiad* has something so charming and splendid that not only cultivated minds, but even the most unlettered people, are enraptured by its magic, and learn by heart and sing its beautiful stanzas. The general interest of the poem consists principally in the patriotic feeling which pervades it. The national glory of the Portuguese appears here in every form which invention can lend to it; and therefore the countrymen of Camoens must naturally admire this poem more than foreigners, and many critics pronounce the "*Lusiad*" a more powerful and pure historical painting than Tasso's "*Jerusalem Delivered*." Camoens was at last recalled from his banishment, but new misfortunes attended him. At the mouth of the river Mecon, in Cochinchina, he

was shipwrecked, and merely saved himself by swimming, holding in one hand, above the water, the manuscript of his poem, the only treasure which he rescued from the waves, and which was dearer to him than life. In Goa he encountered new persecutions; he was confined in prison for debt, and was not allowed, until his friends became responsible for him, to embark and return to Lisbon in 1569. King Sebastian, yet hardly past the age of childhood, took an interest in Camoens. He accepted the dedication of his epic (which appeared in 1572), and, being on the point of embarking on his expedition against the Moors in Africa, he felt more sensibly than others the genius of the poet, who, like him, loved dangers if they led to glory. But Sebastian was killed in a battle before Alcaçar in 1578. With him the royal family became extinct, and Portugal lost her independence. Every source of assistance, as well as every hope of Camoens, was destroyed by this event. So great was his poverty that at night a slave, whom he had brought with him from India, begged in the streets in order to support the life of his master. In this misery he yet wrote lyric poems, some of which contain the most moving complaints. This hero of Portuguese literature, the ornament of his country and of Europe, died at last in 1586, in the hospital at Lisbon, in the sixty-second year of his age.

CAMPANELLA, THOMAS.—This celebrated Calabrese entered into the order of Dominicans at the age of fifteen. He studied theology and other branches of knowledge with assiduity, but was principally attracted by philosophy. The opinions of Aristotle, then generally taught in the schools, appeared to him unsatisfactory, and in 1591 he published at Naples a work entitled "*Philosophia Sensibus Demonstrata*," intended to show the futility of the prevailing doctrines. This book procured him some admirers and more enemies. He then went to Rome and afterwards to Florence, where he was well received by the grand duke Ferdinand, but, not obtaining the preferment which he expected, he proceeded to Bologna, and then to Padua, where he gave lectures on philosophy. In 1598 he returned to Naples, and revisited shortly after Calabria, where in the following year he was arrested on a charge of conspiracy against the Spanish government, to which Naples was then subject. A scheme was imputed to him of having engaged the Turks to assist him in making himself master of Calabria. On this improbable and apparently unfounded accusation he was imprisoned, and, after being repeatedly tortured, condemned to perpetual confinement. In this situation he wrote many learned works, afterwards published. At length, in 1626, Pope Urban VIII., procured his removal to Rome, and in 1629 gave him his liberty, and bestowed on him a pension. Dreading some further persecution from the Spaniards, he in 1634 withdrew to France, where he was honourably received and much esteemed by the learned men of that country. He died at Paris in 1639.

CAMPAN, JANE LOUISA HENRIETTA.—This celebrated Frenchwoman was born in 1752. She early in life acquired a knowledge of foreign languages, particularly the Italian and English, and was distinguished for her skill in reading and recitation. These acquisitions procured her the place of reader to the French princesses. On the mar-

riage of the unfortunate Marie Antoinette with the dauphin, afterwards Louis XVI., this lady was attached to her suite, and continued during twenty years to occupy a situation about her person. Her general intelligence and turn for observation enabled her, in the course of her service, to collect the materials for her "Memoirs of the Private Life of the Queen of France," first published at Paris, and translated and printed in London, 1823, but of which a new and more perfect edition has since appeared. This work is not only interesting for the information it affords, but is also creditable to the literary talents of the authoress. This lady, soon after obtaining her appointment at court, was married to M. Campan, son of the secretary of the queen's closet. The revolution deprived her of her place, and, when her unhappy mistress was made a prisoner, she in vain requested permission to share in her confinement. Under the government of Robespierre, Madame Campan narrowly escaped the guillotine; and after the fall of that tyrant she opened a private seminary for the education of young ladies, which she conducted with great success. Bonaparte afterwards placed her over his establishment at Ecouen, for orphan daughters of members of the legion of honour. She presided there till the restoration of the Bourbons, when the institution was abolished. The remainder of her life was passed in retirement at Nantes, and was partly employed in the composition of her memoirs. She died March 16, 1822.

**CAMPBELL, GEORGE.**—This learned Scottish divine was born in Aberdeen, December 25, 1719. He was educated in the Marischal College, and commenced his studies in divinity at Edinburgh, in 1741. Seven years afterwards he was ordained a minister of the Scottish church. He was chosen one of the ministers of Aberdeen in June 1757, where his various and extensive talents were appreciated by those who knew best their worth, and where his fame was most likely to be rewarded. Accordingly, in 1759, he was presented by his majesty to the office of principal of Marischal College, and soon made it appear that he was worthy of this dignity. Hume had a short time previous published his "Essay on Miracles," in answer to which Campbell published his celebrated "Dissertation on Miracles," which deservedly raised his character as a metaphysician and polemical writer. This "Dissertation" was originally drawn up in the form of a sermon, which he preached before the provincial synod of Aberdeen, on the 9th of October, 1760.

Dr. Campbell continued for twelve years to discharge the offices of principal of Marischal College, and one of the ministers of Aberdeen. In the former capacity he was equally esteemed by the professors and students, as he united great learning to strictly virtuous conduct. In the latter office he lived in the greatest harmony with his colleagues, and by all his hearers was esteemed as a worthy man, a good preacher, and one of the best lecturers they had ever heard. In June 1771 he was, on a vacancy by resignation, elected professor of divinity in Marischal College. This appointment was attended with the resignation of his pastoral charge as one of the ministers of Aberdeen; but as minister of Gray Friars, an office conjoined to the professorship, he had to preach once every Sunday in one of the churches, and besides this had the offices both of principal and professor of divinity to discharge.

In the latter office he increased the times of instructing his pupils, so that they heard nearly double the number of lectures which were usual with his predecessors, and he so arranged his subjects that every student who chose to attend regularly during the shortest period prescribed by the laws of the church might hear a complete course of lectures on theology, embracing under the theoretical part every thing that the student of divinity should know, and under the practical branch every thing that he should do, as a reader of sacred or church history, a Biblical critic, a polemic divine, a pulpit orator, a minister of a parish, and a member of the church courts on the Scotch establishment.

In 1776 Dr. Campbell published his "Philosophy of Rhetoric," which established his reputation as an excellent grammarian. He also published a few occasional sermons. That "On the Spirit of the Gospel," 1777, placed him at variance with many members of his own church, who adhered more closely to the Calvinistic creed than the doctor. In 1779, when a considerable alarm, followed by riots in Scotland, took place in consequence of a bill introduced into parliament for the relief of the catholics, Dr. Campbell published an address well calculated to quiet the public mind, at the same time that he took occasion to express his dislike of the tenets of catholicism. The same year he published a sermon on the happy influences of religion on civil society. The last work which he lived to publish was his "Translation of the Gospels, with Preliminary Dissertations and Explanatory Notes."

In his seventy-second year he was seized with a severe illness, from which he unexpectedly recovered, and retained his health till the 31st of March, 1796, when he was struck with the palsy, which ended in his death.

**CAMPBELL, JOHN,** a native of Edinburgh, who early in life distinguished himself by a variety of literary works. In 1736 he published the "Military History of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough," which gained him so much reputation that he was engaged soon after to assist in writing the ancient part of the "Universal History." In 1742 he published the first two volumes of the "Lives of the Admirals and other British Seamen," the two last volumes of which appeared in 1744. In 1745 commenced the publication of the "Biographia Britannica," one of the most important undertakings in which Campbell was engaged. The articles written by him, extending through four volumes of the work, are both in point of style and matter much superior to those of his coadjutors. They are liable, however, to one general censure, arising from the almost unvarying strain of panegyric in which the writer indulges, and which has repeatedly subjected him to critical animadversion. In 1750 he published the "Present State of Europe," containing much historical and political information. He was then employed on the modern part of the "Universal History." His last and favourite work was a "Political Survey of Great Britain." He died on the 28th of December, 1775.

**CAMPBELL, JOHN.**—This distinguished Scottish general and statesman was second duke of Argyll. He was born October 10, 1678, and in 1694 was made commander of a regiment of foot.

In 1705 he was nominated lord high commissioner to the Scottish parliament, and Queen Anne created



him baron of Chatham and earl of Greenwich. The duke, after this accession of honours, passed over to Germany and distinguished himself at the battles of Oudenarde and Tournay. From the Low Countries he proceeded to Spain. When he arrived at Barcelona, on the 29th of May, 1711, he found the troops in so wretched a condition, and the affairs of the allies at so low an ebb, by the losses sustained in the preceding year at the battle of Almanza and in other actions, that he was not able to undertake any thing of consequence. The British troops were in great distress for want of subsistence, though the ministry had promised to supply him liberally, and the parliament had granted 1,500,000*l.* for that service. The duke of Argyle wrote pressing letters to the ministry, and loudly complained that he was altogether unsupported; but no remittances arrived, and he was obliged to raise money on his own credit to defray part of the subsistence of the troops. He had the misfortune also to be seized with a violent fever, which rendered it necessary for him to quit the camp, and retire to the town of Barcelona; but, his health being re-established, he quitted Spain, without having been able to attempt any enterprise of importance. Before his return to England, he went to Minorca, of which he had been appointed governor, but made no long stay there.

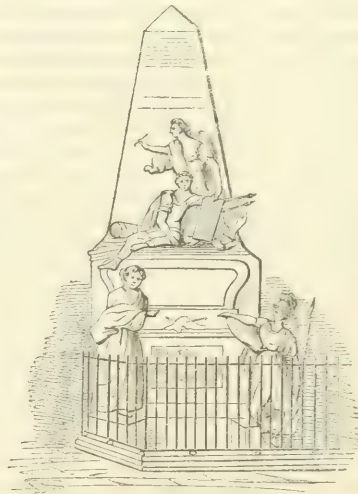
In June 1712 the queen appointed him general and commander-in-chief of all the land-forces in Scotland, and captain of the company of foot in Edinburgh Castle. But he did not long continue upon good terms with the ministry, and opposed a bill which was brought in by the administration appointing commissioners to examine the value of all the grants of crown lands made since the revolution, by which a general resumption was intended to have been made. In 1714, when it was debated in the house of peers whether it should be resolved that the protestant succession was in danger under the then administration, the duke of Argyle maintained the affirmative, and also declared his disapprobation of the proceedings of the ministry relative to the peace of Utrecht. His grace likewise opposed the extension of the malt-tax to Scotland, and was appointed, with the earl of Mar and two Scotch members of the house of commons, to attend the queen, and make a remonstrance to her majesty on this subject. He also supported the motion that was made by the earl of Seafeld, for leave to bring in a bill for dissolving the union. In his speech in parliament upon this subject, he admitted "that he had a great hand in making the union, and that the chief reason that moved him to it was the securing the protestant succession; but that he was satisfied that might be done as well now if the union were dissolved." He added, "that he believed in his conscience it was as much for the interest of England as of Scotland to have it dissolved: and, if it were not, he did not expect long to have either property left in Scotland or liberty in England." This conduct, which was certainly not very consistent, having given great offence to the ministry, he was about this time deprived of all the employments he held under the crown, and continued to oppose the administration to the end of this reign. But, when Queen Anne's life was despaired of, he attended the council-chamber at Kensington, without being summoned; and his attendance on this occasion was considered as

highly serviceable to the interests of the house of Hanover.

On the demise of the queen, the duke of Argyle was appointed one of the lords justices for the government of the kingdom, till George I. should arrive in England, and on the 27th of September, 1714, he was again constituted general and commander-in-chief of the forces in Scotland; and, on the 1st of October following, he was sworn a member of the new privy council. He was also appointed one of the commissioners for establishing the household of the prince and princess of Wales, and was made groom of the stole to the prince.

When the insurrection of 1715 was raised in Scotland in favour of the pretender, the duke of Argyle was sent to take the command of the forces there, and on the 13th of November he engaged the army commanded by the earl of Mar at Dumblain. The duke's troops did not consist of more than 3500, while those of the earl of Mar amounted to 9000. His grace acted in the action with great gallantry, and was congratulated on account of the advantage that he had obtained in a letter from the town-council of Edinburgh. Soon after, the duke was joined by a body of dragoons from England, and by 6000 Dutch troops under General Cadogan; and, being thus reinforced, he compelled the prince's army to abandon Perth, on the 30th of January, 1716; and the pretender was soon afterwards obliged to retire to France. The duke of Argyle now repaired to Edinburgh, where he arrived on the 27th of February, and after being magnificently entertained by the magistrates of Edinburgh, in gratitude for the signal services he had rendered to that city and kingdom in the suppression of the rebellion, set out for England, and arrived on the 6th of March in London, where he was very graciously received by his Majesty.

The duke continued to hold many important offices till the time of his death, which occurred September 3rd, 1743. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, where a fine monument was afterwards erected to his memory.



CAMPE, JOACHIM HEINRICH, a learned writer born in 1746, at Deensen, in the territory of

**Brunswick.** In 1773 he was a chaplain in the Prussian service, and shortly after he founded a private institution for education near Hamburg, but left it on account of his health, in 1783, to Professor Trapp. He died October, 1818, at the age of seventy-two years. His philosophical treatises, as well as the works which he composed for the instruction of youth display a noble and philanthropic spirit, and the services which he has rendered to the cause of education have been universally acknowledged. His style is pure and flowing, artless and animated, but his endeavours to purify and enrich the German language were carried to excess. His "Robinson the Younger" has been translated into almost all the European languages, even into modern Greek. His "Theophrastus" has also had a wide circulation. His letters written in 1789 from Paris, containing warm eulogiums on the French revolution, are bold and eloquent, but marked with the enthusiastic exaggeration of the time, and drew upon him many serious and satirical attacks.

**CAMPEGIO, or COMPEGIO, LAWRENCE,** an eminent cardinal of the catholic church, was a native of Bologna, the son of John Campegio, a learned lawyer, and was himself professor of law at Padua. After the death of his wife, he went into the church, and in 1510 became auditor of the Rota, and in 1512 bishop of Feltria. Being afterwards, in 1517, created cardinal, he was sent as pope's legate into this country in the following year. His business at the English court was to persuade Henry VIII. to join the confederation of Christian princes against the Turks. He was very favourably received on this occasion, and had several spiritualities bestowed upon him, among which was the bishopric of Salisbury; but, not being able to accomplish the business of his mission, he returned to Rome. When the controversy respecting Henry's divorce began, in 1527, Cardinal Campegio was sent a second time into England, to call a legantine court, where he and his colleague Cardinal Wolsey were to sit as judges. Having arrived in London in October 1528, the first session began at Blackfriars, on the 31st of May, 1529, and the trial lasted until the 23d of July, when, Queen Catherine appealing to the pope, the court was adjourned until September, and was then dissolved. Afterwards Campegio was recalled to Rome, the king making him considerable presents upon his departure; but a rumour being spread that he carried along with him a treasure belonging to Cardinal Wolsey, whose downfall was at this time contrived, and who, it was suspected, intended to follow him to Rome, he was pursued by the king's orders, and overtaken at Calais. His baggage was searched, but, nothing being found of the kind suspected, he complained loudly of this violation of his sacred character. In this, however, he obtained no redress, and, when King Henry understood that the see of Rome was not disposed to favour him with a divorce from his queen, he deprived Campegio of his see of Salisbury. He died at Rome in August 1539, leaving the character of a man of learning, and a patron of learned men, and much esteemed by Erasmus, Sadolet, and other eminent men of that time.

**CAMPER, PETER.**—The name of one of the most learned physicians and anatomists of the eighteenth century. He was born at Leyden in 1722, and early distinguished himself in anatomy, surgery, obstetrics, and medical jurisprudence, and also as a writer of

the beautiful. He drew with great skill with the pen, painted in oil, modelled in wax, and knew how to handle the chisel of the sculptor. Camper was the first who proved that the ape of which the ancients have left anatomical descriptions was a species of orang outang; and his essays on lithotomy, &c., have spread light on these subjects. He was much devoted to comparative osteology, and believed, what the discoveries of Cuvier have confirmed, that there have really existed animals of which the species are at present extinct. His "Dissertation on the Natural Varieties," &c., is the first work which has thrown much light on the varieties of the human species, which the author distinguishes by the shape of the skull. After a life of great industry and usefulness, he died at the Hague in 1780.

**CAMPOMANES, DON PEDRO RODRIGUEZ, COUNT OF.**—This celebrated Spanish minister, whose learning and profound views in political economy place him among the first writers of his country, was born early in the eighteenth century. He was director of the academy of history, and his own works were a model of taste and industry, and, as a statesman and a publicist, he enlightened his countrymen by his writings on agriculture, manufactures, and the true principles of commerce. He was chosen a member of the academy of belles lettres at Paris, and, on the proposal of Franklin, of the philosophical society of Philadelphia. Campomanes raised himself solely by his own merits. His reputation as the most learned lawyer in Spain obtained him, in 1765, the appointment of fiscal to the royal council of Castile, by whose order he published, in 1768, an "Answer to the Letters of the Bishop of Cuenca," in which that prelate asserted that the immunities and revenues of the Spanish church were attacked. He assisted Aranda in the expulsion of the Jesuits from Spain, and laboured to introduce a more equal distribution of the taxes, to diminish the number of mendicants, &c. In 1788, on the accession of Charles IV., Campomanes was appointed president of the council of Castile and minister of state. With the rise of the count Florida Blanca, the favour of Campomanes began to decline. He was removed from the council, and retired in disgrace. His death took place early in the nineteenth century. Among his numerous works are, "Dissertation on the Templars;" "Commercial Antiquity of Carthage," in which he controverts the opinions of Dodwell, on the Periplus of Hanno; "Discurso Sobre el Fomento de la Industria Popular;" and "Discurso Sobre la Educacion Popular de los Artisanos;" and "A Sequel" to the latter work, which treats of the causes of the decline of the arts in Spain.

**CAMUS, CHARLES ETIENNE LOUIS,** an eminent French mathematician of the last century, born in 1699 at Cressy en Brie. He was a member of the academy at Paris, and a fellow of the royal society of London, of the first of which learned bodies he became an associate in 1733 and of the latter in 1765. He was also one of the savans commissioned by his government to measure a degree within the arctic circle, and was the author of several mathematical treatises, besides various papers printed in the transactions of the academy of sciences. He died in 1768.

**CAMUS, JOHN PETER,** an exemplary French prelate, born in Paris in 1582, who on account of his excellent character and talents was created bishop of

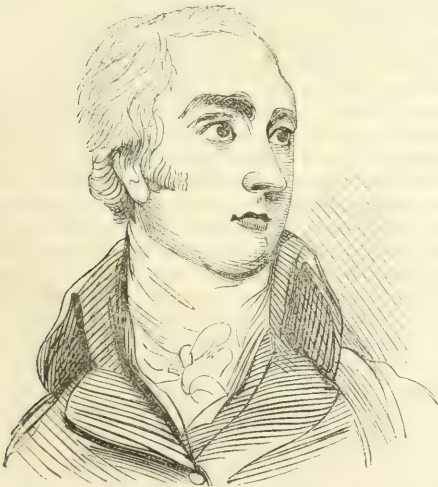


Bellay by Henry IV. in 1609. He was the author of several works, in which he blended lessons of piety with romantic narrative together by which he attracted the attention of romance readers, and insensibly drew their attention to matters of religious importance. He also wrote several satirical works against the monks, whose conduct he wished to reform.

In 1629 he resigned the bishopric, and retired to the abbey of Cluny, but the archbishop of Rouen, unwilling to lose so active a member of the church, associated him in his episcopal cares by appointing him his grand vicar. He much distinguished himself by his pointed attacks on the mendicant orders, which were often very witty, and finally retired to the hospital of incurables in Paris, where he died in 1652.

CANALETTI, ANTONIO, a celebrated painter, who was born at Venice in 1697. He was the son of a scene-painter, and was himself employed in that occupation, but, aspiring to a higher walk in the art, he went to Rome, and on his return to Venice employed himself in taking a view of that city and the neighbourhood, which he treated with a perfection of perspective and a conduct of aerial tint approaching to illusion. In 1749 he visited this country, where he staid two years, and painted some very fine pictures. He died at Venice in 1768.

CANNING, GEORGE.—This distinguished statesman was born April 11, 1770. His father was a barrister, but feeling more interest in political associations than in the study of the law he soon became embarrassed in his circumstances, and ultimately died of a broken heart, leaving his son only one year old. His widow then became an actress, and young Canning was at an early age placed at Eton School. From thence he removed to Christ Church College, Oxford



After taking his first degree at Oxford, Mr. Canning entered himself a member of Lincoln's Inn, with the view of pursuing the profession of the law. From that intention, however, he was diverted by the advice of Sheridan, who had repeatedly witnessed his oratorical powers at one of the debating societies which were prevalent in the metropolis, until the alarm occasioned by the French revolution obliged the government to put them down.

Mr. Canning entered parliament in 1793. "From

the political faith," says Mr. Moore, in his "Life of Sheridan," "in which he had been educated, under the very eyes of Mr. Sheridan, who had long been the friend of his family, and at whose house he generally passed his college vacations, the line that he was to take in the House of Commons seemed already, according to the usual course of events, marked out for him. Mr. Sheridan had, indeed, with an eagerness which, however premature, showed the value which he and others set upon the alliance, taken occasion in the course of a laudatory tribute to Mr. Jenkinson, afterwards earl of Liverpool, on the success of his first effort in the house, to announce the accession which his own party was to receive in the talents of another gentleman—the companion and friend of the young orator who had now distinguished himself. Whether this and other friendships, formed by Mr. Canning at the university, had any share in alienating him from a political creed which he had hitherto perhaps adopted rather from habit and authority than choice,—or whether he was startled at the idea of appearing for the first time in the world as the announced pupil and friend of a person who, both by the vehemence of his politics and the irregularities of his life, had put himself, in some degree, under the ban of public opinion,—or whether, lastly, he saw the difficulties which even genius like his would experience in rising to the full growth of its ambition under the shadowy branches of the Whig aristocracy, and that superseding influence of birth and connections which had contributed to keep even such men as Burke and Sheridan out of the cabinet, at all events, his decision was in favour of the minister and Toryism; and, after a friendly and candid explanation to Mr. Sheridan of the reasons and feelings that urged him to this step, he entered into terms with Mr. Pitt, and was by him immediately brought into parliament."

Sir Richard Worsley having retired, purposely to make room for him, Mr. Canning took his seat as member for the borough of Newtown, in the Isle of Wight. With that strong sagacity which was a distinguishing feature in his character, and with the modesty, also, which is a never failing accompaniment of genuine abilities, Mr. Canning seems to have been determined to acquaint himself perfectly with the forms and usages of the house of commons, before he took any active part in its debates. During the first session that he sat in parliament, he remained silent. His maiden effort was made on the 31st of January, 1794, in the debate which took place, in the committee of supplies, on the Sardinian treaty, by which an annual subsidy of 200,000*l.* was stipulated to be paid by Great Britain, during the continuance of the war, and the restoration of the territories lately wrested from him by France was promised to the king of Sardinia. In order that he might commence his parliamentary career with some eclat, the field was left open on that night by Mr. Pitt to his young friend, who entered at full length into the disputed questions of the origin and objects of the war, in order to prove that the stipulations made with Sardinia were, in every respect, consistent with the declared views and established policy of this kingdom. Although this speech was received with much attention and applause, it certainly did not excite that high admiration which his subsequent parliamentary efforts elicited. This is attributed by an acute critic, who seems to have had access

to particulars of his early life not generally known, to his imitation of Burke.—“Mr. Burke,” observes this writer, “sat in parliament but two years after Mr. Canning, in 1793, entered it. This was, in the end, a most fortunate circumstance for Mr. Canning, whose admiration of the philosophic orator was so great as not only to lead to an identity of political views and opinions, but also to an assimilation of style and manner. The comparative failure of his first efforts in parliament may, therefore, be justly attributed to a too close imitation of the character of Burke’s eloquence—the most dangerous that a man of Mr. Canning’s fancy, playful wit, and Tullian taste, could well hit upon. It was Apollo learning graceful motion from Hercules. Burke addressed himself too much to the intellect of philosophers, and, consequently, valued too little the immediate effect of his exertions to be an effective debater. There was no fusing earnestness in his manner, no locality of feeling, no appearance of personal interest; therefore his auditors were cold and unmoved. He spoke too like a man who, ‘proudly eminent above the rest in the shape and gesture’ of his intellect, felt that all mixture of fleshly feeling was a questioning of his dignity, and that the ordinary local interests and emotions of humanity were derogatory from the character of one who legislated for all times, and all places, and many people.”

Mr. Canning took the degree of M. A. on the 5th of July, 1794. Until that period he had been a frequent resident at Christ Church. He now, however, discontinued that practice, and made the metropolis his constant abode. Mr. Fox having in the next session of parliament moved for a committee on the state of the nation, the motion was warmly opposed by Mr. Canning, who characterised the proposition as being in some points of view useless, in others impolitic, and in none as possessing any claim to the sanction of the house.

In 1796 Mr. Canning accepted of Mr. Pitt the post of under secretary of state; and, at the general election in that year, he was returned for the treasury borough of Wendover. At the same period he was appointed receiver-general of the alienation office.

In the autumn of 1797 Mr. Canning, in conjunction with Mr. Jenkinson, afterwards earl of Liverpool, Mr. George Ellis, Mr. Frere, and other of his friends, projected “The Anti-Jacobin, or Weekly Examiner,” the object of which was, by the twofold operation of argument and ridicule, to attack the numerous journals which in that perilous time were advocating the cause of equality and republicanism. The prospectus of this work was written by Mr. Canning. Mr. William Gifford having been appointed the editor, the first number appeared on the 20th of November, 1797, and the publication was regularly continued until the 9th of July, 1798. “We trust,” says the farewell address of its conductors,—“We trust we have ‘done the state some service.’ We have driven the Jacobins from many strong-holds to which they most tenaciously held. We have exposed their principles, detected their motives, weakened their authority, and overthrown their credit. We have shown them in every instance ignorant, and designing, and false, and wicked, and turbulent, and anarchical—various in their language but united in their plans, and steadily pursuing, through hatred and contempt, the destruction of their country.”

It is difficult to discriminate the productions of the

various powerful contributors to this publication, among whom even Mr. Pitt did not disdain to rank himself. The most striking poetical effusions which it contains were unquestionably from the pen of Mr. Canning, who also furnished, if not the whole, the greater part of “The Rovers, or the Double Arrangement,” a burlesque on the sentimental German drama, and certainly one of the happiest and most effective that ever was written. With these performances of his comparative youth Mr. Canning was in after-life frequently twitted, as if he had committed himself by them. He adhered, however, with constancy to a declaration which he made in the course of a debate in parliament in the year 1807, “that he felt no shame for the character or principles of the ‘Anti-Jacobin,’ nor any other sorrow for the share he had in it than that which the imperfection of his pieces was calculated to inspire.”

In the session of 1798, Mr. Wilberforce having moved for leave to bring in a bill for the abolition of the slave-trade, the motion was supported by Mr. Canning, in a speech of great feeling and ability. Of this speech the venerable Mr. Clarkson has taken notice in his interesting history of the abolition of that abominable traffic. Mr. Clarkson’s notice, as was just, is highly complimentary. After stating that the cause in which he was a zealous labourer had lost the support of the late Mr. Wyndham, of whom it was well said that he had so rare a knack of differing from the views of all parties that he generally found out a third side to every disputed question, Mr. Clarkson goes on to say that the loss sustained was more than compensated by the accession of the young member for Wendover, whose eloquence was equal and whose zeal was more fervent. It may not be improper here to notice the groundlessness of the charges of inconsistency which have since been urged against Mr. Canning. His earliest attempts in literature were consecrated to the fallen condition of Greece, which it was one of his latest endeavours to raise from her low and lost estate. And amongst the earliest displays of his oratory was the one just mentioned in favour of the oppressed sons of Africa, and his talents, his time, and all his influence, in office and out of office, were ever after steadily directed to the amelioration of their condition; nor can it be denied that he pursued that object with more zeal than Pitt and with more prudence than Fox.

Mr. Canning was in March, 1799, appointed one of the commissioners for managing the affairs of India, and, in the debate which took place on the 3d of February, 1800, on his majesty’s message respecting the overture which had been made by Bonaparte, Mr. Canning replied to Mr. Whitbread in a speech of considerable length, in which he dwelt upon the manifest insecurity of Bonaparte’s power.

On the 8th of July, 1800, Mr. Canning increased his fortune and interest by a marriage with Joanna, the youngest daughter of General John Scott of Balcomie, an officer who had acquired a princely fortune in the East Indies. General Scott was a man of very eccentric character. He had conceived a great dislike for the aristocracy of this country. As a proof of it, in making his will, he divided his property in equal parts between his surviving daughters, but clogged with this condition, that if the elder married either a peer or the heir apparent to a peer the whole of her share should devolve to



ner sister, and *vice versa*. Miss Scott, however, after her father's death, braved all hazards, and in 1795 married the marquis of Titchfield, who on the occasion assumed the name of Scott before that of Bentinck. Miss Joanna Scott, instead of taking advantage of the clause in the will, immediately assigned over, as a deed of gift to her sister, the moiety which should otherwise have been her portion. Mr. Canning by his marriage was placed in a state of independence, for the fortune of the lady exceeded 100,000*l*.

Early in the year 1801 a sudden and surprising change was effected in the British government. The administration which had so long defied the efforts of an [able and indefatigable party was suddenly dissolved. It was not subdued by the strength of opposition, deserted by the majority in parliament, or terrified by popular clamour into retreat. The ostensible cause of its dissolution, and which from the correspondence since published between George III. and Mr. Pitt seems to have been the real one, was the disappointment of the minister in all his efforts to induce the king to confirm the expectations which had been held out to the catholics of Ireland at the time of the union. Mr. Canning, of course, resigned his official situations. The following year he was returned member for the borough of Tralee. He now appeared on the opposition side of the house, and assailed the administration of Mr. Addington with such a force of argument and keenness of irony as greatly to provoke the zealous partisans of that gentleman.

From this time nothing remarkable occurred in Mr. Canning's personal or public history until the death of Mr. Pitt, in January, 1806. At the funeral of that statesman Mr. Canning attended as a sincere mourner, and many years after this melancholy event Mr. Canning, in a public speech at Liverpool, said with great emphasis, "In the grave of Mr. Pitt my political allegiance lies buried." His sense of the loss which he individually, as well as the public at large, had sustained appeared in two pieces, one in prose and the other in verse, on the character of that eminent Tory leader. The conclusion of the first production does so much credit to both parties that we shall not stand in need of an apology for extracting it. After sketching with a masterly hand the prominent qualities of his deceased friend, Mr. Canning thus feelingly and delicately notices his personal virtue: "Unallured by dissipation, and unswayed by pleasure, he never sacrificed the national treasure to the one nor the national interest to the other. To his unswerving integrity, the most authentic of all testimony is to be found in that unbounded public confidence which followed him throughout the whole of his political career. Absorbed, as he was, in the pursuits of public life, he did not neglect to prepare himself in silence for that higher distinction which is at once the incentive and reward of human virtue. His talents, superior and splendid as they were, never made him forgetful of that Eternal Wisdom from which they emanated. The faith and fortitude of his last moments were affecting and exemplary." Mr. Canning was now returned member for Sligo; and, being again in opposition, had to contend with some of his former associates, and indeed to stand almost alone against what he ironically termed, "all the talents, all the wisdom, and all the experience of a combined host of

Whigs and Tories, Foxites and Pittites." His autograph at this period is given in the subjoined fac-simile.

In the early part of the session of 1821, two bills in favour of the Roman Catholics of Ireland were introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. Plunkett. On the second reading of one of those bills, Mr. Canning supported it with his usual fervour and eloquence. "The moment," he observed, "is peculiarly favourable for discussion, and singularly free from any hazard with which the measure might otherwise be attended. We are in the enjoyment of a peace in a great degree achieved by catholic arms, and cemented by catholic blood—a peace which, notwithstanding the terrific aspect of affairs in one quarter of Europe, I hope is yet destined to be permanent. But it becomes us, with a view to political contingences, to fortify ourselves, by adopting all those means of strength which are offered to our hands; and never did a more auspicious period occur for augmenting our resources and elevating our hopes. It is difficult to say in what form the expression of national gratitude is most effectually conveyed; certainly not always by the proud column or the triumphal arch; but that it will appear in full radiance, and shine out with lasting splendour, if this grand effort of legislation be consummated, I have not the shadow of a doubt. Provided the result be concord, it is indifferent to me by what particular mode, or on what general understanding, it may be accomplished. I care not whether it be plucked from protestant gratitude, or tendered in generous confidence as a voluntary gift. In either case it will bless both the giver and the receiver, resembling those silent operations of nature which are beneficial, whether they rise in grateful exhalations or descend in fertilizing showers." In subsequent discussions on the same measures Mr. Canning took a principal part.

On the death of the marquis of Londonderry Mr. Canning was appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs, and immediately after his accession to power the British government came to the resolution of establishing consuls in the principal ports of the states of Spanish America; and at the same time sent out commissioners charged with an examination of the actual condition of those countries. This measure was generally and justly considered as merely preliminary to the recognition of the independence of the new states. There can be no doubt that the aggression of France upon Spain, and the consequent overthrow of the constitutional government, very much contributed to confirm the determination which the British cabinet had come to on this question. Mr. Canning, in an interview on the subject with Prince Polignac, the French ambassador, declared in very unequivocal terms that, although Great Britain was desirous that Spain herself should take the lead in acknowledging the independence of the south American colonies, she could not wait indefinitely for

that event; and that, should any foreign power join Spain in an enterprise against the Spanish colonies, Great Britain must then act as her interests might require. So decided an avowal of the views of England on this great question at once put an end to the purpose, if such were entertained, of employing the force of the continental allies of Spain as a means either of menace or coercion against the new American republics.

On the 15th of April, 1827, Mr. Canning was appointed first commissioner of his majesty's treasury. No sooner was he appointed to this office than the lord chancellor (Lord Eldon), the duke of Wellington, Earl Bathurst, the earl of Westmoreland, Viscount Melville, Lord Bexley (who afterwards, however, resumed his place in the cabinet), Mr. Peel, and various members of the household, and subordinate members of the ministry, resigned their offices. It is impossible to doubt that these noblemen and gentlemen had what they considered an adequate reason for adopting so strong a measure, which reason will probably transpire at some future period. Numbers rejoiced at their secession; but a large and respectable portion of the public, however highly they might estimate Mr. Canning, could not forget the eminent services which had been rendered to the country by several of the distinguished individuals who had thus thought proper to retire, and could not help deeply regretting that any circumstances had arisen to induce them to take such a step. Thus deserted by so many of his old political connections, Mr. Canning was compelled to look for colleagues among the ranks of those with whom, during his whole life, he had been in a greater or less degree of political hostility. His first step, however—a step which showed the prompt and determined character of his mind—was to prevail on his present majesty, then the duke of Clarence, to accept the office of lord high admiral. A negotiation then commenced (if indeed it had not commenced before) between Mr. Canning and the Whig party, which terminated in the admission of several of the members of that party into the administration, and the assurance of the support of others.

On the 1st of May, parliament having re-assembled, the extraordinary spectacle was exhibited of Mr. Tierney, Mr. Brougham, Sir Francis Burdett, and Sir Robert Wilson, sitting on the ministerial side of the House of Commons, behind Mr. Canning. The latter in a powerful speech explained the course which events had recently taken, and which had placed him in the situation of prime minister. He had first advised his majesty to form an administration in accordance to his own opinions on the catholic question, he (Mr. Canning) offering to withdraw. When it was found that such a government could not be established, he proposed to form one on the plan of that of Lord Liverpool. This was prevented by the numerous resignations. "When I received them," said Mr. Canning, "I said to my sovereign, 'Here, sire, is that which disables me from executing the orders your majesty has given me, respecting the formation of a new administration. It is now open to your majesty to adopt a new course, for no step has yet been taken in the execution of those orders that is irrevocable; but I must fairly state to your majesty that, if I am to remain in the position in which you have been pleased to place me, my writ must be moved for to-day; for if

we wait until the holidays, without adopting any definite steps, I see that it is quite hopeless for me to attempt to persevere in the objects I have undertaken.' I will not repeat to the house the words in which my gracious sovereign replied to this representation; but I may state that he gave me his hand to kiss, and confirmed me in the office to which I had been named."

An opposition of a rancorous and harassing nature now commenced, and was carried on with ceaseless activity in both houses. Mr. Canning boldly and repeatedly challenged his adversaries, but in vain, to bring forward some specific proposition on which the sense of parliament might be unequivocally pronounced.

On the 1st of June, 1827, Mr. Canning, as chancellor of the exchequer, opened his budget for the year. The distinguishing characteristics of his statement were candour and simplicity. Availing himself of the language of his preceptor, Mr. Pitt, he furnished a gratifying view of the immense resources and undying energies of a country like England; and declared his determination to make the example of that statesman the guide and polar star of his political course. In the course of the evening Mr. Canning made a declaration which elicited general satisfaction. It was to the effect that it was the intention of his majesty's government, at the first moment it could devote to the examination of the financial state of the country, its income, and its expenditure, to adopt every practicable reduction in the annual estimates.

In the subsequent discussions of the session on the corn laws and on other subjects Mr. Canning took a part, but it was painfully evident to all who saw and heard him that his bodily vigour was gradually giving way. For some time, indeed, his ardent mind had been his only support in all his labours; but that ardent mind, by impelling him to exertions beyond his physical strength, was destroying the springs of life. But Mr. Canning's frame was not originally feeble; it had been weakened by years of thought and toil, and was finally broken up by a few months of increased anxiety and effort. The last occasion on which he spoke in the House of Commons was on the 29th of June, 1827 (three days before the prorogation of parliament), in answer to a question from Mr. John Wood respecting a sinecure place which had become vacant in Scotland; when he intimated that, with reference to the place alluded to, his majesty's government would follow the recommendation of the committee appointed in 1817 to examine into and report concerning sinecure places.

On the 6th of July a treaty, of which Mr. Canning had been the principal promoter, was signed, combining England, France, and Russia, in a determination to effect a reconciliation between Turkey and Greece. About the middle of July Mr. Canning was invited, by his noble friend the duke of Devonshire, to reside for a short time at his grace's villa at Chiswick, in the hope that change of air might renovate his health. Here, however, his indisposition increased. Nevertheless, his attention to public business continued to be unremitting. On Monday the 30th of July he waited on his majesty at the Royal Lodge at Windsor. On Tuesday he came to town, and transacted business at his house in Downing Street. On Thursday he grew so much worse that



he was confined to his bed with symptoms of inflammation, which in the course of Friday became more urgent. A king's messenger was despatched to Mr. Planta, at his seat of Fairlight, near Hastings, who immediately set off for town, and thence proceeded to Chiswick. Several medical gentlemen were called in to attend a consultation, four of whom remained all night at Chiswick. During Saturday frequent communications were sent to his majesty at the Royal Lodge, to the lord chancellor, and all the cabinet ministers. On Saturday evening the symptoms became alarming; six medical gentlemen remained in attendance all night. Mr. Canning, however, was a little better on Sunday morning, and lingered till Wednesday, the 8th of August, 1827, when he expired about four o'clock in the morning.

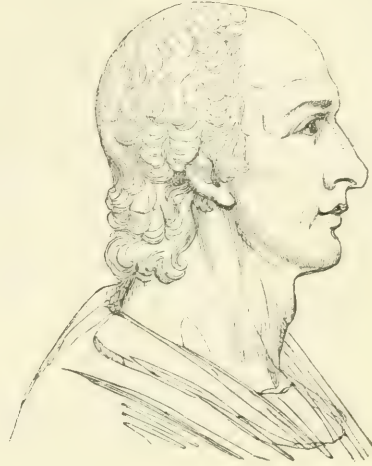
It is impossible to describe the shock which the news of this melancholy event occasioned in the country. The indications of public sorrow were numerous and sincere. Nor was the impression confined to the British empire; it extended itself throughout the whole of Europe: and in France there were several characteristic medals struck in memory of the British minister.

Mr. Canning's remains were interred in Westminster Abbey; and public men, of all parties, vied with each other in their desire to do honour to his worth. There are several appropriate monuments, but the most simple, and as such the one best fitted for our graphic sketch, is given beneath. It may be



proper to add that it is executed in bronze, and occupies a commanding position in Palace Yard.

CANOVA, ANTONIO. — This eminent artist stands foremost in the list of modern sculptors. He is by some considered as the third in the list of Italian artists, Michael Angelo Buonarroti standing first, Bernini second, and Canova third. He may be considered as the restorer of the graceful and lovely style of art, and the founder of a new school, as far as it respects softness and delicacy of execution, and excellent handling of the marble.



Canova was born November 1, 1757, at Possagno, in the Venetian territory. While a boy of twelve years old he displayed his talents by modelling the figure of a lion in butter, which was placed on the table of Falieri, the seigneur of the place. He was so well pleased with the labours of the juvenile artist that he sent him as an apprentice to a statuary in Bassano, where he acquired skill in the mechanical part of the art. His first work, executed in his seventeenth year, was a Eurydice, in soft marble, of half the natural size. He was now sent to the academy of Venice, where his proper study of the art commenced. He gained several prizes, and excited expectations which he more than equalled in the sequel. The first work which he was commissioned to execute was the statue of the Marchese Poleni, of the natural size, for the city of Padua. In his twenty-fifth year he finished the group of Dædalus and Icarus, of the natural size, in Carrara marble. It is remarkable as a juvenile work, but is only a faithful imitation of common nature. The senate of Venice sent him in 1779 to Rome, with a salary of 300 ducats. Here the first fruit of his study was an "Apollo" crowning himself with laurel, three palms high, in marble. It is, however, weak, and without character. Yet the artist in this production has advanced beyond the mere imitation of nature; and this statue is to be considered as his transition to the ideal.

A group as large as life, Theseus sitting upon the slain Minotaur, was the first large work by which Canova made himself known in Rome. It is one of his best works. Theseus has the character of a hero; and the forms show the study and style of the antiques. It was received with universal applause, and Count Fries, in Vienna, purchased it,

In 1783 Canova undertook the execution of the tomb of Pope Clement XIV. in the church Degli Apostoli. In this work he still exhibited the usual style of composition, and only improved on the depraved taste of the school of Bernini. He next made the group of Cupid and Psyche, where he first displayed his own peculiar style, of which loveliness is a striking characteristic. The figures are exceedingly delicate and graceful; yet there is no point of view from which the countenance of both can be seen at the same time; besides, the wings of Cupid project disagreeably from the group, which presents too many interstices. About the same time he executed the likeness of the young prince Czar-toriski in the character of Cupid.

He was then employed on a second public monument, the tomb of Pope Clement XIII. in St. Peter's, which was finished in 1792, and is distinguished by its colossal size and simple style. Meanwhile, the fame of the artist continually increased, and he established in the palace of the Venetian ambassador a school for the benefit of young Venetians. His next works were a winged Cupid, standing; another group of Cupid and Psyche; a group of Venus and Adonis (in which the figure of the latter is particularly beautiful), for the marchese Verio, in Naples; the tomb of the Venetian admiral Emo, for the republic of Venice. This is a combination of *basso-relievs*, with figures in full relief. Canova also made a very lovely Psyche, standing, half-dressed, with a butterfly in her left hand, which she holds by the wings with her right, and contemplates with a calm smiling mien. He also modelled at this time many *basso-relievs*, mostly scenes from the life of Socrates, taken from ancient fable and history, which cannot all be called successful. Only one of these models, which represents the city of Padua as a sitting female figure, was executed in marble. A repentant Magdalen, of the natural size, belongs to the works in marble, in which he has carried the expression of the melting and the soft to the highest degree. The relaxing effect of repentance is expressed with great truth. His Hebe is a delightful figure. In an easy and animated attitude, the smiling goddess of youth hovers upon a cloud, pouring nectar with her right hand into a bowl, which she holds in her left. Both vessels, as well as the coronet of Hebe, and the edges of her garment, are gilt. Canova was fond of a variety of material, and often endeavours to give to his statues the effect of pictures.

He next displayed his talent for the tragical, in the raging Hercules hurling Lichas into the sea. The group is colossal, and Hercules somewhat larger than the Farnesian; but it makes a disagreeable impression, which proves that the genius of Canova was not adapted to such subjects. His representation of the two pugilists, Kreugas and Demoxenos, is much more successful. A standing group of Cupid and Psyche, which has been often repeated, was the triumph of his art. Psyche here appears again holding the butterfly. A Palamedes, subsequently executed by Canova in marble, was overthrown in the winter of 1805, by an inundation, and broken in pieces. In 1796 and 1797 he finished the model of the celebrated tomb of the late arch-duchess Christina of Austria, wife of Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen, which, in 1805, was placed in the church of the Augustines at Vienna. The design of it is

original; for the first time the great artist ventured to leave the common track.

In 1798 he made the colossal model of a statue of the king of Naples, which is justly considered one of his finest works. In the beginning of the revolution, the studio of Canova was in great danger from the Jacobins; but the lovely Psyches, Hebes, and Cupids softened the rage of the mob, and saved the work-shop of the artist, in the back part of which the royal colossus was concealed. He afterwards executed in Rome his Perseus with the head of Medusa, which, when the Apollo of Belvedere was carried to France, occupied its place and pedestal. This statue increased the fame of Canova more than any of the preceding works. But Perseus has no decided character, as it is in fact only an imitation of the Apollo. The separate parts are of exquisite beauty in form, as well as in masterly delicate finishing. The magical charm of the finish dazzles the eye and makes us often forget the more severe forms of art.

In 1802 Canova was appointed superintendent of the Roman works of art, and knight of the Golden Spur, and in the same year he was invited by Bonaparte to Paris, to make the model of his colossal statue. In the beginning of 1803 the model of the emperor's bust, and afterwards that of his colossal statue, was to be seen in the workshop of the artist. It is impossible to conceive a more characteristic likeness, exhibiting, at the same time, the ideal character of the ancient heroic style. There is not a more successful Italian work of the kind than this bust: the figure of the statue is not so good.

Among the later works of the artist are a Washington, of colossal size, in a sitting attitude; the tombs of the cardinal of York and of Pius VII.; the busts of Pius VII. and of Francis II.; an imitation of the Medicean Venus; a Venus rising from the bath; a statue, lying, half-dressed, upon a couch; the tomb of the late engraver Volpato; the colossal group of Theseus killing the Minotaur, far surpassing his earlier works in the heroic style; the tomb of Alfieri, for the countess of Stolberg, in Florence, and erected in that place. Of this beautiful work of art our readers will find a graphic sketch under the article ALFIERI. We may further enumerate the Graces rising from the bath; the monument of the marchioness of Santa Croce, a colossal *basso-relievo*, in marble; a Venus; a dancing girl, with almost transparent garments; the portrait statue of the wife of Lucien Bonaparte, with the lyre in her arms; a large marble statue, with beautiful drapery; a colossal Hector; a Paris; a Muse, larger than the natural size; a model of a colossal Ajax; and the model of a sitting statue, in rich robes, of the archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria.

After the second fall of Napoleon, in 1815, Canova was commissioned by the pope to demand the restoration of the works of art carried from Rome. He went from Paris to London, and returned to Rome in 1816, where Pius VII. inscribed his name in the golden book of the capitol, declared him "to have deserved well of the city of Rome," and made him marquis of Ischia, with a pension of 3000 scudi.

Canova continued his professional exertions with the most laborious perseverance till 1822, and died October 13th of that year from a sudden breaking up of his constitution. This occurred at Venice, and a splendid monument was erected to his memory



in the cathedral of St. Mark, the sculptor's heart being placed in a vase, of which we furnish a delineation beneath.



As a man, Canova was respectable and amiable. He was active, open, mild, obliging, and kind towards every body. He had neither the pride nor the envy of an artist, and his opinion of himself was very modest, notwithstanding his fame was spread through all Europe. He was not only disinterested, but animated by the noblest benevolence. He assisted promising young artists, and established prizes for the encouragement of the arts. In short, his moral character was so excellent that, even among his many rivals, there is but one voice respecting his worth as a man. His last work was a large group, the principal figure of which represents Religion victorious. It was intended to be placed in Rome, as a monument commemorative of late events, the expense to be defrayed by a subscription in this country.

**CANTEMIR, DEMETRIUS.**—This distinguished individual was born in Moldavia, in 1673. At the age of fifteen he was sent as a hostage to Constantinople, where he remained several years. He served his first campaign in 1692, under his father, upon whose death, in the succeeding year, he was chosen prince of Moldavia. This choice was not confirmed by the Porte, and he was ordered to reside at Constantinople, where his abilities soon gained him the favour of the government; and he was twice nominated hospodar of Moldavia. He successfully used his influence to transfer that dignity to his brother. He was appointed the third time, in 1710, with the promise of the annexation of Walachia, and exemption from tribute. Notwithstanding this promise, as soon as he was invested with his office, he was called upon for the amount usually paid on such occasions. He entered, therefore, into a treaty with the czar Peter, by the terms of which the principality was to be hereditary in the family of Cantemir, under the protection of the czar, whom Cantemir was to assist in his war with Turkey. The czar, however, being abandoned by the Poles and betrayed by the Moldavians, was obliged to retire, and Cantemir took refuge in his dominions, with the rank of prince

of the Russian empire. He died at Astracan, in 1723. His principal work is called "A History of the Growth and Decay of the Ottoman Empire." It has been translated into our own language. He is the author, likewise, of the "Present State of Moldavia," and the "System of the Mohammedan Religion," which have both been republished.

**CANTON, JOHN,** was born at Stroud in July 1718. His education, though not a classical, was a solid one, under the auspices of a good mathematical scholar in the town. On being taken from school at the usual age by his father (who intended him for his own business), he devoted all his leisure hours to the mathematics. In this pursuit he at first received no parental countenance, but, finding means to evade his prohibition, a sun-dial, which by the help of his Caroline tables he managed to cut upon stone with a common knife, not only changed his father's opinion, but was the means of introducing him to some valuable acquaintances, especially the Rev. Dr. Miles of Tooting, whose influence was afterwards so successfully exerted in his favour that he received permission to visit the metropolis, and arrived there in March 1737. This step laid the foundation of his future fortune. On the 6th of May, 1738, his friend, Dr. Miles, articulated him for five years to Mr. Watkins, the proprietor of a respectable academy in Spital Square, who, on the expiration of his indentures, took him into partnership, and, the whole concern devolving to him on the death of that gentleman, he continued to conduct it during the remainder of his own life.

A number of new experiments made by him in electricity with the Leyden phial, in 1745, first brought him into notice with the Royal Society, of which body he was elected a member, and obtained their gold medal in 1750, having in the January of that year laid before them a "new method of making artificial magnets without the use of and yet superior to natural ones." In 1752, on the change of the style, he forwarded to Lord Macclesfield his calculations for finding the epact, leap-year, &c. His communication however coming too late for insertion in the book of common prayer was afterwards used by Dr. Jennings in his introduction to the use of the globes. In the same year he was the first person in England who verified by experiment Franklin's theory of electricity, attracting the fluid from the clouds. Although a very constant contributor to the papers published by the society, and a regular correspondent of the "Gentleman's Magazine," he was not the author of any regular or separate work. Canton died in 1772.

**CANUTE, I.,** a celebrated Danish king of England and Denmark, who ascended the throne of both kingdoms A. D. 1015. He was called the Great on account of his power, as Alfred had been for his virtue. The cruelties committed by the Danes in England excited Ethelred II., the twelfth king of Saxon descent, to a dreadful vengeance. In 1002 he caused all the Danes, women and children, to be massacred on the same day, and the sister of Sweyn, then king of Denmark, he caused to be beheaded in his presence. Sweyn landed in England, and laid waste the country with fire and sword; but he died before he had time to confirm the Danish power in this island. This was accomplished, however, by his son and successor, Canute. He began his reign by devastating all the eastern coast of his new kingdom,

and causing the English, who were given to his father as hostages, after he had cut off their noses and hands, to be drowned at Sandwich. He then received reinforcements from Denmark, and extended his ravages in the south of England. The valiant Edmund marched against him with an army, and, although he was several times overcome, through the treachery of Edric, his brother-in-law, he still maintained himself against Canute, so that the English and Danish nobles, weary of the long-continued contest, wished to bring about a division of England between the two princes. A solemn treaty secured to Canute the north of England, and to Edmund the south. But, only a month after this contract, Edmund was assassinated by two chamberlains, hired by Edric; and Canute became master of all England. At a general assembly of the states, he induced falsewitnesses to affirm that Edmund had appointed him heir to his crown, to the prejudice of his two minor children. After the assembly had confirmed this settlement, Canute sent the two young princes to the king of Sweden, with the request that he would put them to death. The latter, however, sent them to Hungary, where they met with the kindest reception.

Canute, who had begun his reign with barbarity and crime, afterwards became humane, and finally pious, and even superstitious. He commenced a more equitable administration, by punishing the English natives who had betrayed their king, and by causing Edric to be hanged, and thrown into the Thames. He restored the Saxon customs at a general assembly, and ensured to the Danes and Englishmen equal rights and equal protection of person and property, so that the horror which had been excited by his tyranny was changed into respect and gratitude, and his power was confirmed by his marriage with Emma, Ethelred's widow. He now made two expeditions to the continent, one to conquer Sweden and the other to reduce Norway. But the most powerful prince of his age was at length brought to feel the vanity of earthly greatness. He erected churches and monasteries, and even performed a pilgrimage to Rome, where he obtained important privileges for the schools of England. It was this spirit of piety that animated him when, to confound his flatterers, he seated himself upon the strand, and commanded the waves to retire. As they advanced, and bathed his feet, Canute arose, and said that he only was almighty whom the ocean obeyed when he proclaimed, "Thus far shalt thou go and no further." His last expedition was against Malcolm, king of Scotland. He died four years after this event, A. D. 1036, at Shaftsbury.

CAPEL, ARTHUR, LORD.—This talented adherent of Charles I. was the son of Sir Henry Capel, on whose premature death he succeeded to the fortunes of his respectable family, and in 1640 represented the county of Hertford. Like many of the most honourable adherents of Charles, he voted with the parliament in the first instance, and even supported the attainder of the earl of Strafford. His views changing as the quarrel proceeded, he began to oppose the party which he had at first supported, and was in consequence advanced to the peerage by the title of Lord Capel, of Hadeham. In 1649 he defended Colchester, in conjunction with Lisle, Lucas, and others, against the parliamentary forces; but being obliged to surrender on terms offered by

Fairfax, which were nearly those of discretion, he was committed to the Tower, from which he made his escape. Being, however, retaken, he was tried and condemned to be hanged, which sentence was changed to beheading, and carried into execution on the 9th of March, 1649. Clarendon is of opinion that two or three sharp and bitter speeches, which passed between Capel and Ireton, cost the former his life. He endured his fate with great magnanimity, and left behind him a volume of meditations, and several letters.

CAPEL, ARTHUR, son of the preceding, was created earl of Essex at the restoration, and was employed as ambassador to Denmark, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and in 1679 became, for a few months only, first lord of the treasury. Accused, in conjunction with Lord William Russel, with being concerned in the rye-house plot, he was committed to the Tower in July 1683, where he was found a few days afterwards with his throat cut. This catastrophe has never been satisfactorily accounted for, some attributing it to despondency of mind, and others to the contrivance of the opposite party; and, unhappily, the character of that wretched era in English history would countenance any supposition.

CAPEL, EDWARD, a dramatic critic, who was born in 1713 at Troston, near Bury in Suffolk, and was educated at the school of St. Edmund's-bury. He obtained the office of deputy-inspector of the plays from the duke of Grafton, to which was annexed a salary of 200*l.* a year. In 1745, shocked as he himself says, at the licence of Hanmer's plan, he projected an edition of Shakspeare duly collated and of great accuracy. Three-and-twenty years were employed on this undertaking, which at length appeared without notes or commentary, except the introduction, a short account of the origin of the stories of the different plays, and a table of the different editions. They, however, appeared afterwards in 1783, in three quarto volumes, entitled, "Notes and various Readings of Shakspeare, &c., edited by the Rev. Mr. Collins." His style was quaint, but with sound sense and erudition, which are very conspicuous in his introduction. He died in 1781.

CAPELLO, BIANCA, a noble Venetian lady, whose singular adventures and final elevation have rendered her exceedingly remarkable. She was born about 1542, being the daughter of Bartolomeo Capello, a patrician of Venice. She early fell in love with a young and handsome clerk in the banking-house of Salviati, named Buonaventuri. The consequence of this disgraceful intrigue was the pregnancy of the lady, and the flight of the lovers to Florence, where they married, and Bianca lay in of a daughter. Here they lived some time in great apprehension and obscurity, until some accident or contrivance introduced Bianca to the notice of Francis, son of Cosmo, grand duke of Tuscany. Her uncommon beauty made an immediate impression on a prince notorious for his attachment to the sex; and the consequence was that she and her husband were quickly settled in a splendid palace, and the latter made chamberlain to the duke, and, to the great disgust of the Florentines, entrusted with a large share of public business. Bianca was, in the mean time, introduced at court, and became the object of great admiration; and it is asserted that even at that time Francis promised to marry her, should they become released from the marriage ties by which they were each of them bound. This took place in a very few years on her part. Buonaventuri, having



engaged in an intrigue with a woman of rank, was assassinated by her family; and Francis now avowedly proclaimed Bianca his mistress. As Francis, who had no issue, passionately desired even a natural child, Bianca, whose intemperate mode of living was not favourable to his wishes, carried on all the forms of pregnancy, and presented to her deluded lover a new-born male child, of poor parents, whom he joyfully received as his own, and christened Antonio. A legitimate son, produced to him soon after by his duchess, induced him to be less open in his attentions to Bianca; but the death of his wife, very soon after, opened to the latter a road to her final elevation, and she was quickly united to Francis by a private marriage. Her ambition, however, was not to be gratified without publicity, and she induced the grand duke to send a solemn embassy to Venice to inform the senate of his marriage, and to request them to confer on Bianca the title of daughter of the republic, which honour was supposed to entitle those on whom it was bestowed to a royal alliance. That government assented, and Bianca, being crowned daughter of the state, was solemnly installed grand duchess of Tuscany in 1579. In 1582, the legitimate son of Francis expired, and, soon after, he declared Antonio his lawful son, although, it is said, Bianca had acknowledged her imposition. Ferdinand the brother of Francis, and his lawful heir, was not blind to these proceedings, and paid the greatest attention to the subsequent reported pregnancies of the duchess, until, the state of her health setting all idea of further progeny aside, she essayed to effect a reconciliation between the brothers, and Ferdinand paid a visit to Florence. He had been there but a short time, when Francis fell ill, at his hunting village of Poggio, where his brother was a guest; and two days after, the duchess being seized with the same symptoms, they both died, after about a week's illness, in October, 1587, Bianca being then in her forty-fifth year. The known character of the Medici family caused this catastrophe to be attributed to poison; and a story is current that, Bianca intending to poison Ferdinand with a prepared viand, he had the address to make the duke and duchess eat of it themselves. As there was no direct motive for the attempt at the period, and it rests only on the character of the parties, it is more reasonable to suppose that a malignant fever, at an unhealthy season, was the real cause of the sudden termination of so extraordinary a career. The hatred of the Florentines has made Bianca a monster of vice and cruelty; a thousand absurd stories were propagated of her propensity to magic and other crimes; and, perceiving the impossibility of gaining their affections, she employed trains of spies and informers, which added still more to their animosity. The truth seems to be that she was a woman of consummate beauty and address, with little or no principle; and such was the character of the Italian courts, at the period in which she flourished, that she had only to act in the spirit of the times to become very nearly as vicious as the Florentines described her.

**CAPO D'ISTRIAS, JOHN.**—This celebrated Greek nobleman was born at Corfu. When the Russians were masters of the Ionian islands he rendered himself useful to them, and, in 1812, he conducted the diplomatic business of the army of the Danube, of which Admiral Tschitschagoff was commander-in-chief. When this army was united with

the great Russian army after the retreat of the French, Capo d'Istria managed the diplomatic correspondence at head-quarters, under the emperor's direction, and soon gained the confidence of that monarch to such a degree that he was afterwards engaged in the most important public business, and appointed secretary of state for the department of foreign affairs. He was made grand-cross of the Wladimir order, knight of St. Ann, grand-cross of the royal Austrian Leopold order, and of the Prussian order of the red eagle. In 1813 he was appointed Russian ambassador to Switzerland, negotiated with the Austrian ambassadors the new relations of the republic, and, in September, 1814, was present at the congress of Vienna as Russian plenipotentiary, from which the downfall of Napoleon in 1815 recalled him to the head-quarters of the allies at Paris.

As imperial Russian plenipotentiary, Capo d'Istria subscribed the treaty of Paris in 1815, and returned with his monarch to Petersburg, where he took a very active part in the business of the council of state. His endeavours for the restoration of the republic of the Ionian islands, for the support of the established religion in Russia against the intrigues of the Jesuits, and for the deliverance of the Greeks from the Turkish yoke, are well known. But, as Russia affected to disapprove of the attempts of the Greeks, and Stroganoff returned from his mission to Constantinople in 1822, Count Capo d'Istria left the public service, and retired, as a private man, to Germany and Switzerland, living chiefly at Geneva. In 1822 he arrived at Napoli di Romania, and was immediately appointed president and chief of the Greek government. As a despotic chief Capo d'Istria now acted an important part in the affairs of Greece, but the republicans who had laboured to throw off the Turkish yoke were entirely neglected or viewed with suspicion. A conspiracy was ultimately formed, which ended in his death, as he was assassinated in 1831.

**CAPON, WILLIAM.**—This ingenious artist was born at Norwich in 1757, and commenced his career as an architect, but speedily quitted that walk of art for the practice of scene-painting. With this he occasionally combined the higher branches of painting, and was most actively engaged till the time of his death, which occurred September 26th, 1827.

**CAPPE, NEWCOME,** a dissenting minister of the Unitarian persuasion, who was born at Leeds in 1732. He was placed with Dr. Aikin at Kilworth in Leicestershire, and afterwards with Dr. Doddridge at Northampton. In 1752 he went to the university at Glasgow, where he completed his studies, after which he returned to Leeds, and the following year became minister of a dissenting congregation at York, which situation he held for forty years. He died in 1800, weakened by repeated attacks of paralysis. Two years after his death were published "Critical Remarks on many important parts of Scripture, with Memoirs of his Life," by the editor, his widow, Catherine Cappe. In this work he attacks the Trinitarian doctrine, and endeavours to establish those opinions with regard to various parts of the New Testament, adopted by the modern Unitarians.

**CARACALLA, ANTONINUS BASSIAMUS,** the eldest son of the emperor Severus, whom he succeeded. According to the will of his father, Caracalla was to reign in-conjunction with his brother Geta. From their earliest infancy they entertained

the strongest dislike against each other, and they both anxiously desired that the empire should be divided between them. But their wishes were strongly opposed by their mother Julia, and by the principal men of the state. Caracalla now resolved to get rid of his brother, by causing him to be assassinated. After many unsuccessful attempts he pretended to desire a reconciliation, and requested his mother to procure him an interview with his brother in private in her chamber. Geta appeared, and was stabbed in his mother's arms by several centurions, who had received orders to this effect. The prætorian guards were prevailed upon, by rich donations, to proclaim Caracalla sole emperor, and to declare Geta an enemy to the state; and Caracalla caused Geta's children and friends to be put to death, but he afterwards executed many of the murderers of his brother, and caused him to be placed among the gods. His pattern was Sylla, whose tomb he restored and adorned. Like that dictator, he enriched his soldiers with the most extravagant largesses, which extortion enabled him to furnish. Cruel as Caligula and Nero, but weaker than either, he regarded the senate and the people with equal contempt and hatred. Alexander, whose habits he imitated, and Achilles, were the objects of his deepest veneration. He went to Ilium to visit the grave of Homer's hero, and poisoned his favourite freedman, named Festus, to imitate Achilles in his grief for Patroclus. His conduct in his campaigns in Gaul, where he committed all sorts of cruelties, was still more degrading. He marched over the Rhine to the countries of the Catti and Alemanni. The Catti defeated him, and permitted him to repass the river only on condition of paying them a large sum of money. He marched through the land of the Alemanni as an ally, and built several fortifications. He then called together the young men of the tribe as if he intended to take them into his service, and caused his own troops to surround them and cut them in pieces. For this cruel exploit he assumed the name Alemannicus. He signed a treaty of peace at Antioch with Artabanus, the Parthian king, who submitted to all his demands. Shortly after he invited to Antioch Abgares, the king of Edessa, an ally of the Romans, loaded him with chains, and took possession of his states. He exercised the same treachery towards Vologeses, king of Armenia, but the Armenians flew to arms and repulsed the Romans. After this, Caracalla went to Alexandria to punish the people of the city for ridiculing him. While preparations were making for a great massacre, he offered hecatombs to Serapis, and visited the tomb of Alexander, on which he left his imperial ornaments by way of offering. He afterwards devoted the inhabitants, for several days and nights, to plunder and butchery, and seated himself, in order to have a view of the bloody spectacle, on the top of the temple of Serapis, where he consecrated the dagger which he had drawn some years before against his brother.

His desire to triumph over the Parthians induced him to violate the peace, under the pretence that Artabanus had refused him his daughter in marriage; and, as he found the country undefended, ravaged it, marched through Media, and approached the capital. The Parthians, who had retired beyond the Tigris to the mountains, were preparing to attack the Romans the following year with all their forces. Caracalla returned without delay to Mesopotamia, without

having even seen the Parthians. When the senate received from him information of the submission of the east, they decreed him a triumph and the surname Parthicus. Being informed of the warlike preparations of the Parthians, he prepared to renew the contest; but Macrinus, the prætorian prefect, whom he had offended, assassinated him at Edessa, on his way to the temple of Lunus. Caracalla erected at Rome some magnificent baths, which bear his name, and a triumphal arch in commemoration of the achievements of Severus.

CARACCI. See CARRACCI.

CARACCIOLI, LOUIS ANTOINE DE.—This learned writer was born in 1721 at Paris, of an ancient and distinguished Neapolitan family. His talents for conversation procured him a distinguished reception in Rome from Benedict XIV. and Clement XIII. He afterwards went to Germany and Poland. After having educated the children of Prince Rzewuski in the latter country, he returned to Paris, and wrote his "*Lettres du Pape Clément XIV. (Ganganelli),*" which display a kind spirit, a benevolent philosophy, and fine taste. They also contain intelligent observations on many situations of life. For a long time they were thought to be the genuine productions of the pope, and excited the greatest interest in France and throughout Europe. He died in 1803.

CARACCIOLI, FRANCISCO, a distinguished Neapolitan admiral, who entered the navy of his country very early in life; but, being treated by his court with contempt, he entered the service of the Parthenopean republic, and repelled with a few vessels an attempt of the Sicilian-English fleet to effect a landing. When Ruffo took Naples, in 1799, Caraccioli was arrested, contrary to the terms of the capitulation, was condemned to death by the junta, was hung at the mast of his frigate, and thrown into the sea. His death is a blot on the fame of Nelson.

CARACTACUS, a king of the ancient British people called Silures, inhabiting South Wales. He defended his country seven years against the Romans, but was at last defeated and led in triumph to the Emperor Claudius, then at York, where his noble behaviour and pathetic speech obtained him his liberty. Buchanan, Monipenny, and the other ancient Scottish historians, make this heroic prince one of the Scotch monarchs.

CARAVAGGIO, MICHAEL ANGELO, a celebrated painter, born at Caravaggio, in the Milanese territory. In 1569 he worked as a journeyman mason, but soon after applied himself to painting. He studied in Milan and Venice, and afterwards went to Rome, where he greatly distinguished himself. He may be considered as the inventor of a style which has had a crowd of imitators. His characteristic traits are vigour and truth of *chiaro-oscuro* combined with excellent colouring. He was fond of introducing broad and deep masses of shade, by which a great effect is given to the light. To aid him in producing this effect, the room in which he worked was illuminated by a skylight, and the walls were painted black. His faults were obvious. Narrow and servile imitation of nature was his highest aim. Annibal Caracci and Domenichino were, perhaps, less distinguished than Caravaggio during their lives, but, after their death, were ranked higher, because, without neglecting colouring and the study of nature, they aimed at correctness of design and dignity of conception. He died as early as 1609.



**CARDAN or CARDANO, GERONIMO.**—This celebrated philosopher, physician, and mathematician was born in 1501 at Pavia, and was educated from his fourth year very carefully in the house of his father, a physician and lawyer in Milan, distinguished for his learning and integrity. In his twentieth year he went to Pavia to complete his studies; and after two years he began to explain Euclid. He became subsequently professor of mathematics and medicine in Milan. He then returned to Pavia, again visited Milan, taught for some time at Bologna, and, meeting with some difficulties there, went to Rome. Here he was received into the medical college, and was allowed a pension by the pope. He declined the invitations of the king of Denmark, on account of the climate and of the religion of that country. The latter reason for his refusal appears strange from a man who was accused of irreligion; but his biographers differ with regard to his religious opinions. Contradictory passages are cited from his works, which cannot surprise us in one who was lost in cabalistic dreams and paradoxes, and pretended to have a familiar demon from whom he received warnings, &c. All this excited the theologians against him, who attacked his orthodoxy, and even accused him of atheism, but certainly without foundation. The truth is that Cardan was superstitious, but his chimeras were in opposition to the reigning superstitions of the age. He believed so implicitly in astrology that he drew his own horoscope several times, and ascribed the falsehood of his predictions, not to the uncertainty of the art, but to his own ignorance.

His two works, "*De Subtilitate*," and "*De Rerum Varietate*," contain the whole of his natural philosophy and metaphysics, and are curious as an instance of a strange mixture of wisdom and folly. Cardan wrote also on medicine, and his writings on this subject, amid much trash, contain some sound ideas. His fame as a physician was so great that the primate of Scotland, who had been sick for ten years, and had consulted the physicians of the king of France and of the emperor of Germany without success, invited him to Scotland, and was restored to health by his prescriptions. His highest claims to the gratitude of the learned rest on his mathematical discoveries. Algebra, which, from the time of its origin, had been cultivated almost exclusively in Italy, excited at that time much rivalry among the mathematicians, who carefully kept their discoveries secret, in order to triumph over each other in their public disputes. Cardan, it is said, was told that Tartalea had discovered the solution of equations of the third degree, and obtained the secret from him by stratagem and under promise of silence, but published the method in 1545, in his "*Ars Magna*." A violent dispute arose, which cannot now be decided with certainty. The honour of giving his name to the invention has remained to him who first made it known, and it is called the "*formula of Cardan*." It is universally believed that Cardan discovered some new cases, which were not comprehended in the rule of Tartalea, that he discovered the multiplicity of the roots of the higher equations, and, finally, the existence of negative roots, the use of which, however, he did not understand. His tranquillity was disturbed, not only by the attacks of his enemies, but also by his own extravagances, which are related in his work "*De Vita Propria*," no doubt

with much exaggeration. They are exposed with so much frankness that those who have judged him with indulgence have been obliged to suppose him subject to fits of insanity. He died, probably, in 1576, according to some accounts by voluntary starvation, that he might not survive the year in which he had predicted that his death would occur.

**CAREW, THOMAS.**—This early English poet was of the family of the Carews in Gloucestershire, but descended from the ancient family of that name in Devonshire. He was educated at Corpus Christi College in Oxford, and, having afterwards improved himself by travelling in foreign lands, he appeared at court with such advantage as to obtain a high character among the men of wit and elegant accomplishments; he became "*reckoned*," as Philips expresses it, "*among the chiefest of his time, for delicacy of wit and poetic fancy*." Charles I. made him gentleman of the privy-chamber; and he obtained extravagant praises from Ben Johnson, Davenant, and other poets of his time, to which his being one of the "*mob of gentlemen*" who exercised themselves in the fashionable pursuits of polite literature seems not a little to have contributed. He was a youthful intimate of the great earl of Clarendon, who speaks in high terms of his engaging qualities, and his talent for light poetry of the amorous kind, in the elegance and fancy of which he has few equals. Clarendon says of him, what it would be injuring the cause of virtue to conceal, "*but his glory was that after fifty years of his life, spent with less severity and exactness than it ought to have been, he died with the greatest remorse for that licence, and with the greatest manifestation of Christianity that his best friends could desire*." His death took place about 1639. Davenant has addressed some stanzas to Carew, celebrating his wit and talent in poetry, among which are the following lines:—

"Not but thy verses are as smooth and high  
As glory, love, and wine, from wit can raise:  
But now, the devil take such destiny!  
What should commend them turns to their dispraise.  
Thy wit's chief virtue is become its vice;  
For every beauty thou hast raised so high  
That now coarse faces carry such a price  
As must undo a lover that would buy."

Hume has properly remarked that Waller's pieces "*aspire not to the sublime, and still less to the pathetic*." The same may be said of Carew, but with this exception in his favour, that he has sublimity in many parts, particularly in his "*Masque*," and in his "*Epitaph on Lady Mary Villiers*" he is eminently pathetic.

There was an English poet and topographical writer named *Thomas Carew*, who lived somewhat later, but there are no authentic particulars of his life extant.

**CARISSIMA, GIACOMO**, a famous Italian musical composer of the seventeenth century. He was born at Padua, and was living as late as 1672. He wrote many oratorios, cantatas, and motets, and his contemporaries praised him for his characteristic expression of feeling, and his easy flowing style. He deserves the most honour for the improvement of the recitative, having given it a more expressive and natural language. He wrote also, it is said, the first church cantatas.

**CARLETON, SIR GUY, LORD DORCHES-TER**—This celebrated nobleman was born at Strabane, in Ireland, in 1724, and, entering the army, became lieutenant-colonel in the guards in 1748.

In 1758 he accompanied General Amherst to America, where he distinguished himself at the siege of Quebec. He was afterwards promoted to the rank of colonel in the army, and, at the siege of the Havannah, signalized himself by his bravery. In 1772 he was appointed governor of Quebec, and created major-general. By his great exertions he saved the whole of Canada, the capital of which was besieged by the American generals Montgomery and Arnold. The inhabitants joined the British troops, and, after an obstinate resistance, the Americans were repulsed, and Montgomery was killed at the head of his army. In consequence of this exploit, he was knighted, and the next year became a lieutenant-general. In 1781 he was appointed to succeed Sir Henry Clinton, as commander-in-chief in America, where he remained until the conclusion of the war. In 1786 he was created governor of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick; and, as a reward for his long services, was raised to the peerage by the title of Lord Dorchester of Dorchester, in the county of Oxford. He died in 1808, aged eighty-five.

**CARLI, GIOVANNI RINALDO, COUNT**, called sometimes Carli Rubbi, from the title of his wife, was born in 1720, at Capo d'Istria, of an ancient family, and early manifested an inclination for the study of the middle ages, with which he connected the study of belles lettres and of poetry. In his twenty-first year the senate of Venice made him professor of astronomy and naval science. On account of a ridiculous controversy between him and the abbé Tartarotti, on witches and witchcraft, he was accused of heresy. Maffei put an end to the controversy by his "*La Magia Annihilata*." The care which his large estates required compelled Carli to resign his professorship and retire to Istria, where he spent his time in the study of antiquities, on which he has written some valuable treatises. He was afterwards appointed, by the emperor, president of the highest commercial court at Milan, and subsequently president of the college of finance in the same city. He died in 1795.

**CARLIN**, the most celebrated harlequin of the French stage, indeed many writers consider the word harlequin as derived from his name. He was born at Turin in 1713, and his true name was Carlo Antonio Bertinazzi, and Carlin is the abbreviation of Carlino, the Italian diminutive of Carlo. In 1741 he went to Paris, took part in the Italian comedy there, and performed for forty-two years in the character of harlequin with constant applause. Goldoni praises him not only as one of the best comic actors, but also for his excellent manners and elegant appearance in society. He enjoyed the greatest favour with the *parterre*, and addressed the audience with a familiarity not allowed to any other actor. He was still more successful in improvisation than in the performance of written parts, and has performed a whole piece of five acts. Carlin died in 1793.

**CARLOS, DON.**—There are several Spanish princes who have borne this name, but the most celebrated, and indeed the only one we can notice in the present place, was the son of Philip II. and Maria of Portugal. He was born at Valladolid, in 1545, and his mother died four days after his birth. The extreme indulgence with which he was educated by Joan, sister of the king, confirmed his violent, obstinate, and vindictive disposition. In 1560 Philip caused him to be acknowledged heir of the throne

by the estates assembled at Toledo, and in 1562 he sent him to the university of Alcalá de Henares, in hopes that the study of the sciences would soften his turbulent character. An unlucky fall threw him into a burning fever, and the physicians lost all hopes of his recovery. The king immediately hastened to his son, and as it was recollected that the prince had a very great veneration for St. Didacius, who was not yet canonized, Philip commanded the corpse of the saint to be brought in a procession. It was laid upon the bed of the sick prince, and his hot face covered with the cold shroud. He fell asleep: when he awoke the fever had left him, and he demanded food and recovered. All believed a miracle had been wrought, and Philip requested the canonization of Didacius. Contemporary historians differ in the description of the prince. According to some he had a thirst for glory, an elevated courage, pride, and a love of power. According to others he was fond of whatever was strange and uncommon; an accident or opposition irritated him to frenzy, while address and submission softened him immediately. He is also represented as a favourer of the insurgents of the Netherlands, and, in particular, as an enemy of the inquisition. At the congress of Chateau Cambresis, 1559, the marriage of Don Carlos with Elizabeth, daughter of Henry II. of France, was proposed; but Philip, being left a widower by the death of Mary of England, took the place of his son. Don Carlos is said to have loved Elizabeth, and to have never forgiven his father for having deprived him of her. In 1563 Philip, who had no other heir than Don Carlos, considering him unfit for the throne, sent for his nephews, the archdukes Rodolph and Ernestus, to secure to them the succession to his dominions. Don Carlos, who lived in continual misunderstanding with his father, resolved in 1565 to leave Spain, and was on the point of embarking when Ruy Gomez de Silva, a confidant both of Philip and Carlos, dissuaded him from his resolution. In 1567, when the rebellion in the Low Countries disquieted Philip, Don Carlos wrote to several grandees of the kingdom, that he had the intention of going to Germany. He disclosed his plan to his uncle, Don John of Austria, who mildly dissuaded him from it, and represented to him that most of the grandees to whom he had written would not omit to inform the king. This was, in fact, done; and indeed Don John himself told Philip what Don Carlos had confided to him. It is believed that he was touched by the sufferings of the people of the Netherlands, that he had been invited by them to place himself at their head, and that this plan, from its bold and extravagant character, had gained his approbation, and Philip himself believed that his son intended to go to the Netherlands.

The architect of the Escorial, Louis de Foix, gives the following facts relating to Don Carlos, which have been preserved to us by De Thou:—The prince had always under his pillow two naked swords, two loaded pistols, and at the side of his bed several guns, and a chest full of other fire-arms. He was often heard to complain that his father had deprived him of his bride. On Christmas evening, he confessed to a priest that he had resolved to murder a man. The priest, therefore, refused him absolution. The prior of the monastery of Atocha artfully drew from him expressions from which it could be inferred that he meditated an attempt upon



his own father, and the confession was then communicated to the king, who exclaimed, "I am the man whom my son intends to murder; but I shall take measures to prevent it." Thus Philip, a jealous husband, a gloomy and suspicious king, and an unfortunate father, impelled by hatred or fear, by policy or superstition, resolved on the destruction of his only son, in whom he saw only a criminal unworthy of the crown. On the night of January 18, 1568, while Don Carlos was buried in a deep sleep, Count Lerma entered his chamber and removed his arms. Then appeared the king, preceded by Ruy Gomez de Silva, the duke of Feria, the grand prior of the order of St. John, brother of the duke of Alva, and several officers of the guard and state counsellors. Don Carlos still slept. They awoke him: he beheld the king his father, and exclaimed, "I am a dead man." Then, addressing Philip, he said, "Does your majesty wish to kill me? I am not mad, but reduced to despair by my sufferings." He conjured with tears those who were present to put him to death. "I am not come," answered the king, "to put you to death, but to punish you as a father, and to bring you back to your duty." He then commanded him to rise, deprived him of his domestics, ordered a box of papers under his bed to be seized, and committed him to the care of the duke of Feria and six noblemen, enjoining them not to permit him to write nor to speak with any one. These guards clothed Don Carlos in a mourning dress, took from his chamber the tapestry, the furniture, and even his bed, leaving him nothing but a mattress.

After Philip had endeavoured to justify his measures to the pope, and the principal sovereigns of Europe, and had also given notice to the superior clergy, to the courts of justice, and to the cities of his empire of what had passed, he referred the case of the prince, not to the inquisition, but to the council of state, under the direction of Cardinal Espinosa, who was state counsellor, grand inquisitor, and president of the junta of Castile. This court is said, after a minute examination, and hearing many witnesses, to have condemned him to death.

The Spanish historians state that he died of a malignant fever, after having taken the sacrament with much devotion, and having asked his father's pardon. According to Llorente, the king signed the judicial order for the formal arrest of the prince, for whom the pope, and all the princes to whom Philip had written, in particular the emperor Maximilian II., had interposed in vain. The execution of the order of imprisonment was committed by Philip to Ruy Gomez de Silva, prince of Evoli. The prince displayed all the violence of his passionate disposition. He obstinately refused to confess, lived irregularly, and his fury inflamed his blood to such a degree that even ice-water, which he used daily, could not refresh him. He ordered a great quantity of ice to be laid round his bed, went naked and barefoot upon the stone floor, and for eleven days took no food but ice. The king then visited him, and addressed to him some words of consolation, after which the prince ate to great excess, which brought on a malignant fever. Meanwhile Don Diego Eribiesca de Mugnatones, member of the council of Castile, conducted the trial, of which the prince had not the slightest official notice.

In July, 1568, Mugnatones drew up a report to the king from the testimony of the witnesses, and from

the papers of the prince, which had been seized, stating that Don Carlos was guilty of treason, in having plotted against the life of his father, and in having attempted to make himself master of the government of Flanders by a civil war; but that it must depend on the king whether he would have the infante judged according to the common laws of the kingdom. Philip declared that, as king, his conscience did not permit him to make any exception from the laws in favour of a prince who had shown himself so unworthy of the throne. He believed that the recovery of the prince's health was not to be expected; and that, therefore, he ought to be permitted to take food without any restraint, which would cause his death; that he ought, however, to be convinced that his death was inevitable, in order to induce him to confess, and secure his eternal welfare. In consequence of the declaration of the king, the cardinal Espinosa and the prince of Evoli thought it advisable to leave the death of the prince to the progress of the disease. To the physician of the king, Olivarez, who had the care of the prince, this purpose of the prince of Evoli was communicated, and he is said to have administered a medicine to the patient, after which the disease appeared to become fatal, and advised the infante to prepare himself for his approaching death by taking the sacrament. This Don Carlos did, and asked pardon of the king, his father, through his confessor. Philip granted it, and also his blessing. Upon this Don Carlos received the sacrament, and made his will. The struggle lasted during two days. The prince listened during that time with calmness to the prayers of the clergyman. On the night of the 23rd of July 1568, the king visited him, gave him his blessing, without being recognized by the prince, and withdrew weeping. Soon afterwards, at four o'clock in the morning of the 24th of July, Don Carlos expired. He was buried as became his rank, yet without any funeral sermon, in the convent of the Dominican nuns, El Real, at Madrid. The queen Elizabeth died in October of the same year, in child-bed. The melancholy fate of Don Carlos has served as a subject for several tragedies.

**CARMER, JOHN HENRY CASSIMER, COUNT OF**, high chancellor and minister of justice in Prussia. He rendered the greatest service to Prussian jurisprudence by the assistance which he afforded in the preparation of the Prussian code, and still more by the improvements which he introduced into the civil process of that country. He was born in 1721, entered the Prussian service early, and was soon noticed by Frederic the Great. After fifty years' service he retired from official life, and died in 1801, near Glogau, in Silesia.

**CARMONTELE**, a French poet of considerable celebrity, who is best known by his "*Proverbs Dramatiques*." He was born in 1717 at Paris, and died there in 1806. These productions are without much connection in themselves, being in fact only a series of dramatic scenes, but are well adapted for private theatres. The fertility of Carmontelle was as extraordinary as his ease in writing. He is said to have left, besides his printed works and his compositions for the theatre, more than 100 volumes of manuscripts.

**CARNOT, LAZARE NICHOLAS**.—The French revolution had few more active supporters than this eminent republican. He was born at Nolay, in

Burgundy, early in 1753. From his youth, he exhibited an uncommon talent for the mathematical and military sciences, entered the corps of engineers, and rose in office by the favour of the prince of Condé. He published, afterwards, "Mathematical Essays," which caused him to be elected a member of several learned societies. His eulogy on Vauban received the prize of the academy at Dijon. At the beginning of the revolution he was captain in the corps of engineers, and in 1791 he was appointed deputy to the constituent assembly, but at first took part only in military affairs. At his proposal, the officers of the nobility were removed from the army, and others substituted from the citizens. As a member of the convention, he voted for the death of Louis, and in the following March he was sent to the army of the north, where he deprived the cowardly general Gratiot of his command on the field, put himself at the head of the army, and repulsed the enemy. On his return to the convention, he was made a member of the committee of public safety. The influence of Carnot in the military operations now began to be more deeply felt. In possession of all the plans deposited in the archives of Louis XIV., he organized and directed the French armies; and his direction undoubtedly contributed very much to their success. After the fall of Robespierre, he was often accused, but always acquitted, because his duty had been to take care of the defence of the country, and he could not be made answerable for the cruel decrees of Robespierre, in which Carnot's name, as he was a member of the committee, of course was to be found. At the establishment of the directory, in 1795, Carnot was chosen a member, and, for some time, maintained an important influence. Barras at length succeeded him in the department of war, and was ever after his enemy. His plan for the overthrow of Barras was unsuccessful, and, with some others, he was sentenced to transportation on the 4th of September, 1797. He fled to Germany, and published a defence, which was eagerly read in Paris, and, by the exposure of the conduct of his former colleagues, hastened their overthrow. Shortly after Carnot was recalled and appointed *inspecteur aux revues*, and, two months later, in April, 1800, minister of war. He soon after retired into the bosom of his family, but was called to the tribunate in March, 1802. The same inflexible integrity and republican principle which had hitherto distinguished him did not now desert him. He often opposed the views of the government, voted alone against the consulship for life, and resisted strenuously the proposal for the imperial dignity. He remained, however, a member of the tribunate till it was abolished, passed the next seven years of his life in retirement, and published several valuable military works. In 1814 Napoleon gave him the chief command at Antwerp. He connected a vigorous defence with a careful regard for the interest of the city, which, by the command of Louis XVIII., he afterwards surrendered to the English general Graham. He still retained his titles and his honours, but, as a firm republican, he could never expect the favour of the court, particularly as, in his memorial to the king, he openly and severely censured the measures of government, in consequence of which he was passed over in the new organization of the academy of sciences. When Napoleon was once more at the helm of state, in 1815,

he made Carnot count and peer of the empire, and pressed upon him the ministry of the interior. Carnot discharged the difficult duties of this office with his usual integrity. After the emperor's second fall, he was made a member of the provisional government of France, and was afterwards the only one of the members of it comprehended in the ordinance of July 1815. He retired to Cerney, where he employed his pen on political subjects; then to Warsaw with his family; and finally to Magdeburg, where he died, August 1823. He was rigid in his love of virtue, a scholar, a good general, and an inflexible republican. He was universally esteemed, both in France and in foreign lands, and was honoured by all parties.

CARO, ANNIBALE, one of the most celebrated Italian authors of the sixteenth century. He was born in 1507 at Città Nuova, in the march of Ancona, and after the death of his patron, Gaddi, in 1543, was appointed secretary to Pietro Ludovico Farnese, duke of Parma and Piacenza, who entrusted him with several missions to Charles V. After the assassination of the duke, his own life was in considerable danger. He took refuge in Parma, and was treated in a friendly manner by the new duke, Ottavio Farnese, whose two brothers, the cardinals Ranuccio and Alexander, took him successively into their service. With the latter he remained from 1548 to his death in 1566, and received from him several ecclesiastical preferments. Caro devoted himself chiefly to the study of numismatics and the Tuscan language, and his pure and elegant style, in verse and prose, soon became generally admired. His translation of the *Æneid*, in blank verse, is excellent. After his death appeared a translation by him of Longus, and of Aristotle's *Rhetoric*; also "Rime" and "Lettere," the former of which are admired for the elegance of the verse, and the latter as models of beautiful Italian prose. He belongs to the most elegant writers of Italian literature.

CAROLINE MATILDA.—This unfortunate princess was born in 1751. She was daughter of Frederic Lewis, prince of Wales, and in 1766 married King Christian VII. of Denmark. Though young and beautiful, and universally esteemed by the nation, yet she was treated with hatred and neglect by the grandmother of her husband, Queen Sophia Magdalena, as well as by his step-mother, Juliana Maria, who, for some time influenced even her husband against her. Struensee, by profession a physician, the favourite of the king, became her friend, and both, in union with Brandt, endeavoured to gain the king from the influence of the party opposed to the queen. The reins of government came into the hands of Struensee, but the party of the king's step-mother, and her son, Prince Frederic, procured the imprisonment of the queen, the counts Struensee and Brandt, and all their friends. Struensee and Brandt were tried, and executed for high treason. Even the queen was at first in danger of being condemned to death. Shortly after she was separated from her husband, and confined in Aalborg, but liberated by the interference of her brother, King George III. She died May 10, 1775, at Celle, in Hanover, scarcely twenty-four years old, of a disease of the lungs, the consequence of her grief. She was of a mild temper, and beloved by all around her.

CAROLINE AMELIA ELIZABETH, queen of England and wife of George IV., king of Great



Britain and Hanover. She was the second daughter of duke Charles William Ferdinand of Brunswick (who was mortally wounded in the battle at Auerstadt), and of the princess Augusta of England, sister of George III. The princess was born May 17, 1768, and spent her youth in her father's court, under much constraint, till 1795, when she was married to the prince of Wales, afterwards George IV., king of Great Britain. The year following that of her marriage she gratified the royal family and the British nation by the birth of a daughter, who was named Charlotte Augusta. She had scarcely recovered from her confinement when her husband abandoned her, declaring that no one could force his inclinations. This was the beginning of the disgraceful dispute between the two parties, which lasted till the death of Caroline, and exposed her honour to repeated accusations from her husband, while George III. and all the British nation favoured the deserted bride. The princess of Wales lived retired from the court, at a country seat at Blackheath, where she devoted herself to the arts and sciences, to benevolence, and the gratification of her taste, till 1808. Meanwhile, many reports were circulated accusing her of illicit connections with Captain Manby, Sir Sidney Smith, and others, and of being the mother of a boy, on account of which the king instituted an enquiry into her conduct by a ministerial committee. They examined a great number of witnesses, and fully acquitted the princess of the charge, declaring however, at the same time, that she was guilty of some imprudences, which had given rise to unfounded suspicions. The king confirmed this declaration of her innocence, and paid her a visit of ceremony. She afterwards received equal marks of esteem from the princes, her brothers-in-law. The duke of Cumberland attended the princess to court and to the opera. The reports above mentioned were caused by the adherents of the prince of Wales and the court of the reigning queen, who was very unfavourably disposed towards her daughter-in-law. On this occasion, as on many others, the nation manifested the most enthusiastic attachment to the princess.

In 1813 the public contest was renewed between the two parties; the princess of Wales complaining, as a mother, of the difficulties opposed to her seeing her daughter, and the prince of Wales, then regent, paid no attention to her just complaints. Upon this, in July, 1814, the princess obtained permission to go to Brunswick, and afterwards to make the tour of Italy and Greece. She now began her celebrated journey through Germany, Italy, Greece, the Archipelago, and Syria, to Jerusalem, in which the Italian Bergami was her confidant and attendant. Many infamous reports were afterwards circulated, relating to the connection between the princess and Bergami. On her journey she received grateful acknowledgments for her liberality, her kindness, and her generous efforts for the relief of the distressed. When the prince regent ascended the British throne on the 29th of January, 1820, Lord Hutchinson offered her an income of 50,000*l.* sterling, the name of *queen of England*, and every title appertaining to that dignity, on the condition that she would never return to England. She refused the proposal, and asserted her claims more firmly than ever to the rights of a British queen, complained of the ill-treatment shown to her, and exposed the conspiracies

against her, which had been contrived by a secret agent, the baron de Ompteda, of Milan. Attempts at a reconciliation led to no favourable result, and she at length adopted the bold resolution to return to England, where she was neither expected nor wished for by the ministry, and, amid the loudest expressions of the public joy, arrived from Calais on the 5th of June, 1820, and the next day entered London in triumph. The minister, Lord Liverpool, now accused the queen before the parliament, for the purpose of exposing her to universal contempt as an adulteress. Whatever the investigations of the parliament may have brought to light, the public voice was louder than ever in favour of the queen; and, after a protracted investigation, the bill of pains and penalties was passed to a third reading only by a majority of 123 to ninety-five; and the ministers deemed it prudent to delay proceeding with the bill for six months, which was equivalent to withdrawing it, and thus ended this revolting process, which was, throughout, a flagrant outrage on public decency.

In this trial Brougham acted as the queen's attorney-general. Though banished from the court of the king her husband, the queen still lived at Brandenburg House in a manner suitable to her rank, under the protection of the nation.

In July, 1821, at the coronation of George IV., the queen first requested to be crowned, then to be present at the ceremony. But, by an order of the privy council, both requests were denied, and, notwithstanding the assistance of the opposition, she suffered the personal humiliation of being repeatedly refused admission into Westminster Abbey. She then published in the public papers her protest against the order of the privy council. Soon after her husband's departure to Ireland, in consequence of the violent agitation of her mind, she was suddenly taken ill in Drury Lane theatre, and an inflammation of the bowels succeeded. After an illness of a few days the queen died on the 7th of August, 1821. The corpse, according to her last will, was removed to Brunswick, where it rests with the remains of her ancestors. The tomb-stone has a very short inscription, in which she is called the "unhappy queen of England." The removal and the entombing of her mortal remains gave rise to many disturbances, first in London, and afterwards in Brunswick. These were founded more in opposition to the arbitrary measures of the ministry than in respect for the memory of the queen; and it may be proper to add, in conclusion, that two causes operated much in favour of the queen: the unpopularity of the ministry, and the general feeling that George IV. was perhaps the last man in the whole kingdom, who had a right to complain of the incontinencies of his wife.

CARPENTER, RICHARD.—This individual was born early in the seventeenth century. He was educated at Eton, and elected to King's College, Cambridge, in 1662. Quitting England, he became a convert to the church of Rome, in which he took orders. He also became a Benedictine, and was sent to England as a missionary, when he recanted, and obtained a vicarage in Sussex. On the Rebellion, returning to Paris, he once more declared himself a catholic, and at the Restoration again settled himself as a zealous protestant at Aylesbury in Buckinghamshire. This curious ecclesiastic pub-

lished a sermon in defence of astrology. He also wrote a work called "Experience, History, and Divinity," in four books, 8vo. The following curious passage in his list of errata will remind the reader of some passages quoted by Cervantes, from the Spanish romances: "I humbly desire all clean-hearted and right-spirited people which shall read this book (which, because the press was *op-pressed*, seems to have been *sup-pressed*, when it was by little and little *im-pressed*, but now at last truly *pressed* through the *press* into public), to correct the following errata." He also wrote a comedy, called "The Pragmatical Jesuit," and changed his religion once more, dying a catholic at last.

CARPI, UGO DA, a celebrated painter and engraver, who flourished in the beginning of the sixteenth century. He is generally considered as the inventor of that species of engraving denominated *chiaro-oscuro*, which was afterwards carried to such perfection by Balthasar Peruzzi.

CARPI, GIROLAMO DA, also a painter, was a native of Ferrara. He painted many pictures for the churches there and at Bologna. Carpi was a great admirer of Correggio and Parmegiano, whose works he copied with great success. He died in 1556.

CARR, SIR JOHN, an attorney in Dorsetshire, who distinguished himself as a tourist by several popular productions. After the peace of Amiens he visited France, and on his return, in 1803, published "The Stranger in France," the first and best of his works, which was so well received that he was induced to devote his time and talents to a succession of similar publications, the titles of which are as follow:—"A Tour round the Baltic," "The Stranger in Ireland," "A Tour through Holland down the Rhine," &c., and "A Tour through Scotland." The traveller's visit to Ireland was productive both of honour and disadvantage to him, for he was knighted by the lord-lieutenant, and ridiculed in a very witty publication entitled "My Pocket-Book, or Hints for a Ryghte Merrie and Conceitede Tour," to be called "The Stranger in Ireland." This *jeu d'esprit* became the subject of a prosecution for libel, in which the knight errant was unsuccessful. Sir J. Carr was also the author of a small volume of poems.

CARR, WILLIAM HOLWELL.—This distinguished patron of the fine arts was born in Gloucestershire. He came into the possession of a large fortune by marriage, which till the death of his lady was devoted to the patronage of the art of painting. Mr. Carr died in 1830, and left his fine collection of pictures to the National Gallery.

CARRACCI, the name of a celebrated family of painters.—Ludovico Carracci, the son of a butcher, was born in 1555 at Bologna. He appeared at first to be more fit for grinding colours than for transferring them to canvas. But his slowness did not, in fact, arise from deficiency of talent but from zeal for excellence. He detested all that was called ideal, and studied only nature, which he imitated with great care. At Florence he studied under Andrea del Sarto, and enjoyed the instruction of Passignano. He went to Parma for the purpose of studying Correggio, who was then imitated by almost all the Florentine painters. At Bologna he endeavoured to obtain popularity for his new principles among the young artists, and united himself with his cousins, Agostino and Annibale Carracci, whom he sent, in 1580, to Parma and Venice. On their return to

Bologna, the three artists began to acquire reputation, but met with the most violent opposition. Annibale, the most resolute of them, was of opinion that they should refute the slanders in circulation by the excellence of their productions. Ludovico resolved to establish an academy for painters at Bologna, which he called the "Accademia Degli Incamminati." His first principle was that the study of nature must be united with the imitation of the best masters. He soon gave an example of this principle in the "Prophecy of John the Baptist," in the monastery of the Carthusians, imitating, in single figures, the style of Raphael, Titian, and Tintoretto. The finest works of Ludovico are at Bologna; for instance, those which adorn the hall in the monastery of St. Michael in Bosco, and the "Annunciation" in the cathedral at Bologna. He excelled in architectural views and in drawing, and in general was thoroughly acquainted with all the branches of his art. After having enjoyed his fame for a long time, at least as long as his cousins were alive, Ludovico died in 1619 almost in poverty. The chief reproach to which he is liable is that he did not unite the study of the antiques with that of nature. His colouring has also been blamed.

Agostino Carracci was born in 1558 at Bologna. He soon became one of the most accomplished disciples of Ludovico, and excelled particularly in invention. He engraved more works than he painted in order to please his brother Annibale, who became envious of his fame after a picture of Agostino had obtained a prize in preference to one of his own, and another excellent picture, the Communion of St. Jerome, had gained his brother universal admiration. Subsequently, Agostino accompanied Annibale to Rome, and assisted him in painting the Farnesian Gallery. As many persons said that the engraver worked better than the painter, Annibale removed his brother, under pretext that his style, though elegant, was not grand enough. Agostino went then to the court of the duke of Parma, and painted there a picture representing the heavenly, the earthly, and the venal love. There was only one figure wanting, when, exhausted by labour and mortification, he died in 1601. As an engraver he deserves great praise, and often corrected the imperfect outlines of his originals.

Annibale Carracci, his brother, was born in 1560 at Bologna, and worked at first with his father, who was a tailor. By the advice of his cousin Ludovico, he learnt drawing, and made the most astonishing progress, copying first the works of Correggio, Titian, and Paul Veronese, and painting like them small pictures before he undertook large ones. In the academy founded by the Carracci he taught the rules of arrangement and distribution of figures. He was one of the greatest imitators of Correggio. His St. Roque Distributing Alms, now in Dresden, was the first painting which gave him reputation, and his Genius of Glory is likewise celebrated. In the Farnesian Gallery, which he painted, there breathes an antique elegance and all the grace of Raphael. Agostino, perhaps, had more invention, and Ludovico more talent for teaching; but Annibale had a loftier spirit, and his style is more eloquent and noble. He died of grief in 1609 at the ingratitude of Cardinal Farnese, who paid him for twenty years' labour with 500 gold scudi. He was buried at the side of Raphael in the Pantheon of Rome.—Antonio Car-



racci, a natural son of Agostino, born 1583 at Venice, possessed considerable merit. Among the many well-known disciples of the Carracci, Domenichino deserves to be particularly named.

**CARRERAS**, three brothers, distinguished in the revolution of Chile:—José Miguel Carrera, Juan José Carrera, and Luis Carrera. They were the sons of a rich landholder in Santiago, Don Ignacio Carrera. The three brothers took an active part in the revolution of Chile from its commencement, and in November 1811 obtained the effective control of the revolutionary government, Don José Miguel, the eldest, being a member of the junta and colonel in the army, and the two younger brothers being also colonels in different corps, and the military being strongly in their favour. They continued in the possession of power until 1813, when they were taken prisoners by the Spaniards, and confined at Talca; and, during their confinement, O'Higgins placed himself at the head of affairs. But they soon regained their liberty, and, by means of their popularity with the army, were enabled to displace O'Higgins and resume their former influence, although not without a conflict with their antagonist. They became reconciled to him, however, and acted in concert with him at the battle of Rancagua, in October, 1814, in which the patriots were defeated, and in consequence of which the Carreras and their associates fled across the Andes. Don José Miguel left South America for the United States of North America, seeking supplies of men and money. Meanwhile, Don Juan José and Don Luis remained in Buenos Ayres, where they were detained, on their parole, by Pueyrredon, and not allowed to join the army sent for the liberation of Chile, commanded by their personal enemy, O'Higgins, and his friend, General San Martin.

Don José Miguel found them in this condition upon his return in 1817, and was himself arrested at Buenos Ayres, but made his escape. His brothers fled from Buenos Ayres, but were apprehended near Mendoza, and thrown into prison. Upon learning this, General San Martin despatched his secretary, Montegudo, to bring them to trial, and, if possible, invent some plausible cause for their execution, so as to prevent their return to Chile. Accordingly, a false accusation of having murdered some obscure person in 1814 was brought against Don Juan José; but, as this did not inculcate Don Luis, a plot was contrived with the soldiers, and the brothers were induced to attempt their escape, after which the proceedings were resumed, and they were condemned on the 8th of March, 1818, to be shot on the same day. They heard their sentence at three o'clock in the afternoon, and were slaughtered at six. They walked arm in arm to the place of execution, gave the word to the soldiers to fire, and embraced each other in death. So causeless were these legal murders that public opinion charges them upon San Martin, who, finding the friends of the Carreras numerous in Chile, employed his creature Montegudo to procure their death. With refined cruelty, San Martin sent their aged father an account of the expenses of their execution, with an order for its immediate payment. He paid the bloody charge, and, two days afterwards, expired of a broken heart. Don José Miguel resolved to avenge their death, and accordingly raised a small body of troops, natives and foreigners, and marched across the *pampas*, having found means to

correspond with his friends in Santiago. His progress was viewed with great uneasiness by O'Higgins, then supreme director of Chile; for the people cherished the fondest recollections of the Carreras, whose wisdom in government, and personal condescension, had won all hearts. A conspiracy in favour of Carrera unfortunately was detected by O'Higgins, and suppressed. Don José Miguel arrived near Mendoza in January, 1822, and was there unexpectedly met by a superior force, and surrounded and taken prisoner, after a brave resistance. Being conducted to Mendoza, he was hurried through a brief form of trial, and executed on the very spot where his brothers suffered. Thus, by a singularly adverse fortune, perished a family of brothers, who left not their equals in patriotism, talents, and purity of character, in Chile. Their friend and adviser, Rodriguez, also perished, a victim of the same enemies. In testimony of their respect for the memory of the Carreras, the government of Chile have recently ordered the removal of their remains from Mendoza to their native country.

**CARRIER, JOHN BAPTIST**.—This individual was born in 1756 at Volai, near Aurillac, in Upper Auvergne, and at the beginning of the revolution was chosen a member of the national convention, and aided in the establishment of the revolutionary tribunal of March 1793, and exhibited the wildest rage for persecution. He voted for the death of Louis XVI., demanded the arrest of the duke of Orleans, on the 6th of April, 1793, and contributed towards the revolution which took place in May, 1793. In the October following he was sent to Nantes with a commission to suppress the civil war by the exercise of greater severity than had yet been used. The prisons were already full, while the defeat of the Vendéans near Savenay increased the number of prisoners. Multitudes, informally and precipitately condemned, were executed daily; but Carrier found this process too slow. He resolved, therefore, to destroy the prisoners in a mass, and without a trial. He caused ninety-four priests to be conveyed to a boat with a perforated bottom, under pretence of transporting them, but, in reality, with a view of having them drowned by night. Every day this artifice was repeated. In the evening the destined victims, of every age and of both sexes, were brought to the boats. Two were tied together and plunged into the water, at the point of the bayonet and the edge of the sabre. The executioners sometimes amused themselves by tying together a young man and woman; and they called these *noyades*, or republican marriages. Besides this more than 500 prisoners were daily shot in the quarries at Gigan. For more than a month these deeds of madness were perpetrated, and it has been estimated that 15,000 individuals perished in this way. The banks of the Loire were strewed with the dead, and the water was so polluted that it was prohibited to drink it. Some months before the fall of Robespierre, Carrier was recalled, and on the 27th of July, 1794, he was apprehended and brought before the revolutionary tribunal, which condemned him, and he was instantly ordered to be executed.

**CARRO, GIOVANNI DI**, a physician of Milan, who settled in Vienna. He is celebrated for his efforts in spreading inoculation, as a protection from the small-pox, in Germany, Poland, Hungary, and Russia. He found means to overcome even the pre-

judices of the Turks, by sending to Lord Elgin, at Constantinople, in 1800, a quantity of virus, together with a work of his translated into Turkish, on inoculation. All the attempts of this country to introduce inoculation into India had been hitherto unsuccessful, because the virus had always been spoiled on the way. Carro procured the matter from Lombardy cows for Dr. Harford, at Bagdad. It retained all its strength, and was the means of imparting the benefits of kine-pock inoculation to India, which the Indians consider is derived from a sacred cow, and to which they have given the name of *amurtum* (immortality). Carro's "Observations et Expériences sur la Vaccination," and his translation of a work, by J. J. Loy, on the origin of the cow-pock virus, are very valuable works.

CARROLL, JOHN, first catholic bishop of the United States, was born in Maryland in the year 1734. His parents were catholics of distinguished respectability, and sent him at the age of thirteen to the college of St. Omer's, in Flanders, where he remained for six years, when he was transferred to the colleges of Liege and Bruges. In 1769 he was ordained a priest, and soon after became a Jesuit. In 1770 he accompanied Lord Stourton, the son of an English catholic nobleman, on a tour through Europe in the capacity of private tutor; and on his return to Bruges, in 1773, accepted a professorship in the college. Shortly afterwards he was on the point of going back to his native country, but his voyage was prevented by the intelligence of the entire suppression of the Jesuits by the pope; and he retired to England, where he resided until 1775, when he returned to America. His stay in Europe was prolonged in order that he might assist his brethren in procuring a mitigation of the severe sentence that had been passed upon them; and he acted as secretary-general to the dispersed fathers in their remonstrances with the courts by which they had been persecuted. Upon his arrival in Maryland he entered upon the duties of a parish priest. In 1776, at the solicitation of congress, he accompanied Dr. Franklin, Charles Carroll of Carrolltown, and Samuel Chase, on a mission to Canada, designed to induce the people of that province to preserve a neutral attitude in the war between England and the colonies, but was unsuccessful. The catholic clergy of the United States having requested from the pope the establishment of a spiritual hierarchy in America, in preference to being under the superintendence of one in England, Mr. Carroll was appointed vicar-general in 1786, when he fixed his abode in Baltimore. In 1789 he was named first catholic bishop of the United States, and came to England in the summer of 1790, where he was consecrated. In the same year he returned to Baltimore, and, as the seat of his episcopal see was established in that city, assumed the title of bishop of Baltimore. He was universally esteemed and beloved for the exemplary manner in which he discharged his duties, the mildness and courtesy of his manners, and the sanctity of his life. He lived in friendly communion with persons of other sects, his character being entirely devoid of intolerance. A few years before his demise he was elevated to the archiepiscopal dignity. He died in December, 1815, in the eighty-first year of his age.

CARSTARES, WILLIAM, a Scotch divine of political eminence, who was born in 1649 at Cathcart, near Glasgow, where his father was minister.

He pursued his studies at the university of Edinburgh, from which he was removed to that of Utrecht, was introduced to the prince of Orange, and entrusted with all his views with regard to Britain. He, however, returned to Scotland, with the view of entering the ministry; but, after receiving a licence to preach, resolved to return to Holland. As he was to pass through London, he was employed by Argyle and his party to treat with the English exclusionists, and became privy to the rye-house plot. On the discovery of that conspiracy, he was apprehended. After a rigorous confinement in irons, he was subjected to the torture, and endured this trial with great firmness; but, being afterwards deluded with the hopes of a full pardon, and assured that his answers should never be made evidence against any one, he submitted to make a judicial declaration. The privy council violated their engagement by producing his evidence in court against his friend, Mr. Baillie, of Jerviswood. Being released he returned to Holland, and was received by the prince of Orange as a sufferer in his cause. The prince made him one of his own chaplains, and procured his election to the office of minister of the English congregation at Leyden. He accompanied the prince in his expedition, and always remained about his person both at home and abroad. During the reign of William, he was the chief agent between the church of Scotland and the court, and was very instrumental in the establishment of the presbytery, to which William was averse. On the death of William, he was no longer employed on public business; but Anne continued him her chaplain, and made him principal of the university of Edinburgh. When the union of the two kingdoms was agitated, he took a decided part in its favour; but he did not long survive this event, dying in 1715, at the age of sixty-six. The memory of Carstares is, for the most part, revered by his countrymen as that of an enlightened patriot; and few men of active power and influence have steered between parties more beneficially and ably.

CARSTENS, ASMUS JACOB, a distinguished painter, who was born at St. Jurgen, near Sleswic, in 1754. He studied at Copenhagen, where he produced his first picture—the "Death of Æschylus." In 1783 he set out for Rome; but, after having seen some works of Julio Romani and Leonardo da Vinci, was obliged to return to Germany from want of means, and ignorance of the Italian language. A work containing more than 200 figures, the "Fall of the Angels," procured him the place of a professor in the academy at Berlin. His picture of "Maga-pont" was compared to the productions of Raphael and Michael Angelo. His subjects were almost all taken from Homer, Pindar, Sophocles, Æschylus, Shakspeare, and Ossian. In Carstens' works, we find that effort to attain correctness of form and outline, gracefulness of attitude, and loftiness and vigour of expression, by which the works of the ancients are distinguished; but they frequently exhibit a certain harshness arising from too close imitation. He was often defective in anatomy and perspective, and, having begun late in life to paint in oil, was unacquainted with the secrets of colouring.

CARTE, THOMAS, an English historian of considerable eminence, was born at Dunmoor, Warwickshire, in 1686. He was admitted at University College, Oxford, and was afterwards sent to Cambridge, where he took his degree of M. A. in



1706. His first publication was entitled the "Irish Massacre set in a True Light," &c. Incurring suspicions during the rebellion of 1715, a warrant was issued for his apprehension, which he eluded by concealment in the house of a clergyman at Coleshill. He subsequently acted as secretary to Bishop Atterbury; and, as it was supposed that he was concerned in the conspiracy imputed to that intriguing prelate, he was charged with high treason, and a reward of 1000*l.* was offered for his apprehension. He was again successful in making his escape, and, reaching France, he resided there several years under the name of Philips. Having obtained various introductions to persons of influence and learning, he obtained free access to the principal libraries, and employed himself in collecting materials for an English edition of the "History of Thuanus." At length Queen Caroline, the liberal patroness of literary merit of every party, procured leave for his return to England.

His important work "The Life of James Duke of Ormond" was published in 1735-6. This work gained him great reputation, especially with the Tory party, and led him to meditate a general history of England, as a counterbalance to the tendency of that of "Rapin de Thoyras," which the Tories charged with error and partiality. In 1744 he was arrested, under a suspension of the habeas corpus act, and examined, on a suspicion of being employed by the Pretender. Nothing, however, appearing against him, he was discharged. The first volume of his history, in folio, concluded with the death of King John, and might have been very well received had not the author materially injured the credit of his work, and his own reputation as a man of sense, by the unnecessary insertion of a note containing the ridiculous story of the cure of Christopher Lovel, who went from Somersetshire to Paris to be touched for the king's evil by the Pretender. Still he proceeded with his work, and published two more volumes in 1750 and 1752, the fourth, which brought down the history to 1654, not appearing until after his death. The character of this work is deservedly very high for useful and elaborate research, for which qualities it has risen greatly in esteem since the obligations of Hume to it have been rendered apparent. Mr. Carte died in April, 1754. He is the author of several works besides those already mentioned. He was a man of indefatigable industry, cheerful and entertaining in conversation, but very slovenly and ungainly in his appearance.

CARTER, ELIZABETH, an English lady of great learning, who was the daughter of Doctor Nicholas Carter, a clergyman in Kent, and was born in 1717. She was educated by her father, and soon became mistress of Latin, Greek, French and German, to which she afterwards added Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Hebrew, and even Arabic. Several of her poetical attempts appeared in the "Gentleman's Magazine" before she attained her seventeenth year, and these procured her much celebrity. In 1739 she translated the critique of Crousaz on "Pope's Essay on Man;" and in the same year gave a translation of "Algarotti's Explanation of Newton's Philosophy, for Ladies." In 1749 she commenced her translation of "Epictetus." In 1791 Miss Carter had an interview with Queen Charlotte, by the queen's own desire, and, during the remainder of her life, occasionally received visits from different members of the royal family, who paid her particular attention. She

died in 1806, in the eighty-ninth year of her age, and lies interred in the burying-ground of Grosvenor chapel.

CARTER, JOHN, an antiquary and architect well known for his topographical illustrations, which materially tended to improve that branch of graphic delineation. As a writer, he was little known beyond the pages of the "Gentleman's Magazine," in which he was often seen as a controversialist. He died September 8th, 1817.

CARTERET, JOHN, earl of Granville, an eminent English statesman, born in 1690. He was the eldest son of George Lord Carteret, whose death put him in possession of that title before he was five years old. He was educated at Westminster School and Christ Church College, Oxford, where he highly distinguished himself by his classical attainments. He was introduced into the house of Peers in 1711, and immediately distinguished himself by zeal for the Hanoverian succession, which raised him in the opinion of George I., by whom he was raised successively to various posts of honour. In 1719 he was sent ambassador to Sweden, and mediated the peace between that country and Denmark. In 1721 he succeeded Craggs as secretary of state, and proved a most able support to the administration by his forcible and eloquent oratory in parliament. In 1723 he accompanied the king to Hanover, and on his return was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland, which kingdom was at that time in a state of great discontent. After an administration which, upon the whole, was not unpopular, he returned to England in 1726; and on the accession of George II. in 1727 was again appointed to the viceroyalty of Ireland, where he conducted affairs until 1730 with great success, conciliating parties, and producing much comparative harmony by his abilities and social talents, in which he was much aided by the countenance and humour of Swift. On his return to England, however, he became a violent opponent to Sir Robert Walpole; and it was Lord Carteret who, in 1741, made the celebrated motion for an address to remove him from the king's presence and councils, exerting all his great eloquence on the occasion. In 1742, when that dismissal was effected, he became secretary of state, and in that capacity supported measures very similar to those which he had censured in Walpole. In 1744, on the death of his mother, he succeeded to the titles of viscount Carteret and earl of Granville, and in a few weeks resigned his seals as secretary of state, unable to resist the patriotic party and the Pelhams, whom he had previously forsaken. It is unnecessary to follow him in the subsequent changes in a life of struggling and vacillating statesmanship. It is sufficient to remark that, although obliged to yield occasionally to stronger interests, he never lost the favour of the house of Hanover, and at last died president of the council in 1763, in the seventy-third year of his age.

CARTOUCHE, LOUIS DOMINIQUE.—The pilfering propensities of this notorious individual, who was born at Paris near the end of the seventeenth century, early showed themselves. Being expelled from school, and afterwards from his father's house, for theft, he joined a band of rogues in Normandy, and then put himself at the head of a numerous company of banditti, over which he exercised the power of life and death. He was first ap-

prehended in a tavern, in 1721, and brought to the Châtelet. On the rack, he named none of his accomplices. But when he arrived at the place of execution, where he was to be broken alive on the wheel, and found that his companions had not assembled to his rescue, he retracted, and named his accomplices to gain a respite. His execution soon followed. Various authors have described his adventurous, and, in some respects, interesting life.

**CARTWRIGHT, EDMUND**, a popular poet, who was born in 1743 in Nottinghamshire. He was brother of Major John Cartwright, the well-known advocate of parliamentary reform, and studied at Oxford. His poems were very popular, and he was one of the principal contributors to the "Monthly Review." He was also distinguished for his mechanical inventions. In 1786 he took out a patent for a weaving machine, for which he obtained from parliament a grant of 10,000*l.*, and was often rewarded with prizes for his inventions. For the last thirty years of his life, he was employed in plans for propelling carriages and boats by steam. He died at an advanced age in 1824.

**CARTWRIGHT, JOHN**, an English gentleman celebrated for his exertions in the cause of political reform. He was born in 1740, at Marnham, Nottinghamshire, of an ancient family. His early education was rather deficient; but he made some progress in mechanics and practical mathematics. He entered the navy, and became a first lieutenant in 1766. In 1774 his attention was turned to politics, and in his "Letters on American Independence," written in that year, he advocated a union between the colonies and the mother state under separate legislatures, and argued this great question on the foundation of natural inherent right, maintaining "that the liberty of man is not derived from charters, but from God, and that it is original in every one." In 1775 he was appointed major of the Nottinghamshire militia, and, after several ineffectual attempts on the part of government to remove him from that post, his dismissal was finally accomplished in 1792, in consequence of an act of parliament. In the American war, Lord Howe was desirous of having him with him in America; but Major Cartwright, although always eager for promotion in the navy, refused the proposal, alleging that he could not fight in a cause which he disapproved.

From this time he devoted himself to the two great objects of annual parliaments and universal suffrage. In 1779 he succeeded in the establishment of a society for constitutional information, and was the author of a "Declaration of Rights," distributed by the society, which Sir William Jones said "ought to be written in letters of gold."

The French revolution was warmly welcomed by Cartwright, as by other friends of liberty. The alliance of the sovereigns, which soon followed, he considered equally irreconcilable with policy and with national justice. The subsequent prosecutions against the friends of reform, the fate of Muir and of Holt, occasioned no small dismay among the people. In the trials of Tooke, Hardy, Thelwall, and others, Cartwright took a great interest, was present as a witness, and displayed much openness, fearlessness, and firmness. By his writings, public addresses, &c., he continued to promote the work of reform and constitutional liberty; and, as late as 1819, he was tried for conspiracy and sedition, for

advising the inhabitants of Birmingham to send what he called their "legislatorial attorney" to the house of commons; but he escaped with a fine of 100*l.* Major Cartwright was not a political reformer only: the plan of making the slave-trade piracy is said to have been first developed in his "Letters on the Slave-Trade." The information which he furnished to Daines Barrington respecting the possibility of approaching the north pole, his plan for a perpetual supply of English oak for the navy, which has since been partially adopted, and several other useful projects and inventions, are sufficient evidences of his enterprise, activity, and diversified knowledge. He died in 1824, in the 84th year of his age. He has been described as alike just in all the relations of life, as a citizen, a politician, a husband, and a friend, disinterested, firm, and fearless; and Fox, upon presenting one of his petitions to the house, remarked, "he is one whose enlightened mind and sound constitutional knowledge place him in the highest rank of public characters, and whose purity of principle and consistency of conduct through life command the most respectful attention to his opinions." The most prominent traits of his character were enterprise, firmness, and perseverance. He was a fruitful writer, quick, ingenious, powerful in argument, and sometimes eloquent, and his language was plain, pure, and strong. A handsome monu-



ment has been erected to the memory of this venerable reformer by public subscription. It is of bronze, and stands in Burton Crescent, where Major Cartwright resided for a considerable portion of his life.

**CARVER, JONATHAN**, an American traveller of considerable celebrity, who was born in Connecticut in 1732. He embraced a military career, and in the French war commanded with reputation a company of provincials, in the expedition across the lakes against Canada. When peace was con-



cluded, in 1763, Captain Carver undertook to explore the vast territory which Great Britain had gained. His object was to acquire a knowledge of the manners, customs, languages, soil, and natural productions of the nations and region beyond the Mississippi, and to ascertain the breadth of the continent by penetrating to the Pacific over its widest part. He accordingly set out from Boston in 1766, and having reached Michillimackinac, the remotest British post, applied to Mr. Rogers, the governor, for an assortment of goods, as presents for the Indians dwelling in the parts through which his course was to be directed. Receiving a portion of the supply which he desired, and a promise that the residue should be sent to him at the falls of St. Anthony, he continued his journey. But, not obtaining the goods at the appointed place, in consequence of their having been disposed of elsewhere by those to whom the governor had entrusted them, he found it necessary to return to La Prairie du Chien. He then, in the beginning of the year 1767, directed his steps northward, with a view of finding a communication from the heads of the Mississippi into Lake Superior, in order to meet, at the grand portage on the north-west side of that lake, the traders that usually come about this season from Michillimackinac, from whom he intended to purchase goods and then to pursue his journey. He reached Lake Superior in good time; but, unfortunately, the traders whom he met there could not furnish him with any goods, as they had barely enough for their own purposes, and, in consequence, he was obliged to return to the place whence he first departed, which he did in October, 1768, after remaining some months on the north and east borders of Lake Superior, and exploring the bays and rivers that empty themselves into that body of water. He soon after repaired to England, with the intention of publishing his journal and charts, and of obtaining a reimbursement for the expenses which he had incurred. Having undergone a long examination before the Lords Commissioners of Trade and Plantations, he received permission to publish his papers; but, when they were nearly ready for the press, an order was issued from the council-board, requiring him to deliver immediately into the plantation-office all his charts and journals. He was, consequently, obliged to re-purchase them at a great expense from the bookseller, to whom he had disposed of them—a loss for which he received no indemnification, but was forced to be satisfied with that obtained for his other expenses. He had fortunately kept copies of his papers, and he published them ten years afterwards in Boston, while in the situation of clerk of a lottery. Having sold his name to a historical compilation, which was published in 1779 in folio, entitled “The New Universal Traveller,” containing an account of all the empires, kingdoms and states in the known world, he was abandoned by those whose duty it was to support him, and died in want of the common necessities of life in 1780, aged forty-eight years. Besides his travels above noticed, Captain Carver published a tract on the culture of tobacco.

CARY, LUCIUS, VISCOUNT FALKLAND, one of those rare characters who serve as proverbial instances of social excellence. He was born about the year 1610, and received part of his education at Trinity College, Dublin, and part at St. John's College, Cambridge. His youth did not pass without

irregularities, but they were suddenly closed by his marriage with a young lady of small fortune, whom he passionately loved. After passing some time abroad he returned home, and devoted himself to a life of retirement and the cultivation of polite literature. In 1633 he was appointed one of the gentlemen of the bedchamber to Charles I., but still chiefly resided at his seat at Burford, near Oxford, which he made a kind of academy of learned men, being continually surrounded by the most eminent men of the neighbouring university. Here it was that Chillingworth composed his celebrated work against Catholicism; and questions of morals, theology, and literature, were discussed with the greatest freedom. Lord Falkland himself was deeply read in works of controversy; but in him they produced only strictness of principle, and an aspiration after perfection, without debasing the man in the exaltation of the scholar. In 1639 he joined the expedition against Scotland; and in 1640 he was chosen member of the House of Commons for Newport in the Isle of Wight. In the first instance, like many of the most honourable characters of the day, he warmly supported the parliament. He spoke with severity against Finch and Strafford, and was so disgusted with the proceedings of Laud that he concurred in the first bill for depriving the bishops of a vote in the House of Lords. A strong attachment, however, to established forms, and some doubts of the ultimate objects of the parliamentary leaders, caused him to retract, and he afterwards strongly opposed the same measure. He still, however, kept at a distance from the court; but his high character rendered it so great an object to gain him over to the king's service that at length he was induced to accept a seat in the council and the office of Secretary of State.

While in office he refused to employ spies or open suspected letters, but he decidedly embraced the party of the king when hostilities commenced, and attended him at the battle of Edge-hill and the siege of Gloucester. A view, however, of the evils impending over the country, and very probably a conviction of sinister objects on both sides, broke his spirits. He would frequently sit abstracted among his friends, and, sighing deeply, exclaim, “Peace, peace!” and exhibit every sign of grief and anxiety. His closing scene almost proves a determination to die in battle, as he volunteered his services at the battle of Newbury without a command, and, putting himself in the front rank of Lord Byron's regiment, was struck from his horse by a musket-shot, and was found the next day dead upon the field. Such was the fate of Lord Falkland, at the age of thirty-four; and while the universal praises he has received are, doubtless, very much owing to the elaborate character drawn of him by his friend Clarendon, there can be no doubt of the strict integrity of his character and intentions. As a man of active talent, he claims little admiration, and was evidently framed for that life of studious retirement and mental culture in which he so much delighted. One of his sayings marks his taste and character: “I pity unlearned gentlemen on a rainy day.”

CASA, GIOVANNI DELLA, an Italian poet and orator, descended from an ancient and noble family of Mugello, near Florence. He was born in 1503, studied at Bologna, Padua, Rome, and entered as an ecclesiastic into the service of the two cardinals Alessandro Farnese, the first of whom, in 1534,

ascended the papal chair, under the name of Paul III. He rose through various offices in the church, till Paul. IV. made him his private secretary. He died probably in 1556. His most celebrated work is "Galateo, or the Art of living in the World," which has been translated into most European languages.

CASANOVA, FRANCIS, a painter celebrated for his skill in depicting battle-pieces. He was born in London 1730, and went while a boy to Venice, where he applied himself to the art of painting. He afterwards obtained admission into the academy in Dresden, and painted several pictures for the prince of Condé. The spirit and liveliness of his colouring and execution cannot be surpassed. At the request of Catherine of Russia, he painted in Vienna a picture representing the victory of this princess over the Turks, which she afterwards put up in her palace. He was constantly occupied with his art, and died at Bruhl, near Vienna, in 1805. His brother John, likewise a painter, was born 1729 at London; died 1795 at Dresden, where he was professor and superintendent in the academy of painting, and had instructed many able pupils in his art.

CASANOVA, JOHN JAMES DE SEIGN-GALT, the brother of Francis Casanova. He was born at Venice in 1725, and is well known by his memoirs as an original and gay-tempered man, who acted an interesting part in all situations, amongst various classes of society, and in all the large cities of Europe. His various adventures are related by himself in a most entertaining manner. His ardent temperament, early developed, soon involved him in many adventures, that served to sharpen his observation and enlarge his knowledge of human nature. He studied law in his sixteenth year, and by that time wrote two dissertations, one "De Testamentis," the other on the question, "Utrum Hebræi possint construere Novas Synagogas." His talent for shining in society introduced him at Venice into the select circles, in which a refined but frivolous tone of manners prevailed. The patriarch of Venice gave him the inferior ordination, and his first sermon was received with general applause. But he failed in his second, and from this period commences his restless career, in which he became entangled in a series of adventures that can be understood only from his memoirs. He was arrested in Venice, and came into personal contact with Pope Benedict XIV. at Rome, went to Constantinople, was in the military service at Corfu, and in short visited all the principal cities of Europe, being continually connected with the highest personages, was followed and caressed till at last he accompanied the count of Waldstein to Dux in Bohemia, where he became his librarian. He died at Vienna in 1803. The escape of Casanova from the lead prisons of Venice was managed with admirable address and ingenuity. He has left several works in Italian and French, which give proof of the great powers of this Proteus, though he was more at home in the bustling world than in the pursuits of learning.

CASAS, BARTHOLOMEW DE LAS, a Spanish prelate, who was born at Seville in 1474, and in his nineteenth year accompanied his father, who sailed with Columbus to the West Indies. Five years afterwards he returned to Spain, and, pursuing his studies, entered the ecclesiastical order. He again accompanied Columbus in his second voyage to

Hispaniola, and, on the conquest of Cuba, settled there, and distinguished himself by his humane conduct towards the oppressed natives, of whom he became, in a manner, the patron. He set at liberty the Indians who had fallen to his share in the division; and so much was he interested for them that, in 1516, he went to Spain to lay a statement of their case before King Ferdinand, whose death, at that time, prevented any measures for their redress. The regent, Cardinal Ximenes, however, appointed a commission to examine circumstances upon the spot, and to determine accordingly. Las Casas was to accompany them, with the title of "protector of the Indians." The commissioners found that it was impossible to liberate the Indians, and therefore endeavoured to secure them humane treatment; but Las Casas, still dissatisfied, remonstrated so warmly that he was obliged to take refuge in a convent from the rage of the planters. He again returned to Europe, and, on the accession of Charles V., in consequence of his representations the council appointed a chief judge to re-examine the points of controversy between the partisans of Indian liberty and the colonists. Las Casas, by a singular inconsistency in his zeal for the Indians, became the author of the slave-trade, by proposing to purchase negroes from the Portuguese in Africa, to supply the planters with labourers, of the want of whom they complained; and this was unfortunately put into execution.

He next applied for a grant of an unoccupied tract, in order to try his own plan with a new colony. This he at length obtained, and with 200 persons, whom he persuaded to accompany him, landed at Porto Rico in 1521, but found that an expedition was advancing to ravage this very tract and convey its inhabitants to Hispaniola as slaves. He endeavoured in vain to prevent the threatened danger, and, with the few who still adhered to him, returned to Hispaniola to solicit succour. During his absence, the natives attacked the colonists with such success that, in a short time, not a Spaniard remained in that part of South America. Las Casas, in despair at the failure of his project, retired to the Dominican convent at St. Domingo, and assumed the habit of the order. Notwithstanding his retirement, his zeal in the cause of the Indians did not abate; and, on being sent on a mission to Spain by a chapter of his order at Chiapa, in 1542, he pleaded their cause with his pristine warmth, and composed his celebrated treatise "Brevissima Relacion de la Destruccion des Indes," in which he exposed the cruelties practised by the Spaniards. His unremitting perseverance at length obtained a new code of laws and regulations, by which the natives were greatly relieved. In 1544 he returned to America as bishop of Chiapa, and continued there until 1551, when he resigned his bishopric, and again returned to Spain. He died at Madrid in 1556, in the ninety-second year of his age. Besides the treatise above-named, he was also the author of a treatise in Latin on the question, "Whether sovereigns may in conscience, by virtue of any right, alienate their subjects from their crown, and transfer them to the dominion of any other lord," which difficult question he treats with great freedom, spirit, and delicacy. He also composed several works which have never been published, among which is a "General History of the Indies," which was a great assistance to Anto-



nio de Herrera in his "History." All his works evince profound learning, and solid judgment, and piety; and, notwithstanding his great inconsistency in regard to the negroes, he must be regarded as a very benevolent man and a lover of mankind.

CASAUBON, ISAAC DE, commonly called *Casaubonus*. This learned critic was born on the 18th of February, 1559, at Geneva, and was educated by his father, a clergyman. In his nineteenth year he entered the university at Geneva, where he studied jurisprudence, theology, and the Oriental languages, and in 1582 succeeded Portus as professor of the Greek language. He here married the daughter of Henry Stephens, and published every year editions of Greek and Latin authors, with critical notes and translations. In 1596 he accepted a professorship of Greek and belles lettres at Montpellier, but held it only two years. His religious principles, the jealousy of the other professors, and perhaps his rather unyielding character, were the cause of many unpleasant occurrences, for which, however, he was indemnified by the office of royal librarian. After the death of Henry IV. he followed Sir Henry Wotton, envoy extraordinary from James I., to England, where he was received with distinction, had two benefices and a pension conferred on him, and died in London, in July, 1614. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. Casaubon was a liberal theologian, a man of extensive learning, a good translator, and an excellent critic. As a critic, he has commented on Diogenes Laertius, Aristotle, Theophrastus, Suetonius, Persius, Polybius, Theophrastus, Strabo, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, Athenæus, Pliny the Younger, &c. Nearly all the ancient classics are indebted to his valuable researches.

CASSANDER, GEORGE.—This learned individual was born in 1515, in the island of Cadsand, or Cassand, near Bruges, in the Netherlands, from which he received his name, and is celebrated for his endeavours to settle the disputes between religious parties. At Bruges, Ghent, and Cologne, he studied, and taught philology, the canon law, and catholic theology, but accepted no public office on account of his ill health. In 1561 he published a work designed to allay religious disputes, in which his censure of Calvin for his violence and intolerance drew upon him the attacks both of Calvin and Beza. The Emperor Ferdinand I. invited him to Vienna, to compose articles of union between the catholics and protestants. These he published under Maximilian II., the successor of Ferdinand. "De Articulis Religionis inter Catholicos et Protestantos Controversiæ ad Imp. Ferd. I., et Max. II., Consultatio, ed. Hug. Grot. Though a sincere catholic, he founded his opinions on the doctrines of the old Christian fathers, and showed his concurrence with the protestants, in regard to fundamental doctrines, by proposing communion under both forms, the marriage of priests, the abolition of image-worship, the reform of many abuses, and a modification of the catholic system. But he asserted the supremacy of the pope, supported the doctrine of transubstantiation, and the importance of the sacrament, *ex opere operato*. He died at Cologne in 1566, with the reputation of a learned and liberal theologian.

CASLON, WILLIAM.—This eminent type-founder was born in 1692. He served his apprenticeship to an engraver of ornaments on gun-barrels, and afterwards followed this trade in the neighbourhood of the Minorities. He did not, however, con-

fine his ingenuity to that instrument, but likewise exerted it in making tools for book-binders, and also in chasing of silver plate. Whilst he was engaged in this business, the elder Bowyer, the printer, accidentally seeing the lettering of a book executed in a style of great neatness, was induced to seek acquaintance with the artist, whom he took shortly after to the foundry of Mr. James in Bartholomew Close. Though Caslon had never before seen any part of the process of letter-founding, yet, being asked whether he could undertake to cut types, he requested a day to consider it, and then signified that he entertained no doubt but he could. Upon this answer Messrs. Bowyer, Bettenham, and Watts, satisfied as to his capability, lent him 500*l.* to commence the undertaking, and to which he applied himself with equal assiduity and success.

Incited by the representations of a native of Damascus, named Solomon Negri, who was well skilled in the oriental tongues, and who had been professor of Arabic in some places of note, the Society of Promoting Christian Knowledge deemed it expedient to print in 1720, for the use of the Eastern Churches, the New Testament and Psalter in the Arabic language. Caslon was selected as the fittest artist to cut this fount; and, in his specimens of it, he distinguished it by the characteristic name of English Arabic.

After he had finished his fount, he cut the letters of his own name in Pica Roman, and placed them at the bottom of one of the specimens. The name being seen by Mr. Palmer, he advised Caslon to cut the whole fount of Pica. This was forthwith effected by him. Palmer, however, requiring credit with founders whose business would have suffered from our artist's superiority, now regretted the first advice he had given him, and endeavoured to discourage him from any further progress. Disgusted at this mode of proceeding towards him, Mr. Caslon at once applied to his old friend Bowyer, under whose inspection he cut, during 1722, the beautiful fount of English letter which was used in printing Selden's works, and the Coptic types employed for Dr. Wilkins's edition of the Pentateuch. He proceeded vigorously in his art, so that at length he not only superseded the necessity of importing types from Holland, but attained to such perfection as caused the productions of his workmanship to be sought on the continent itself.

Caslon's original foundry was carried on in a small house in Helmet Row, Old Street, whence he removed into Ironmonger Row, and about 1735 into Chiswell Street. Having now acquired both opulence and fame, he was put into the commission of the peace for the county of Middlesex. Towards the latter part of his life his eldest son, likewise named William, being in partnership with him, he retired, in a great measure, from an active participation in business. His last residence was at Bethnal Green, where he died, January the 23rd, 1766, aged seventy-four years. His remains were interred in the church-yard of St. Luke, Middlesex, in which parish all his different foundries were situated.

CASSINI, JAMES, a celebrated French astronomer, was born at Paris February 18, 1677. He was the youngest son of John Dominic Cassini.

After his first studies in his father's house, he was sent to study philosophy at the Mazarine College,

where the celebrated Varignon was then professor of mathematics. From the assistance of this eminent man young Cassini profited so well that at fifteen years of age he supported a mathematical thesis with great honour. At the age of seventeen he was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences; and the same year he accompanied his father in a journey to Italy, where he assisted him in the verification of the meridian at Bologna and other measurements. On his return he performed similar operations in a journey into Holland, where he discovered some errors in the measure of the earth by Snell, the result of which was communicated to the Academy in 1702. He made also a visit to this country in 1696, where he was made a member of the Royal Society. In 1712 he succeeded his father as astronomer royal at the observatory of Paris. In 1717 he gave to the academy his researches on the distance of the fixed stars, in which he showed that the whole annual orbit, of nearly 200,000,000 of miles diameter, is but as a point in comparison of that distance. The same year he communicated also his discoveries respecting the inclination of the orbits of the satellites in general, and especially of those of Saturn's satellites and ring. In 1725 he undertook to determine the cause of the moon's libration.

In 1732 an important question in astronomy exercised the ingenuity of Cassini. His father had determined by his observations that the planet Venus revolved about her axis in the space of twenty-three hours; and M. Bianchini had published a work in 1729 in which he settled the period of the same revolution at twenty-four days eight hours. From an examination of Bianchini's observations, which were upon the spots in Venus, he discovered that he had intermitted his observations for the space of three hours, from which cause he had probably mistaken new spots for the old ones, and so had been led into the mistake. The probability is that both had fallen into some mistake, or that they had proceeded on very different principles; for otherwise such different results are wholly unaccountable. Our author, after he had convicted Bianchini, as he thought, of error, determined the nature and quantity of the acceleration of the motion of Jupiter at half a second per year, and of that of the retardation of Saturn at two minutes per year; that these quantities would go on increasing for 2000 years, and then would decrease again. In 1740 he published his "Astronomical Tables," and his "Elements of Astronomy," both very extensive and accurate works.

Although astronomy was the principal object of his consideration, yet he did not confine himself absolutely to that branch, but made occasional experiments on electricity, on the recoil of fire-arms, on the rise of the mercury in the barometer at different heights above the level of the sea, on the perfecting of burning glasses, and other memoirs.

The French Academy had properly judged that one of its most important objects was the measurement of the earth. In 1669 Picard measured a little more than a degree of latitude to the north of Paris; but, as that extent appeared too small from which to conclude the whole circumference with sufficient accuracy, it was resolved to continue that measurement on the meridian of Paris to the north and the south, through the whole extent of the

country. Accordingly, in 1683 the late M. de la Hire continued that on the north side of Paris, and the elder Cassini that on the south side. The latter was assisted in 1700 in the continuation of this operation by his son. The same work was further continued by the same academicians; and, finally, the part left unfinished by De la Hire in the north was finished in 1718 by Cassini, with the late Maraldi and De la Hire.

These operations produced a considerable degree of precision. It appeared also, from this measured extent of six degrees, that the degrees were of different lengths in different parts of the meridian. He also measured the perpendicular to the same meridian, and compared the measured distance with the differences of longitude as before determined by the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, whence he concluded that the length of the degrees of longitude was smaller than it would be on a sphere, and that, therefore, again the figure of the earth was an oblong spheroid, contrary to the determination of Newton by the theory of gravity. Though Newton was of all men the most averse to controversy, the other mathematicians in Britain did not tamely submit to conclusions in direct opposition to the fundamental doctrine of a philosopher of whose talents the nation was justly proud. The consequence was that the French government sent two different sets of measurers, the one to measure a degree at the equator, the other at the polar circle; and the comparison of the whole determined the figure to be an oblate spheroid, contrary to Cassini's determination.

After a long and laborious life, James Cassini died in April 1756 in consequence of a fall. He published "A Treatise on the Magnitude and Figure of the Earth;" as also, "The Elements or Theory of the Planets, with Tables," besides a considerable number of papers in the memoirs of the academy.

CASSINI DE THURY, CÆSAR FRANÇOIS, a celebrated French astronomer, a director of the observatory, pensioner astronomer, and member of most of the learned societies of Europe, was born at Paris, June 17, 1714. He was the second son of James Cassini, whose occupations and talents he inherited and supported with great honour. He received his first lessons in astronomy and mathematics from MM. Maraldi and Camus, and made such a rapid progress that when he was not more than ten years of age he calculated the phases of a total eclipse of the sun. At the age of eighteen he accompanied his father in his two journeys undertaken for drawing the perpendicular to the observatory meridian from Strasbourg to Brest. From that time a general chart of France was devised, for which purpose it was necessary to traverse the country by several lines parallel and perpendicular to the meridian of Paris, and the young Cassini was charged with the conducting of this business. This great work was published in 1740, with a chart showing the new meridian of Paris, by two different series of triangles, passing along the sea coasts to Bayonne, traversing the frontiers of Spain to the Mediterranean, and thence along the eastern limits of France to Dunkirk, with parallel and perpendicular lines described at the distance of 6000 toises from one another, from side to side of the country.

A tour which in 1741 M. Cassini made in Flanders, in the train of the king, gave rise, at his majesty's instance, to the chart of France, relative



to which Cassini published different works, as well as a great number of the sheets of the chart itself. In 1761 he undertook an expedition into Germany, for the purpose of continuing to Vienna the perpendicular of the Paris meridian, to unite the triangles of the chart of France with the points taken in Germany, to prepare the means of extending into that country the same plan as in France, and thus to establish successively for all Europe a perfect uniformity of measurement. M. Cassini was at Vienna on the 6th of June 1761, the day of the transit of the planet Venus over the sun, of which he observed as much as the state of the weather would permit him to do, and published the account of it.

Between the years 1735 and 1770, M. Cassini published, in the volumes of "*Memoirs of the French Academy*," a great number of papers, consisting chiefly of astronomical observations and questions.

M. Cassini possessed a very strong constitution, which carried him through the many laborious operations in geography and astronomy which he conducted. His life was at length terminated by the small-pox, on the 4th of September 1784, in the seventy-first year of his age.

**CASSINI, JOHN DOMINIC**, an eminent astronomer, who was born at Piedmont in 1634. He received the rudiments of his education at home, but completed his studies in a college of Jesuits at Genoa. In 1575 a meridian had been drawn by Ignatio Dante, in the church of St. Petronia in Bologna, and in 1653 Cassini formed the idea of extending and correcting it. In two years he completed this difficult task, the first-fruits of which were more correct tables of the sun, a more precise determination of its parallax, and an excellent table of refractions. By an observation at Città della Piave, he discovered the shadows cast by the satellites of Jupiter on the disk of that planet, when they are between it and the sun. By means of these, he corrected his theory of the motion of the satellites, and determined the period of Jupiter's revolution. At the same time he made a number of observations on insects, which were published by Aldrovandi. In 1673 Colbert prevailed on him to settle in France. He discovered four new satellites of Saturn, and the zodiacal light, proved that the axis of the moon is not perpendicular to the plane of the ecliptic, and showed the causes of her libration. The laws of this motion, which he determined with much accuracy, was one of his finest discoveries. He also wrote observations on the Indian calendar. The meridian commenced by Picard and Lahire was continued by Cassini in 1700 to the extreme limits of Roussillon, and, when measured 100 years later, showed a difference of only twenty-one toises. He died Sept. 14, 1712, having lost his sight some years before.

**CASSIODORUS, MARCUS AURELIUS**.—This eminent scholar was born in Calabria, about the year 497. He early in life entered into the service of Theodoric, king of the Goths, who first made him governor of Sicily; and, when he had sufficiently proved his abilities and prudence in the administration of that province, admitted him afterwards to his cabinet-councils, and appointed him to be his secretary. After this he had all the places and honours at his command which Theodoric had to bestow; and, having passed through all the employments of the government, was raised to the con-

sulate, which he administered alone in the year 514. He was continued in the same degree of confidence and favour by Athalaric, who succeeded Theodoric about the year 524; but afterwards, in the year 537, being discarded from all his offices by king Vitiges, he renounced a secular life, and retired into a monastery of his own founding in the extreme parts of Calabria. Here he led the life of a man of letters, a philosopher, and a Christian. He entertained himself with forming and improving several curious pieces of mechanism, such as sun-dials, water-clocks, perpetual lamps, &c. He collected a very valuable library, which he enlarged and improved by several books of his own composing. About the year 556 he wrote two books, "*De Divinis Lectionibus*;" and afterwards a book "*De Orthographia*," in the preface to which he tells us that he was then in his ninety-third year. There are extant of his twelve books of letters, ten of which he wrote as secretary of state. The best edition of his works was published by Rohan, in 1679, and they form valuable data for the student in gospel history.

**CASTAGNO, ANDREA DEL**, an eminent Italian painter, who was born at the village of Castagno in Tuscany in 1409. Being deprived when young of his parents, who were extremely poor, he was employed by his uncle to attend the cattle in the fields, and in that situation, by his surprising and untutored essays in the art, attracted the notice of Bernardetto de Medici, who placed him under the tuition of one of the best masters Florence then afforded. At first he painted only in distemper and fresco, and was in high reputation when Domenico Venetiano visited Florence, who had learned from Antonello da Messina the new method of painting in oil and varnish, till then unknown in Tuscany. The splendour of this new mode of colouring was very much admired, and, by a pretended friendship for Domenico, Castagno obtained his secret from him; but, not satisfied with this, he desired to be the sole possessor, and determined to murder his friend and benefactor. This he effected without any suspicion, and continued to practise his ill-acquired art with great success. The real author of this atrocious act was never discovered until Andrea made a full confession of his guilt, shortly before his death, which took place in 1480. The best of his remaining works are at Florence, in the church of St. Lucia de Magnoli, and in the monastery degli Angeli.

**CASTELL, EDMUND**.—This eminent English divine was born at Hatley in 1606. In 1621 we find him at Emanuel College, Cambridge, and he soon gave great promise of his future eminence. He afterwards removed to St. John's College, for the convenience of the library there, which was of great service to him in compiling his great work, the "*Lexicon Heptaglotton*." In due course he took the several degrees of bachelor and master of arts, and of bachelor and doctor in divinity; and the fame of his learning occasioned his being chosen a member of the Royal Society. His "*Lexicon Heptaglotton*" cost him the assiduous labour of eighteen years, but his unwearied diligence in this undertaking injured his health, and impaired his constitution. Besides this, the work was the entire ruin of his fortune; for he spent upon it upwards of 12,000*l*. The truth of the fact is positively asserted by Mr. Hearne, whose authority

for it was a letter which he had under Dr. Castelli's own hand; and Hearne pathetically and justly complains that our author should meet with so very poor a reward for his incredible and indeed Herculean labours. The doctor, in 1666, having wasted his patrinony and incurred heavy debts, was reduced to extreme distress; when, probably in consideration of his learned labours and disinterested generosity, he was in that year made king's chaplain and Arabic professor at Cambridge; and in 1668 he obtained a prebend of Canterbury. In the next year he published his "Lexicon Heptaglotton;" but the publication procured him no compensation for his large expenses and his indefatigable diligence. The copies of the book lay almost entirely unsold upon his hands. He received, indeed, some additional preferments; but they were by no means sufficient to recompense him for his great losses. The small vicarage of Hatfield Peverell in Essex was bestowed upon him; and he was afterwards presented to the rectory of Wodeham Waller in the same county. His last preferment, which was towards the close of his life, was the rectory of Higham Gobion in Bedfordshire.

CASTI, GIAMBATTISTA, a celebrated poet, born in 1721 at Prato, in the vicinity of Florence. He studied at Montefiascone, and became professor there. Receiving an invitation from the prince of Rosenberg, who became acquainted with him in Florence, he went to Vienna, and was presented to Joseph II., who knew how to appreciate the genius of the poet, and delighted in his conversation. Casti took advantage of every opportunity of visiting other courts, and joined several embassies without office or title. Catharine II. received him in the most flattering manner. He visited also the court of Berlin and several other German courts. After his return to Vienna, Prince Rosenberg, the director of the imperial theatre, caused him to be appointed *poeta Cæsareo* on the death of Metastasio. After the death of Joseph II., Casti requested his dismissal, and retired to Florence, where he wrote many of his works. In 1783 he went to Paris. Notwithstanding his advanced age, the vigour and activity of his mind were still unimpaired, and his vivacity, his *naïveté*, seasoned by a delicate irony, and his knowledge of the world, made his conversation very attractive. At the same time he was remarkable for the firmness of his character and the regularity of his habits. He died suddenly on the 6th of February, 1803, at the age of eighty-two. His "Novelle Galanti" were republished at Paris, in 1804, under the title "Novelle di Giamb. Casti," in three volumes. They are forty-eight in number. Almost all are of a licentious character, but written in a lively, original, and graceful style. The same may be said of his didactic-satirical poem, "Gli Animali parlanti, Poema epico, diviso in 26 Canti, di Giamb. Casti," published at Milan in 1802, which he wrote between 1792 and 1799, and which did not receive the attention it deserves until the present day, probably because people formerly feared to speak openly on the bitter truths which it contains. There are two translations of it in French and one in German. It has been also translated into English by Mr. Rose. Casti's "Rime Anacreontiche" are pleasing, and his comic operas "La Grotta di Trofonio," and "Il Re Teodoro in Venezia," &c., are full of wit and originality.

CASTIGLIONE BALTHAZAR.—This eminent

Italian nobleman was born at Casatico, December 6, 1478. At eighteen years of age he entered into the service of Lewis Sforza, duke of Milan; but his father dying soon after, and some disastrous circumstances overtaking that state, he was obliged to quit the camp and return to Mantua. He engaged a second time in the service of the duke, and distinguished himself much by his bravery and conduct; but returning soon after, and being desirous to see other courts, particularly that of Rome, he went thither at the very time that Julius II. obtained the popedom. His fame was not unknown to this pontiff, who wrote to Guido Ubaldo, duke of Urbino, his cousin, requesting him to send him to the court of Rome, in his own name, with the character of a public minister.

Castiglione was twenty-six years of age, when Guido Ubaldo sent him ambassador to Pope Julius, to transact affairs of the highest importance. He was sent upon a second embassy to Louis XII. of France, and upon a third to Henry VII. of England, whither he went to be invested with the order of the garter, as proxy for the duke his master. On his arrival in England he was received with every mark of honour and esteem, being met at the port where he landed by the earl of Huntingdon, who was then lord of the bed-chamber, accompanied by many other lords and a king at arms. After he had despatched his business here and was returning home, to gratify the importunities of Alfonso Ariosto, his particular friend, he began his celebrated work, "The Courtier," which in a small space of time he completed at Rome, in March 1516. From this work we may perceive how intimate he was with the Greek and Latin authors, having here gleaned together the first flowers of their wit, and treasured up, as it were, in a single cabinet, the richest jewels of antiquity. Paul Jovius says that if Castiglione had lived the pope intended to have made him a cardinal; and after his death, in two of his holiness's briefs, both of condolence to his mother, there are the strongest expressions of his unblemished fidelity and devotion to the see of Rome. His constitution was much impaired with the continual fatigues, civil as well as military, in which he had always been engaged; and, falling at length sick at Toledo, he died February 2, 1529. The emperor, who was then at Toledo, was extremely grieved, and commanded all the prelates and lords of his court to attend his corpse to the principal church there; and the funeral offices were celebrated by the archbishop with such solemnity and pomp as was never permitted to any one before, the princes of the blood excepted. Sixteen months after his body was removed by his mother from Toledo to Mantua, and interred in a church of her own building, where a sumptuous monument was raised and a Latin epitaph inscribed, which was written by Cardinal Bembo. Besides his incomparable book the "Courtier," he composed many Latin and Tuscan poems, which, with some of his letters, are placed at the end of the English version of the "Courtier," published at London in 1727. The translation was made by A. P. Castiglione, a gentleman of the same family who lived here in England, under the patronage of Edmund Gibson, bishop of London. The Italian is printed with it, and before the whole is prefixed the life of the author.

CAT, CLAUDE NICHOLAS LE, a distinguished French surgeon and anatomist, who was a



native of Picardy. In 1731 he obtained the reversion of the office of chief surgeon to the hospital at Rouen, and in 1733 he settled in that city. His great talents procured him the honour of being chosen a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, the Royal Society of London, and several other scientific institutions. In 1766 the king bestowed on him letters of nobility, having previously granted him a pension. Le Cat died in 1768. He left behind him many valuable works.

**CATESBY, MARK**, a learned English naturalist born in 1680. An early love of nature induced him to quit England and go to North America, where he resided for many years. His principal work is entitled "The Natural History of Canada, Florida, and the Bahama Isles." The first volume, containing 100 plates, was dated 1731, and the second, with the same number of plates, 1743: and in 1748 an appendix was published with twenty plates. Mr. Catesby died in 1749.

**CATHARINE I.**, empress of Russia.—The early history of this remarkable woman is uncertain. According to some accounts she was the daughter of a Catholic peasant in Lithuania, by name Samuel, for he had (as is frequently the case there) no family name. It is said that she was born in 1686, named Martha, and placed by her poor parents in the service of a Lutheran clergyman, named Daut, at Roop, in the circle of Riga, where she imbibed the principles of the Protestant religion. She then removed to Marienburg, a small village in the circle of Wenden, and entered the service of a clergyman named Glück, who caused her to be instructed in the Lutheran religion. Here she was married to a Swedish dragoon. But, a few days after, he was obliged to repair to the field, and the Russians, within a short period, took Marienburg, in 1702. Martha fell into the hands of General Scheremetjeff, who relinquished her to Prince Menzikoff. While in his possession, she was seen by Peter the Great, who made her his mistress. She became a proselyte to the Greek church, and assumed the name of Catharine Alexievna. In 1708 and 1709 she bore the emperor the princesses Anna and Elizabeth, the first of whom became the duchess of Holstein by marriage, and mother of Peter III. The second became empress of Russia. In 1713 the emperor publicly acknowledged her his wife, and she was subsequently proclaimed empress, and crowned in Moscow. Besides the daughters above-named, she bore the emperor five more children, all of whom died early. The princesses Anna and Elizabeth were declared legitimate. By her kindness, by her perseverance, and, above all, by her intelligence, she gained possession of the heart of the emperor; and when Peter, with his army, seemed irreparably lost on the Pruth, in 1711, Catharine, in connection with Osterman and Schaffiroff, endeavoured to win over the grand vizier; and having succeeded, by bribing his confidant with her jewels, she disclosed her plan to the emperor, who gave it his approbation, and was soon relieved. She afterwards received many proofs of the gratitude of her husband. Peter even deemed her worthy of being his successor. But, in the latter part of 1724, she fell under his displeasure. Her chamberlain Mons, with whom Peter had found her *tête-à-tête*, was beheaded, on pretence that he had been bribed by the enemies of Russia; and she was obliged to view the head of Mons nailed

to a gibbet. This, however, is only an anecdote, and the affair of Mons remains a mystery.

Menzikoff, who had always manifested much attachment for her, had now been in disgrace for some time, and Peter had very frequent attacks of bodily pain, which were interrupted by dreadful explosions of rage. These circumstances made Catharine's situation critical, and her anticipations of the future must have been the more melancholy as the emperor had uttered some threats of a change in the succession to her disadvantage. To prevent such an event, she applied to Menzikoff; and by the prudence of Jaguschinski, who then enjoyed the favour of Peter, and whom she gained over, a reconciliation was effected with the emperor. The empress and the favourite were labouring to confirm their improving prospects when Peter the Great died, on the 28th of January, 1725. Catharine, Menzikoff, and Jaguschinski considered it necessary to keep the death of the emperor secret, until, by judicious arrangements, they had secured the succession of the throne to the empress. Theophanes, archbishop of Plescow, swore before the people and troops that Peter, on his death-bed, had declared Catharine alone worthy to succeed him in the government. She was then proclaimed empress and autocrat of all the Russias, and the oath of allegiance to her was taken anew. At first, the cabinet pursued the plans of Peter, and, under Menzikoff's management, the administration was conducted with considerable ability. But the pernicious influence of favourites was soon felt, and great errors crept into the administration. Catharine died suddenly on the 17th of May, 1727, in the forty-second year of her age. Her death was probably hastened by excess in the use of Tokay wine and ardent spirits.

**CATHARINE II.**, empress of Russia.—This extraordinary princess may be said to have created the empire of which she was so long the sovereign; at least she gave to it political institutions, and was a great patron of science and literature. Catharine was, however, licentious; and her pursuit of pleasure was but little controlled either by religious or moral considerations. Her real name was Sophia Augusta Frederica, but, upon her marriage to the grandson of Peter the Great, she assumed the name Catharina Alexievna. Her father was Christian Augustus, prince of Anhalt Zerbst-Dornburg, at that time major-general in the Prussian service, commander-in-chief of the regiments of infantry, and governor of the town and fortress of Strettin. Her mother, who was princess of Holstein, was a woman of great intellectual acquirements. This accomplished princess took upon herself the care of educating the young Sophia, whom she brought up in the simplest manner, and would not suffer to exhibit the least symptoms of that pride to which she had some propensity from her earliest childhood.

The empress Elizabeth, who then swayed the sceptre of Russia, had in early life been promised in marriage to the young prince of Holstein-Eutin, brother to the princess of Anhalt Zerbst; but, at the instant when the marriage was about to be celebrated, the prince fell sick and died. Elizabeth, who loved him to excess, became inconsolable, and in the bitterness of her grief made a vow of celibacy; and upon her ascending the throne of her ancestors she called her nephew the duke of Holstein Gottorp to her court, where he was solemnly proclaimed, when

fourteen years of age, grand duke, with the title of Imperial Highness, and declared successor to the empress Elizabeth. To secure the succession in the family of Peter the Great, the empress was very desirous to have her nephew married; and the princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, not ignorant of the tender remembrance which she still preserved for her brother, conceived the idea of placing, by means of it, her daughter on the throne of Russia. She communicated her plan to the king of Prussia, who not only applauded it, but lent her his assistance to carry it into execution.

Full of ambitious hopes, therefore, the princess repaired with her daughter to St. Petersburg, where she was received with friendship by Elizabeth, and where the young Sophia soon made a considerable impression on the mind of the grand duke. As Peter was well made, of a good figure, and, though uneducated, not destitute of natural talents, the attachment became reciprocal; and the princess of Zerbst, throwing herself at the feet of the empress, assured her that the two lovers were attached to each other by a passion unconquerable; and, calling to her mind the love which she had herself borne to the prince of Holstein, conjured her to promote the happiness of that prince's niece. The stratagem succeeded. The choice of Elizabeth was next day announced to the council and to the foreign ministers; and preparations were made for celebrating the marriage with a magnificence worthy of the heir of the throne of the Russias. In the mean time the grand duke was seized with the small-pox, from which, though he recovered, it was with such a change of features as rendered him, from being comely, almost hideous, and converted the love of the young princess of Anhalt, if indeed she ever felt for him that passion, into horror and disgust. She was not, however, of a disposition to let a disfigured countenance frighten her from a throne. She embraced the Greek religion, changed her name from Sophia Augusta Frederica to Catharina Alexievna, and with the entire approbation of Elizabeth was married to her nephew the grand duke.

For some time this ill-matched pair lived together, though without love, yet on terms apparently decent; but a mutual dislike gradually took place between them, which the courtiers quickly discovered, and were at pains to foment into hatred. Peter was now ugly, and his mind was uninformed. Catharine, if not a beauty, was at least a lovely woman, and highly accomplished. She could find no entertainment in his conversation, and he felt himself degraded by her superiority. A faction was formed at court, headed by the great chancellor Bestucheff, to exclude the grand duke from the throne, and to place Catharine at the head of affairs; and, to accomplish this end, every art was employed to fill the feeble mind of the empress with jealousies of her nephew, and with a contempt of his character. He was represented at one time as extremely ambitious and capable of the most daring enterprises to get immediate possession of the throne, and at another as a wretch given up to drunkenness and to every unprincipally vice.

The consequence of the first of these accusations was that he was kept at a distance from his aunt, and a stranger to public affairs; and, being wholly unemployed, that time which his education had not fitted him to fill up with reading, reflection, and

rational conversation, hung so heavy on his mind that it was no difficult matter for those dissipated young men who were placed about him for that very purpose to initiate him in the habits of drunkenness and the other mean practices to which it was pretended he had long been devoted. In such a school it was no wonder that he became a proficient in grovelling dissipation, or that being unpolished, and even of rude manners, he chose for his companions some of the lowest of the people.



Catharine was fond of pleasure, as a reference to her portrait would evidently imply; but it was that comparatively refined pleasure which she had enjoyed at the court of Berlin. She loved balls and music, and could take no share in the drunken revels of Peter. Among the young men with whom he was surrounded, his chamberlain Soltikoff was particularly remarked for the elegance of his taste and the graces of his person. Success had made him confident and ambitious, and his ambition prompted him to aspire at making a conquest even of the grand duchess. By studying her taste, and contriving to amuse her, he was at last successful; but he enjoyed not his fortune with moderation, and his enemies contrived to get him placed in an honourable office at a distance from the court. He was commissioned to repair to Stockholm, with the title of envoy extraordinary, to notify to the king of Sweden the birth of Paul Petrovitch, which occurred October 1, 1754. The presumptuous Soltikoff, proud of the employment, set off with haste to Sweden, and left it with equal speed. But scarcely had he quitted Stockholm when he was stopped on the road by a courier, who put into his hands an order for him to go immediately to Hamburgh, and there to reside in the quality of minister plenipotentiary from the court of Russia.

Catharine for some time preserved her attachment to the exiled chamberlain; but all at once the presence of a stranger, whom fortune had brought to the court of Russia, made her forget the man whom she no longer saw. This person was Stanislaus Ponia-



towsky, the last king of Poland, who first made his appearance at St. Petersburg in the train of the British ambassador, and very quickly gained the affections of the grand duchess. In carrying on this intrigue, the parties were not so cautious as to deceive the eyes of the courtiers, who reported to the empress not only all that they saw, but whatever they suspected. Elizabeth was incensed, and commanded Poniatowsky to quit without delay the dominions of Russia. The accomplished Pole obeyed; but soon returned clothed with a character which made him in some degree independent of the empress.

The count de Brühl, then prime minister to the king of Poland, saw of what importance it was to his master to have a powerful interest at the court of Russia. He was likewise no stranger to the feelings which the grand duchess entertained for Poniatowsky; and, having got that nobleman decorated with the order of the White Eagle, he sent him back to St. Petersburg in the quality of minister plenipotentiary from the republic and king of Poland. Nor was this all that Brühl did to further their views. Being informed by the chancellor Bestucheff that the grand duke and grand duchess were languishing in a penury unworthy of their rank, he remitted to Poniatowsky 6000 ducats, to be employed in such a manner as he might judge best for securing the favour of the prince and his consort. The ambassador profited by these counsels and benefactions. He was already sure of the grand duchess, and he very quickly gained the favour of her husband. He talked English and German with him; drank, smoked, abused the French, and extolled the king of Prussia with unlimited praise.

The grand duchess was so blinded by her passion that she was never without Poniatowsky in her company. She devoted to him the whole of her time; and she made this intimacy so little a secret that public report was loud to her prejudice. In the mean time she was delivered of the princess Anne, who lived only fifteen months. The grand duke was the only person about court who seemed to know nothing of what was passing. His whole time was occupied in copying, with servile affectation, the air, the manners, the tone of the king of Prussia, and in dressing a little army at Oranienbaum in the Prussian uniform. His eyes, however, were at last opened. Some of the courtiers, from hatred to the chancellor, who countenanced the intrigue between the grand duchess and the Polish ambassador, roused his jealousy in order to destroy their enemy. They succeeded. He forbade his wife to be seen with Poniatowsky, and prevailed with the empress to deprive the chancellor of his office, and to banish him to an estate which he had 120 versts beyond Moscow.

The empress afterwards took the grand duchess again into favour, and it is thought that, had she lived a little longer than she did, she would have excluded Peter from the throne, and declared Paul her immediate successor.

Whilst the empress was meditating the aggrandisement of the young prince and his mother, the grand duke had conceived a plan for degrading them both. He had resolved at the moment his aunt should close her eyes to assemble his troops, to get himself proclaimed emperor, to repudiate the grand duchess, to declare the young Paul Petrovitch illegitimate, and publicly to marry his mistress Elizabeth Romanovna Woronzoff.

Amid the distractions caused by the prospect of the death of the empress and the known hatred of the grand duke and duchess to each other, Count Panin, preceptor to the young prince, devoted himself entirely to Catharine. He wished to see her possessed of all the power of the empire, but he was afraid to proceed to the extremity to which she proposed to go, and to deprive Peter of the name of emperor. He contrived therefore to procure an apparent reconciliation between the grand duke and his consort, as well as between him and his aunt Elizabeth; and he had almost persuaded the silly prince not to assume the sovereign power on the death of the empress till he should be solemnly invested with it by a decree of the senate. Could he obtain this point, he knew that the power of Peter would be limited and the authority secured to his wife and his son. He was, however, disappointed. Catharine herself disapproved of this plan, and concurred with the real friends of her husband in advising him "to conform to established custom in assuming the reins of empire."

He had hardly received this advice when word was brought him that the empress Elizabeth was dead; and the courtiers pressed in crowds about him. He accosted them with dignity, received the oaths of the officers of his guard, and seemed at once to have laid aside his weakness. In an hour he got on horseback, traversed the streets of St. Petersburg, and distributed money among the multitude and the soldiers. He had been so treated by his aunt that he could not possibly be grieved at her death; but in paying the last duties to her remains he betrayed no indecent elation. The first actions of his reign were prudent and patriotic, and such as would have done honour to a greater prince. He appeared to be reconciled to his wife, in whose company he spent much of his time; he recalled from prison and banishment 17,000 persons, some of them of rank and of great talents, who had been the victims of Elizabeth's jealous timidity; he permitted the nobility to bear arms or not at their own discretion, freeing them at the same time from the extreme servitude under which they had been held by his immediate predecessors; and he abolished the secret committee, an infamous inquisitorial tribunal, which ever since the reign of the father of Peter the Great had been the chief engine of Russian despotism.

He neglected, however, one thing, which, among the people over whom he was appointed to reign, would have contributed more to the security of his throne than all the wise and beneficent edicts which he had published. He made no preparations to be crowned at Moscow. Instead of complying with this ancient ceremony and humouring the prejudices of his superstitious subjects, he thought of nothing but of war with Denmark, and of a personal interview with the king of Prussia in Germany. His admiration of that great monarch hurried him indeed into the most extravagant follies. Not contented with giving him peace, and entering into an offensive and defensive alliance with him, he had the meanness to solicit a commission in his army, and to accept of the rank of major-general. Of this title he seemed more vain than of that of emperor of all the Russias. He constantly wore the Prussian uniform, introduced among his troops the Prussian discipline, which, though better than their own, was disagreeable because it was new, and much more because it

was German; and he raised his uncle, a man of no military talents, and a foreigner, to the dignity of generalissimo of the Russian armies, giving him at the same time the particular command of the horse-guards, a body of men which had never before been under any command but that of the supreme head of the empire.

Whilst he was thus alienating from himself the affections of the army, he contrived to disgust another order of men, whose attachment he should have laboured above all things to retain. He was at pains to show his preference of the Lutheran faith and worship to the doctrines and ceremonies of the Greek church; he attempted to make some alterations in the dress of the monks; he annexed great part of the possessions of the church to the domains of the crown, and he banished the archbishop of Novogorod, who opposed these innovations, but found himself obliged suddenly to recal him.

He had now returned to his former courses. He shut himself up for whole days with his mistress and drunken companions; he compelled the nobility and ladies of the court to sit in company with buffoons and comedians; he insulted every foreign minister but the ministers of Great Britain and Prussia; and he made no secret of his intention to repudiate the empress, declare Paul Petrovitch illegitimate, but marry the Countess Woronzoff.

This inconsistent and weak conduct of the emperor turned the attention of all orders of men to the empress, who made it her sole employment to gain those hearts which he was losing. Instructed from her infancy in the arts of dissimulation, it was not difficult for her to affect in the sight of the multitude sentiments the most foreign to her mind. The pupil of the French philosophers put on the air of a bigot to the most superstitious ceremonies of the Greek religion, and treated the ministers of that religion with the profoundest reverence: and whilst her husband was getting drunk amidst a rabble of buffoons, and disgusting every person of decency who approached him, she kept her court with a mixture of dignity and affability which attracted to her all who by capacity, courage, or reputation, were capable of serving her.

Correct, however, as her public conduct appeared, her private life was not less licentious than formerly. While yet grand duchess, she had formed a connection with Gregory Orloff, a man of mean birth and of no education, but possessed at once of personal beauty and the most daring courage. He had an inferior commission in the artillery, whilst his two brothers were common soldiers in the regiments of guards. The intrigue which she carried on with him was known only to one of her women named Catharine Ivanovna; nor did Orloff himself for some time suspect the rank of the lady who so lavishly conferred upon him her favours in secret. At last, finding him intrepid and discreet, she discovered herself, unveiled to him all her ambitious designs, and easily prevailed with him and his brothers to enter with zeal into her conspiracy against the emperor. Orloff likewise gained over Bibikoff his friend, a lieutenant Passick, with other officers, and by their means easily seduced some regiments of the guards. The princess Dashkoff was strongly attached to Catharine, and had frequent meetings with Orloff on the business of the conspiracy, without suspecting that he was so much as known to the

empress. Count Panin too, and the Hetman of the Cossacs, were determined to hurl Peter from the throne, but they were not inclined to go all the lengths proposed by Catharine and her two favourites. Hoping to enjoy the actual power of the empire themselves, they were for declaring Paul Petrovitch emperor in the room of his father, and conferring upon his mother the name and authority only of regent, while the princess and Orloff, knowing the sentiments and wishes of the empress, were resolved to invest her with sovereign power or to perish themselves in the hazardous attempt.

In the mean time the anniversary of the patron saints of Russia was at hand, when Peter had determined, at the conclusion of the festival, to divorce the empress, shut her up in prison, declare her son illegitimate, and publicly marry his mistress. As they who plan a conspiracy are always more vigilant than those against whom it is directed, the friends of Catharine were carefully informed of all that passed about the emperor, whilst he was kept in total ignorance of their proceedings. It was therefore necessary for them to unite in the same plan, and to carry it quickly into execution, for delay or divisions would involve them all in one common ruin. The empress contrived to bring over the Hetman entirely to her views, and the princess Dashkoff found little difficulty in reconciling Count Panin to the same measures. They now agreed to seize the czar on his arrival at Peterhoff, an imperial palace on the shore of the Gulf of Cronstadt, where he proposed to celebrate the approaching festival; and they were waiting impatiently for the moment of action when all at once their plot was discovered.

Passick, who has been mentioned among the conspirators, had gained the soldiers of the company of guards in which he was a lieutenant; but one of them, who thought that his captain was in the secret, asked that officer one evening, when they were to take up arms against the emperor. The captain, surprised, had recourse to dissimulation, and easily drew from the soldier all that he knew of the conspiracy. It was nine o'clock at night. Passick was put under arrest; but found means to slip into the hands of a man who had been placed as a spy over him by the princess, Dashkoff a scrap of paper containing these words, "Proceed to execution this instant, or we are undone." The man was desired to carry it to the Hetman, by whom he would be handsomely rewarded; but he hurried with it to the princess, who instantly communicated the intelligence to the other conspirators. She herself put on man's apparel, and hastened to the place where she was accustomed to meet Orloff and his friends, where she found them, as impatient as herself to carry their plot into immediate execution.

During this awful crisis the empress was at the palace of Peterhoff; and one of the brothers of Gregory Orloff, named Alexius, undertook to find her out, whilst he himself, with his other brother and Bibikoff his friend, repaired to the barracks for the purpose of instructing the soldiers of their party how to act on the first signal. Alexius Orloff carried with him a short note from the princess Dashkoff, but neglected to deliver it; and the empress, being suddenly roused from a sound sleep, was much alarmed when she saw at the side of her bed a soldier of whom she knew nothing. Her alarm was increased when the stranger said, "Your majesty has not a moment



to lose; get ready to follow me;" and instantly disappeared. She rose, however, and, calling her woman Ivanovna, they disguised themselves in such a manner that they could not be known by the sentinels about the palace; and, the soldier returning, they hurried with him to a coach which was waiting at the garden gate. Orloff took the reins, but drove with such fury that the horses soon fell down; and they were obliged to travel part of the way on foot. They had not, however, gone far, when they met a light country cart; and she who was aspiring to the throne of the greatest empire in the world was glad to enter the capital of that empire in this humble vehicle.

It was seven in the morning when she arrived in St. Petersburg: and to the soldiers, who gathered about her in great numbers, she said that her danger had driven her to the necessity of coming to ask their assistance; that the czar had intended, that very night, to put her and her son to death; and that she had so great confidence in their dispositions as to put herself entirely into their hands. They immediately shouted, "Long live the empress!" And the chaplain of one of the regiments, producing a crucifix, received their oaths of fidelity.

The troops, however, were not unanimous in this revolt. Though Gregory Orloff was treasurer of the artillery, and well enough beloved by the soldiers, that corps refused to follow him until he should produce the orders of Villebois their general; and that officer, withheld either by fidelity to the emperor or by fear, presumed to speak to Catharine of the obstacles which yet remained for her to surmount, adding that she ought to have foreseen them. She haughtily replied that she had not sent for him to ask what she ought to have foreseen, but to know how he intended to act. "To obey your majesty," returned Villebois; and, putting himself at the head of his regiment, he immediately joined the conspirators. So ripe indeed were the minds of all men for this revolt that in the space of two hours the empress found herself surrounded by 2000 warriors, together with great part of the inhabitants of Petersburg; and with that numerous train of attendants she repaired to the church of Kasan, where the archbishop of Novogorod, placing the imperial crown on her head, proclaimed her sovereign of all the Russias, declaring, at the same time, Paul Petrovitch her successor.

Matters had now proceeded too far to admit of any compromise between Catharine and her husband: but, had the infatuated czar put his affairs wholly into the hands of Marshal Munich, that intrepid veteran would have hurled the empress from her throne almost as quickly as she had acquired possession of it. He acted, however, a very different part. Upon receiving intelligence of what had been done at St. Petersburg, he asked indeed the marshal's advice, but suffered himself to be guided by his mistress and timid companions. Through their terrors and his own irresolution opportunities were lost which could never be recovered; for though his Holstein guards, with tears in their eyes, swore that they were all ready to sacrifice their lives in his service, and though the old marshal offered to lead them against the rebels, saying to the emperor, "I will go before you, and their swords shall not reach you till they have pierced my body," he was persuaded to treat with the empress, to acknowledge his misconduct,

and to offer to share with her the sovereign power. At last he was weak enough to abandon his troops, and to surrender at discretion to his consort, whose creatures hurried him from Oranienbaum to Peterhoff, stripped him of all his clothes, and, after leaving him for some time as a butt to the outrages of an insolent soldiery, threw over him an old mourning gown, and shut him up alone, with a guard at the door of his wretched apartment. On the 10th of July, 1762, Count Panin was sent to him by the empress; and, after a long conference, prevailed with him to write and sign a solemn resignation of his crown, and a declaration of his utter incapacity to govern so great an empire.

The revolution was now complete, and Peter seemed to enjoy some composure of mind; but in the evening he was carried a prisoner to Ropscha, a small imperial palace, where he was murdered just one week after his deposition. Of the manner of his death different accounts have been given. By some he is said to have been poisoned; by others to have been strangled by one of the Orloffs; and a few have thought that he perished by the same means as Henry VI. of England. Whether the empress was accessory to his death is not known; though it is certain that, so far from making any enquiry after his murderers, she affected to believe that he had died naturally.

The first care of Catharine was to reward those who had been the principal actors in the revolt. Panin was made prime minister; the Orloffs received the title of count; and the favourite Gregory was appointed lieutenant-general of the Russian armies, and knight of the order of St. Alexander Neusky, the second order of the empire. Several officers of the guards were promoted, and among the soldiers, whom she treated with the greatest affability, brandy and beer were liberally distributed. The chancellor Bestucheff, who had been the most inveterate enemy of Peter, was recalled from his exile, restored to his rank of field-marshal, and had an annual pension settled upon him of 20,000 rubles. To the friends of the emperor she behaved with great moderation. Prince George, whom he had constituted duke of Courland, was indeed obliged to renounce his title; but the administration of Holstein was committed to him, and he ever after served the empress with zeal and fidelity.

The news of the revolution was soon spread over Europe; and none of the sovereigns, though they knew by what steps Catharine had mounted the throne, hesitated for a moment to acknowledge her title. She was not, however, at perfect ease in her own mind; nor was her right recognized by all her subjects. Though she published manifestos, setting forth the intentions of the late emperor towards her and her son, which made resistance necessary,—though in these papers she attributed her elevation to the wishes of her people and the providence of God,—and though she called upon all who were sincerely attached to the orthodox faith of the Greek church to consider the sudden death of Peter as the judgment of heaven in favour of the revolution,—yet in the distant provinces no exultations were heard; both soldiers and peasants observed a gloomy silence. Even at Moscow so great was the disaffection to Catharine's government that it was some time before she could venture to go to that city to be crowned; and she found in it at last so

cold a reception that she very quickly returned to St. Petersburg.

No one rejoiced more sincerely in the good fortune of Catharine than Count Poniatowsky. He approached towards the confines of Russia, and wrote to her in the tenderest style of congratulation, requesting permission to pay his respects to her in the capital of her empire. It is not improbable that he flattered himself with the hopes that she would give him her hand in marriage, and thus raise him to the throne of the czars; but she had promised to the empress Elizabeth that she would never again see the count; and to that promise she at present adhered. She wrote to him, however, in the most affectionate terms; and, though she gave him no encouragement to repair to St. Petersburg, she assured him that she had other prospects in view for his aggrandisement, and that he might depend upon her perpetual friendship: and she soon appeared to be as good as her word. On the death of Augustus

I. she raised her former favourite to the throne of Poland, in opposition to the wishes of the courts of Vienna and Versailles, as well as of a great majority of the Polish nobles. She defeated the intrigues of the two foreign courts by more skilfully conducted intrigues of her own; and, by pouring her armies into the republic, she so completely overawed the nuncios that Poniatowsky was chosen by the unanimous suffrages of the diet which met for the election of a sovereign; and on the 7th of September, 1764, was proclaimed king of Poland and grand duke of Lithuania, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus.

While she was thus disposing of foreign kingdoms, she was kept under perpetual dread of being hurled from the throne of her own vast empire. Her want of title to that throne was now seen by all ranks of her subjects; the good qualities of Peter III. were remembered and his failings and faults forgotten. His fate was universally lamented; and, except the conspirators, who may be said to have imbrued their hands in his blood, there was hardly a Russian who did not regret that the sovereignty had passed from the ancient family of the czars to a foreigner, allied only by marriage to the blood royal. Even the conspirators themselves had lost much of their regard for Catharine. The princess of Dashkoff was a second time banished to Moscow, and, to magnify her own importance, she spoke freely of the means by which the empress, whom she accused of ingratitude, had been raised to the throne. The inhabitants of Moscow, who never favoured the usurpation, were thus prepared for a revolt. At St. Petersburg Count Panin felt himself uneasy under the predominant influence of the favourite, and tried in vain to divert Catharine's affections to a new object. She received a few secret visits from an intriguing soldier, and then appointed him to a lucrative and honourable employment in some distant province of the empire, when Orloff recovered his former ascendancy, which through his own carelessness he had nearly lost. In this state of the public mind, conspiracies were very frequent, and as the general object of them was to place on the throne Prince Ivan, who was again languishing in the dungeon from which Peter had taken him, the empress had given to his guard an order, signed by her own hand, to put that unfortunate prince to death should any attempt be made to liberate him from his prison. An attempt was made by a very inferior officer, as some have supposed by

the instructions of Catharine, and her bloody order was instantly obeyed. The assassins were rewarded, and promoted in the army, but the officer who attempted to rescue the prince was condemned to death, and suffered unexpectedly the sentence of the law.

The throne of Catharine was now firmly established by the death or renunciation of every person who was descended of the imperial family, and she had leisure to turn her thoughts to the aggrandisement of the empire. She introduced into the administration of justice the greatest reformation of which the half-civilised state of Russia would perhaps admit. She spared neither trouble nor expense to diffuse over the empire the light of science, and the benefits of useful and elegant arts; and she protected, as far as she could, the poor from the oppressions of the rich. About the middle of 1767 she conceived the idea of sending several learned men to travel through the interior of her vast dominions, to determine the geographical position of the principal places, to mark their temperature, and to examine into the nature of their soil, their vegetable and mineral productions, and the manners of the people by whom they were inhabited. To this employment she appointed Pallas, Gmelin, Euler, and many others of the highest eminence in the republic of letters, from whose journals of these interesting travels large additions have been made to the general stock of useful knowledge. Well convinced in her own mind that it is not so much by the power of arms as by precedence in science that nations obtain a conspicuous place in the annals of the world, with a laudable zeal she encouraged artists and scholars of all denominations. She granted new privileges to the two academies of sciences and the arts, encouraged such of the youth as had behaved well in these national institutions to travel for further improvement over Europe, by bestowing upon them, for three years, large pensions to defray their expenses; and, to remove as much as possible the Russian prejudice against all kinds of learning, she granted patents of nobility to those who during their education had conducted themselves with propriety and become proficient in any branch of useful or elegant knowledge. Still further to encourage the fine arts in her dominions, she assigned an annual sum of 5000 rubles for the translation of foreign literary works into the Russian language.

In the year 1768 the small pox raged in St. Petersburg, and proved fatal to vast numbers of all ranks and of every age. The empress was desirous to introduce the practice of inoculation among her subjects, and resolved to set the example by having herself and her son inoculated. With this view, she applied for a physician from England: and, Dr. Thomas Dinsdale of Hertford being recommended to her, he repaired with his son to the capital of Russia, where he inoculated first the empress, then the grand duke, and afterwards many of the nobility. The experiment proving successful, he was created a baron of the empire, appointed counsellor of state and physician to her imperial majesty, with a pension of 500*l.* per annum, to be paid him in England, besides 10,000*l.* which he immediately received. So popular was the empress at this period, that, by a decree of the senate, the anniversary of her recovery from the small-pox was enjoined to be celebrated as a religious festival; and it has ever since been observed as such.

To follow her through all her wars and intrigues



with foreign courts would swell this article to the size of a volume. Such a narrative, too, belongs rather to the history of Russia than to the memoirs of Catharine, in which it is the business of the biographer to develop the private character of the woman rather than to detail the exploits of the sovereign. Her partition of Poland, and afterwards the annihilation of it as an independent republic,—her encroachments on the territories of the grand signior,—her formation of the armed neutrality,—the influence which she maintained over the courts of Sweden and Denmark,—and the art with which she threw the weight of Russia sometimes into the scale of Austria and sometimes into that of Prussia, just as the interests of her own dominions required the one or the other to preponderate—show how admirably she was qualified to guide the helm of a great empire in all its transactions with foreign states. We speak not of the equity of her proceedings, for it must be confessed that equity formed no barrier against her ambition, and that she never failed to subjugate those whom she pretended to take under her protection. Her ruling passion was to enlarge her own territories, already so very extensive; and, for the attainment of that object, she contrived the most judicious plans, which she executed with vigour. In this part of her conduct, however, she has been equalled by other monarchs, but in the zeal and the wisdom with which she endeavoured to introduce among her half-savage subjects the blessings of knowledge and industry she stands unrivalled. Of this we need bring no other proof, in addition to what has been already stated, than that she founded in St. Petersburg alone thirty-one seminaries, where 6800 children of both sexes were educated, at the annual expense to the government of 754,335 rubles. She superintended herself the education of her grandchildren, and wrote for them books of instruction. If it be true that “every man acquainted with the common principles of human actions will look with veneration on the writer who is at one time combating Locke, and at another making a catechism for children in their fourth year,” with what veneration should we look upon the empress of Russia, could we forget the means by which she obtained that elevation from which she frequently descended for a similar employment? This she did, not for her own descendants alone, but also for the children of others, of whom she had always a great number in her apartments, who shared in the instruction given to her grandchildren, and whose caresses she returned with extreme complaisance.

Her greatest weakness was surely that gross passion which her penegyrists have dignified with the name of love, but to such an appellation it had no claim, if love be any thing more than a sexual appetite. Besides Gregory Orloff, she had no fewer than ten favourites after the death of her husband.

We know not whether that more than Asiatic magnificence which she displayed on every public occasion should be considered as an instance of weakness or of wisdom. If she delighted in balls, and masquerades, and sumptuous entertainments, and dress loaded with jewels and every kind of splendid ornaments, for their own sakes, she betrayed a weakness unworthy of that sovereign who held in her hand the balance of Europe, and at whose nod the greatest powers of Asia trembled: but if she introduced such splendour into her court merely to divert

the attention of the Russians from the means by which she got possession of the throne, and to wean them from their own savage and slovenly manners, even this may be perhaps considered as one of her most masterly strokes in politics.

Her ambition was boundless; but, if such a phrase may be allowed, it was not always true ambition. When the French republic had established itself on the ruins of monarchy, and was propagating new theories of government through all Europe, true ambition would surely have led the autocratrix of the north to unite her forces with those of the coalesced powers, in order to crush the hydra before its anarchical principles could be introduced among her own barbarous subjects. Such would certainly have been the advice of her favourite Potemkin, who longed to lead a Russian army into France, even before the murder of the unfortunate Louis. That general, however, died in October, 1791; and when Britain, Austria, and Prussia were leagued against the new republic, Catharine looked coolly on, in hopes, it is probable, of availing herself of their weakness, when exhausted by a long and bloody war. She gave refuge, indeed, in her dominions to many emigrants from France, and sent a squadron of ships to co-operate with the navy of England; but in this last measure she regarded merely her own immediate interest, for her crazy ships were repaired by British carpenters at the expense of the British government, and her officers had an opportunity of learning the evolutions of the British navy. She had likewise other prospects in view when she lent to the allies this slender aid. She meditated a new war with Turkey, and depending upon meeting with no opposition, if that country should not receive assistance from England and Austria, she flattered herself with accomplishing her darling project of driving the Ottomans out of Europe, and of reigning in Constantinople. But she was disappointed. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, she was seized with what her principal physician judged a fit of apoplexy, and at ten o'clock in the evening of the following day expired, in the sixty-eighth year of her age, leaving behind her the character of one of the most talented sovereigns that ever swayed the sceptre of Russia.

CATHARINE OF ARRAGON, the first wife of Henry VIII., and queen of England. She was the youngest daughter of Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castile, and was born in 1483. In 1501 she was married to Arthur prince of Wales, son of Henry VII. Her husband dying about five months after, the king, unwilling to return her dowry, caused her to be contracted to his remaining son Henry, and a dispensation was procured from the pope for that purpose. In his fifteenth year, the prince made a public protest against the marriage; but at length, yielding to the representations of his council, he consented to ratify the contract, and on his accession to the throne, in 1509, was crowned with her. The inequality of their ages, and the capricious disposition of Henry, were circumstances very adverse to the durability of their union, and it seems surprising that Catharine should have acquired and retained an ascendancy over the affections of the king for nearly twenty years. The want of male issue, however, proved a source of disquietude to him, and scruples, real or pretended, at length arose in his mind concerning the legality



of their union, which were greatly enforced by a growing passion for Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honour. He speedily made application to Rome for a divorce from Catherine. An encouraging answer was returned, and a dispensation promised, it being the interest of the pope to favour the English king. Overawed, however, by the power of the emperor Charles V., Catharine's nephew, the conduct of the pontiff, who depended upon the empire, became embarrassed and hesitating. Catharine, meanwhile, conducted herself with gentleness and firmness, and could not in any way be induced to consent to an act which would render her daughter illegitimate, and stain her with the imputation of incest.

Being cited before the 'papal legates, cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio, in 1529, she declared that she would not submit her cause to their judgment, but appealed to the court of Rome, which declaration was declared contumacious. The subtleties of the pope at length induced the king to decide the affair for himself; and the resentment expressed on this occasion by the court of Rome provoked him to throw off his submission to it, and declare himself head of the English church, a result of royal caprice more curious and important than most in history. In 1532 he married Anne Boleyn, upon which Catharine, no longer considered queen of England, retired to Ampthill in Bedfordshire. Cranmer, now raised to the primacy, pronounced the sentence of divorce, notwithstanding which Catharine still persisted in maintaining her claims. She died in January 1536, and shortly before her death she wrote a letter to the king, recommending their daughter (afterwards Queen Mary) to his protection, praying for the salvation of his soul, and assuring him of her forgiveness and unabated affection. The pathos of this epistle is said to have drawn tears from Henry, who was never backward in acknowledging the virtues of his injured wife, who certainly acted with eminent dignity and consistency.

CATHARINE DE MEDICI, wife of Henry II., king of France, was born at Florence in 1519. She was the only daughter of Lorenzo de Medici, duke of Urbino, and the niece of pope Clement VII. Francis I. consented that his son Henry should marry her, only because he did not believe she ever would ascend the throne, and because he was in great want of money, which Lorenzo could furnish him. The marriage was celebrated at Marseilles in 1533. Catharine was equally gifted with beauty and talents, and had cultivated her taste for the fine arts in Florence; but, at the same time, imbibed the perverted principles of politics then prevailing in Italy, which justified a constant resort to cabal, intrigues, and treachery, and are particularly unsuited to the government of large empires. Catharine's ambition was unbounded. She sacrificed France and her children to the passion for ruling; but she never aimed steadily at one great end, and had no profound views of policy. The situation in which she was placed on her arrival at the French court gave her great opportunity to perfect herself in the art of dissimulation. She flattered alike the duchess d'Etampes, the mistress of the king, and Diana de Poitiers, the mistress of her own husband, though these two ladies hated each other. From her apparent indifference, she might have been supposed inclined to shun the tumult of

public affairs; but when the death of Henry II., in 1559, made her mistress of herself, she plunged her children in a whirl of pleasures, partly to enervate them by dissipation, partly from a natural inclination towards prodigality; and, in the midst of these extravagances, cruel and bloody measures were executed, the memory of which still makes men shudder.

Her authority was limited under the reign of Francis II. her eldest son, since this prince by his marriage with the unfortunate Mary Stuart was entirely devoted to the party of the Guises. Jealous of a power she did not exercise, Catharine then decided to favour the Protestants. If it had not been for her patronage, by which the ambition of the chiefs of the Huguenots was stimulated, the conflicting religious opinions in France never would have caused such lasting civil wars. Catharine felt herself embarrassed by this indulgence towards the innovators, when the death of Francis II. placed the reins of government during the minority of Charles IX. in her hands. Wavering between the Guises on one side, who had put themselves at the head of the Catholics, and Condé and Coligny on the other, who had become very powerful by the aid of the Protestants, she was constantly obliged to resort to intrigues, which failed to procure her as much power as she might easily have gained by openness of conduct. Despised by all parties, but consoled if she could deceive them, taking arms only to treat, and never treating without preparing the materials for a new civil war, she brought Charles IX., when he became of age, into a situation in which he must either make the royal authority subordinate to a powerful party or cause part of his subjects to be massacred, in the hope, at best a doubtful one, of subduing faction. The massacre of St. Bartholomew was her work. She induced the king to practise a dissimulation foreign to his character; and, as often as he evinced a disposition to free himself from a dependence of which he was ashamed, she knew how to prevent him, by the fear and jealousy which she excited in him by favouring his brother Henry.

After the death of Charles IX., Catharine became again regent of the kingdom, till the return of Henry III., then king of Poland. She contributed to the many misfortunes of his reign, by the measures which she had adopted previously to its commencement, and by the intrigues in which she was uninterruptedly engaged. At her death, in 1589, France was in a state of complete dismemberment. The religious contests were, in reality, very indifferent to her, and their future consequences she was not able to conceive. She was equally artful in uniting her adherents and in promoting dissension among her adversaries. She was extravagant to folly, and was unable to limit her expenses. To those who directed her attention to the prodigal expenditure of the public treasure she used to say, "One must live." Her example contributed greatly to promote the corruption of morals which prevailed in her time. Her manners, however, were elegant, and she took a lively interest in the sciences and arts. She caused valuable manuscripts to be brought from Greece and Italy, and the Thuilleries and the Hotel de Soissons to be built. In the provinces, also, several castles were erected by her order, distinguished for the beauty of their architecture, in an age when the principles of the art were still unknown in France.

CATHARINE OF BRAGANZA, wife of Charles



II., king of England, and daughter of John IV., king of Portugal, was born in 1638. In 1661 she married Charles II., in whose court she long endured all the neglect and mortification his dissolute conduct was calculated to inflict upon her. This endurance was also rendered greater by her proving unfruitful; but she supported herself with great equanimity, and, after the death of Charles, received much attention and respect. In 1693 she returned to Portugal, where, in 1704, she was made regent by her brother, Don Pedro, whose increasing infirmities rendered retirement necessary. In this situation Catharine showed considerable abilities, carrying on the war against Spain with great firmness and success. She died in 1705, aged 67.

**CATHARINE PARR.**—This talented lady was the sixth and last wife of Henry VIII. She was the eldest daughter of Sir Thomas Parr of Kendal, and was at an early age distinguished for her learning and good sense. Catharine was first married to Edward Burghes, and secondly to John Neville, Lord Latimer, and, after his death, attracted the notice of Henry VIII., whose queen she became in 1543. Her zealous encouragement of the reformed religion excited the anger and jealousy of Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, the chancellor Wriothesley, and others of the catholic faction, who conspired to ruin her with the king. Taking advantage of one of his moments of irritation, they accused her of heresy and treason, and prevailed upon the king to sign a warrant for her committal to the tower. This being accidentally discovered to her, she repaired to the king, who purposely turned the conversation to religious subjects, and began to sound her opinions. Aware of his purpose, she humbly replied "that on such topics she always, as became her sex and station, referred herself to the wisdom of his majesty, as he, under God, was her only supreme head and governor here on earth." "Not so, by St. Mary, Kate," replied Henry; "you are, as we take it, become a doctor, to instruct, and not to be instructed by us." Catharine judiciously replied that she only objected in order to be benefited by his superior learning and knowledge. "Is it so, sweetheart?" said the king; "and tended your arguments to no worse end? Then are we perfect friends again." After the death of the king, she married the lord admiral Sir Thomas Seymour, uncle to Edward VI.; but this connection proved unhappy, and involved her in troubles and difficulties. She died in 1548, not without suspicion of poison.

**CATHARINE, PAWLOWNA**, queen of Wurtemberg and grand princess of Russia. She was born May 21, 1758, being the youngest sister of the emperor Alexander, and widow of George prince of Holstein-Oldenburg, whom she married in 1809. Her two sons by this marriage were born in 1810 and 1812. She was distinguished alike for beauty, talents, and resolution, and exhibited the tenderest affection for her brother Alexander. After 1812 she was frequently his companion in the campaigns in Germany and France, as well as during his residence at London and Vienna, and evidently had an important influence on several of his measures. It is said that she effected in 1814 the marriage of the prince of Orange with her younger sister. In 1813 William, crown-prince of Wurtemberg, in Germany, formed an acquaintance with her, and, in 1814, saw her again in Paris. They were married on the 24th

of January 1816, at Petersburg; and after the death of his father, in October 1816, he ascended with her the throne of Wurtemberg. This princess formed the female associations existing throughout the country, and established an agricultural society. She laboured to promote the education of her people, and founded valuable institutions for the poor, a school for the females of the higher classes, and savings' banks for the lower classes, after the example of the English savings' banks. Indeed, she greatly improved the internal economy of the state, and chiefly imitated the institutions of England. For the fine arts she had but little taste. She died in 1819, leaving two daughters and two sons.

**CATILINE, LUCIUS SERGIUS.**—This celebrated Roman was just entering on the age of manhood when Rome became a prey to the rage of Marius and Sylla. Of patrician birth, he attached himself to the cause of the latter, had some share in his success, and still more in his proscriptions. Murder, rapine, and conflagration were the first deeds and pleasures of his youth. His influence on the fortunes of the disordered republic became important, and he appears to have served in the army with reputation. He was peculiarly dangerous and formidable, as his power of dissimulation enabled him to throw a veil over his vices. Such was his art, that, while he was poisoning the minds of the Roman youth, he gained the friendship and esteem of the severe Catulus. Equally well qualified to deceive the good, to intimidate the weak, and to inspire his own boldness into his depraved associates, he evaded two accusations brought against him by Clodius for criminal intercourse with a vestal, and for monstrous extortions of which he had been guilty while proconsul in Africa.

A confederacy of many young men of high birth and daring character, who saw no other means of extricating themselves from their enormous debts than by obtaining the highest offices of the state, having been formed, Catiline was placed at their head. This eminence he owed chiefly to his connection with the old soldiers of Sylla, by means of whom he kept in awe the towns near Rome, and even Rome itself. At the same time he numbered among his adherents not only the worst and lowest of the riotous populace, but also many of the patricians, and men of consular rank. Every thing favoured his audacious scheme. Pompey was pursuing the victories which Lucullus had prepared for him; and the latter was but a feeble supporter of the patriots in the senate, who wished him, but in vain, to put himself at their head. Crassus, who had delivered Italy from the gladiators, was now striving with mad eagerness after power and riches, and, instead of opposing, countenanced the growing influence of Catiline, as a means of his own aggrandizement. Cæsar, who was labouring to revive the party of Marius, spared Catiline, and perhaps even encouraged him. Only two Romans remained determined to uphold their falling country, Cato and Cicero, the latter of whom alone possessed the qualifications necessary for the task. The conspirators were now planning the elevation of Catiline and one of his accomplices to the consulship. When this was effected, they hoped to obtain possession of the public treasures and the property of the citizens, under various pretexts, and especially by means of proscription. It is not probable, however, that Catiline had promised



them the liberty of burning and plundering Rome. Cicero had the courage to stand candidate for the consulship, in spite of the impending danger, of the extent of which he was perfectly aware. Neither insults, nor threats, nor even riots and attempts to assassinate him, deterred him from his purpose; and, being supported by the rich citizens, he gained his election. All that the party of Catiline could accomplish was the election of Caius Antony, one of their accomplices, as colleague of Cicero. This failure, however, did not deprive Catiline of the hope of gaining the consulship the following year, and for this purpose he redoubled the measures of terror by which he had laid the foundation of his power. Meanwhile he had lost some of the most important members of his conspiracy. Antony had been prevailed upon or compelled by Cicero to remain neutral. Cæsar and Crassus had resolved to do the same, and Piso had been killed in Spain. Italy, however, was destitute of troops, and the veterans of Sylla only waited the signal to take up arms. This signal was now given by Catiline. The centurion Manlius appeared among them, and formed a camp in Etruria. Cicero was on the watch, when a fortunate accident disclosed to him the counsel of the conspirators, and among other things he learnt that two knights had undertaken to assassinate him at his house. On the day which they had fixed for the execution of their plan, they found the doors barred and guarded. Still Cicero delayed to make public the circumstances of a conspiracy the progress and resources of which he wished first to ascertain. He contented himself with warning his fellow-citizens in general terms of the impending danger. But, when the insurrection of Manlius was made known, he procured the passage of the celebrated decree that "the consuls should take care that the republic received no detriment."

It was exceedingly difficult to seize the person of one who had soldiers at his command both in and out of Rome; still more difficult would it be to prove his guilt before those who were accomplices with him, or, at least, were willing to make use of his plans to serve their own interest. He had to choose between two evils—a revolution within the city or a civil war: he preferred the latter. Catiline had the boldness to take his seat in the senate, known as he was to be the enemy of the Roman state. Cicero then rose and delivered that bold oration against him which was the means of saving Rome by driving Catiline from the city. The conspirators who remained, Lentulus Sura, Cethegus, and other infamous senators, engaged to head the insurrection in Rome as soon as Catiline appeared at the gates. According to Cicero and Sallust it was the intention of the conspirators to set the city on fire and massacre the inhabitants. At any rate, these horrid consequences might have easily followed from the circumstances of the case, without any previous resolution. Lentulus, Cethegus, and the other conspirators, in the meanwhile, were carrying on their criminal plots. They applied to the ambassadors of the Allobroges to transfer the war to the frontiers of Italy itself. These, however, revealed the plot, and their disclosures led to others still more important, and correspondence of the conspirators with their leader was intercepted. The senate had now a notorious crime to punish, but, as the circumstances of the case did not allow of a minute

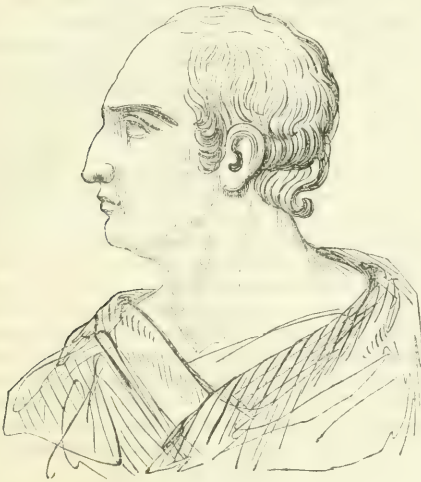
observance of forms in the proceedings against the conspirators, the laws relating thereto were disregarded, as had been done in former instances of less pressing danger. Cæsar spoke against immediate execution, but Cicero and Cato prevailed. Five of the conspirators were put to death. Caius Antonius was then appointed to march against Catiline, but, on the pretext of ill health, gave the command to his lieutenant Petreius. He succeeded in enclosing Catiline, who, seeing no way of escape, resolved to die sword in hand, and his followers imitated his example. The battle was fought with bitter desperation. The insurgents all fell on the spot which their leader had assigned them, with Catiline at their head, at Pistoia, in Etruria.

**CATO THE CENSOR, MARCUS PORCIUS.** This distinguished Roman was born 232 B. C., at Tusculum, and inherited from his father, a plebeian, a small estate, in the territory of the Sabines, which he cultivated with his own hands. He served his first campaign, at the age of seventeen, under Fabius Maximus, when he besieged Capua. Five years after, he fought under the same commander at the siege of Tarentum. After the capture of this city he became acquainted with the Pythagorean Nearchus, who initiated him into the sublime doctrines of his philosophy, with which, in practice, he was already conversant. After the war was ended, Cato returned to his farm. But as he was versed in the laws, and a fluent speaker, he went, at day-break, to the neighbouring towns, where he acted as counsellor and advocate to those who applied to him. Valerius Flaccus, a noble and powerful Roman, who had an estate in the vicinity, observed the talents and virtues of the youth, conceived an affection for him, and persuaded him to remove to Rome, where he promised to assist him with his influence and patronage. Cato was poor and unknown, but his eloquence, which some compared to that of Demosthenes, and the integrity and strength of his character, soon drew the public attention to him. In court, and in the popular assemblies, he answered to the fine definition which he himself gave of an orator, and which Quintilian has preserved to us:—"a virtuous man skilled in the art of speaking well." At the age of thirty, he went as military tribune to Sicily; and in the following year he was questor, at which period there commenced, between him and Scipio, a rivalry and hatred which lasted till death. Cato, who had returned to Rome, accused Scipio of extravagance; and, though his rival was acquitted of the charge, this zeal in the cause of the public gained Cato a great influence over the people.

Five years after, having been already edile, he was chosen pretor, and obtained the province of Sardinia. His strict moderation, integrity, and love of justice were here still more strongly displayed than in Rome. On this island he formed an acquaintance with the poet Ennius, of whom he learnt Greek, and whom he took with him to Rome on his return. He was finally made consul, with his friend Valerius Flaccus for his colleague. He opposed with all his power the abolition of the Oppian law, passed in the pressing times of the second Punic war, forbidding the Roman women to wear more than half an ounce of gold, to dress in garments of various colours, or to wear other ornaments; but he was obliged to yield to the eloquence of the tribune Valerius and the urgent importunities of the women.



Soon after he set out for Spain, which was in a state of rebellion; and his first act was to send back to Rome the supplies which had been provided for the army, declaring that the war ought to support the soldiers. He gained several victories with a newly-raised army, reduced the province to submission, and returned to Italy, where the honour of a triumph was granted to him. Scarcely had he descended from his triumphal car when he put off the toga of the consul, arrayed himself in the soldier's habit, and followed Sempronius to Thrace. He afterwards put himself under the command of the consul Manlius Acilius, to fight against Antiochus, and to carry on the war in Thessaly. By a bold march, he made himself master of the Callidromus, one of the highest peaks of the mountain pass of Thermopylæ, and thus decided the issue of the battle.



Seven years after he obtained, in spite of a powerful faction opposed to him, the most honourable and at the same time the most feared of all the magistracies of Rome, the censorship. He had not canvassed for the office, but had only expressed his willingness to fill it. In compliance with his wishes, Valerius Flaccus was chosen his colleague, as the only person qualified to assist him in correcting the public disorders and restoring the ancient purity of morals. He fulfilled this trust with inflexible rigour; and, though his measures caused him some obloquy and opposition, they met, in the end, with the highest applause: and, when he resigned his office, it was resolved to erect a statue to him with an honourable inscription. He appears to have been quite indifferent to the honour; and when, before this, some one expressed his wonder that no statue had been erected to him, he answered, "I would rather have it asked why no image has been erected to Cato than why one has." Still he was not void of self-complacency. "Is he a Cato, then?" he was accustomed to say, when he would excuse the errors of another.

Cato's political life was a continued warfare. He was continually accusing, and was himself accused with animosity, but was always acquitted. His last public commission was an embassy to Carthage, to settle the dispute between the Carthaginians and King Massinissa. It is said that this journey was the original cause of the destruction of Carthage;

for Cato was so astonished at the rapid recovery of this city from its losses that he ever after ended every speech of his with the well-known words, "I am also of opinion that Carthage must be destroyed." He died a year after his return, when eighty-five years old. Cato, who was so frugal of the public revenues, was not indifferent to riches. He was rigorously severe towards his slaves, and considered them quite in the light of property. He made every exertion to promote and improve agriculture. In his old age he gave himself up to the company of his friends and the pleasures of the table.

He was twice married, and had a son by each of his wives. His conduct as a husband and a father was equally exemplary. He composed a multitude of works, of which the only one extant is that "*De Re Rustica*." Those of which the loss is most to be regretted are his orations, which Cicero mentions in terms of the highest encomium, and his history of the origin of the Roman people, which is frequently quoted by the old historians.

CATO, MARCUS PORCIUS, called, to distinguish him from the censor, his great grandfather, Cato of Utica, the place of his death, was born 93 B. C., and, after the death of his parents, was brought up in the house of his uncle, Livius Drusus. He early discovered great maturity of judgment and firmness of character, and it is related of him that in his fourteenth year, when he saw the heads of several proscribed persons in the house of Sylla, by whose orders they had been murdered, he demanded a sword of his teacher, to stab the tyrant, and free his country from servitude. He formed an intimacy with the Stoic Antipater of Tyre, and ever remained true to the principles of the Stoic philosophy. His first appearance in public was against the tribunes of the people, who wished to pull down a *basilica* erected by the censor Cato, which was in their way. On this occasion, he displayed that powerful eloquence which afterwards rendered him so formidable, and won the cause. He served his first campaign as a volunteer in the war against Spartacus, and distinguished himself so highly that the pretor Gellius awarded him a prize, which he refused. He was sent as military tribune to Macedonia; and, when the term of his office had expired, he travelled into Asia, and carried the Stoic Athenodorus with him to Rome. He was next made questor, and executed his difficult trust with the strictest integrity, while he had the spirit to prosecute the public officers for their acts of extortion and violence. His conduct gained him the admiration and love of the Romans, so that, on the last day of his questorship, he was escorted to his house by the whole assembly of the people. The fame of his virtue spread far and wide; and, in the games of Flora, the dancers were not allowed to lay aside their garments as long as Cato was present. The troubles of the state did not permit him to remain in seclusion. The example of Sylla, in usurping supreme power, was followed by many ambitious men, whose mutual dissensions were all that saved the tottering constitution from immediate ruin. Crassus hoped to purchase the sovereignty with his gold; Pompey expected that it would be voluntarily conferred upon him; and Cæsar, superior to both in talent, united himself to both, and made use of the wealth of the one and the reputation of the other to attain his own objects. At the head of the senate, the sole prop of the republic, stood Catullus, Cicero, and Cato.



Lucullus, who stood very high in the favour of the army, which he had so victoriously commanded, might alone have upheld the senate, had he not been more desirous to enjoy his wealth than to devote himself to the care of the commonwealth. Cato, keeping aloof from all parties, served the commonwealth with sagacity and courage; but he often injured the cause which he was trying to benefit by the inflexibility of his character. He was on the way to his estate, when he met Metellus Nepos, who was travelling to Rome to canvas for the tribuneship. Knowing him to be a dangerous man, Cato returned immediately, stood candidate for the office himself, and was chosen, together with Metellus. About this time, the conspiracy of Catiline broke out. Cato supported, with all his power, the consul Cicero, first gave him publicly the name of father of his country, and urged, in a splendid speech preserved by Sallust, the rigorous punishment of the traitors. He opposed the proposition of Metellus Nepos to recall Pompey from Asia, and give him the command against Catiline, and was near losing his life in a riot excited against him on this account by his colleague and Cæsar.

After the return of Pompey, he frustrated many of his ambitious plans, and first predicted the consequences of his union with Crassus and Cæsar. He afterwards opposed, but in vain, the division of lands in Campania. Cæsar at that time abused his power so much as to send Cato to prison, but was constrained, by the murmurs of the people, to set him at liberty. The triumvirate, in order to remove him to a distance, had him sent to Cyprus, to depose King Ptolemy, under some frivolous pretext. He was compelled to obey, and executed his commission with so much address that he enriched the treasury with a larger sum than had ever been deposited in it by any private man. In the mean time, he continued his opposition to the triumvirate. Endeavouring to prevent the passage of the Tribonian law, which invested Crassus with an extraordinary power, he was a second time arrested; but the people followed him in a body to the prison, and his enemies were compelled to release him. Being afterwards made pretor, he carried into execution a law against bribery, which displeased all parties. After the death of Crassus, the civil commotions increased, and Cato, as the only means of preventing greater evils, proposed that Pompey should be made sole consul, contrary to the constitution, and the proposition was adopted. The year following, Cato lost the consulship by refusing to take the steps necessary for obtaining it. At this time the civil war broke out. Cato, then propretor in Sicily, on the arrival of Curio with three of Cæsar's legions, departed for the camp of Pompey, at Dyrrachium. He had still been in hopes to prevent the war by negotiation; and, when it broke out, he put on mourning in token of his grief. Pompey, having been victorious at Dyrrachium, left Cato behind to guard the military chest and magazine, while he pushed after his rival. For this reason, Cato was not present at the battle of Pharsalia, after which he sailed over with his troops to Cyrene, in Africa. Here he learned that Pompey's father-in-law, Scipio, had gone to Juba, king of Mauritania, where Varus had collected a considerable force. Cato immediately set off to join him, and, after undergoing hunger, thirst, and every hardship, reached Utica, where the two armies effected

a junction. The soldiers wished him to be their general, but he gave this office to Scipio, and took the command in Utica, while Scipio and Labienus sallied out against Cæsar. Cato had advised them to protract the war, but they ventured an engagement, in which they were entirely defeated and Africa submitted to the victor.

Cato had at first determined to defend himself to the last, with the senators in the place; but he afterwards abandoned this plan, and dismissed all who wished to leave him. His resolution was taken. On the evening before the day which he had fixed upon for executing it he took a tranquil meal, and discussed various philosophical subjects. He then retired to his chamber, and read the *Phædo* of Plato. Anticipating his intentions, his friends had taken away his sword. On finding that it was gone, he called his slaves, and demanded it with apparent equanimity; but, when they still delayed to bring it, he struck one of the slaves, who was endeavouring to pacify him. His son and his friends came with tears, and besought him to refrain from his purpose. At first he reproached his son for disobedience, then calmly advised those present to submit to Cæsar, and dismissed all but the philosophers Demetrius and Apollonius, whom he asked if they knew any way by which he could continue to live without being false to his principles? They were silent, and left him weeping. He then received his sword, again read Plato, and slept a short time. Having at length received intelligence that his friends could depart, as the sea was calm, he stabbed himself with his sword. His attendants took advantage of a swoon into which he fell to bind up his wounds; but on coming to himself he tore off the bandages, and shortly after expired. Cæsar, when he heard the news of his death, is said to have exclaimed, "I grudge thee thy death, since thou hast grudged me the honour of sparing thy life."

CATULLUS, CAIUS VALERIUS, a celebrated Roman poet, born B. C. 86, at Verona, or according to some authors at Sirmium, a small town on a peninsula of Lake Benacus, now Lago di Garda. He went in his youth to Rome, where his accomplishments soon won him the favour of those who adorned that splendid era. He was the friend of Cicero, of Plautus, Cinna, and Cornelius Nepos; to the last he subsequently dedicated the collection of his poems. This collection is not of great extent, but shows what he was capable of doing in several kinds of poetry, had he preferred a steady course of study to pleasure and travelling. Probably a part of his poems have not come down to us. Of the merit of his productions, there has been but one opinion among the ancients as well as moderns. Tibullus and Ovid eulogize him, and Martial, in one of his epigrams, grants to him alone a superiority over himself. In sportive composition and in epigrams, when he keeps within the proper limits of that species of poetry, he is a model. He succeeded, also, in heroic verse, as in his beautiful episode of Ariadne, which appears to have inspired the poet who afterwards sung of Dido. He was the first of the Romans who successfully imitated the Greek lyric poetry. The four odes of his that remain to us make us feel a lively regret for the loss of the others. A weighty objection, however, against most of his writings, is their licentiousness and indelicacy. The common opinion is that he died 57 B. C., in the thirtieth year of his age.



CAVALCANTI, GUIDO, a Florentine philosopher and poet of the thirteenth century. He was the friend of Dante, and, like him, a zealous Ghibelline. When the dissensions of the Guelphs and Ghibellines disturbed the public peace of Florence, the citizens banished the chiefs of both parties. The Ghibellines were exiled to Sarzanna, but, on account of the unhealthy air of that place, they were permitted to return; but Cavalcanti had contracted a disease of which he died in 1300 at Florence. In his youth he made a pilgrimage to St. Jago de Compostella, in Galicia. Returning home through France, he fell in love, at Toulouse, with a young lady of the name of Mandetta. To her most of his verses which we possess are addressed. They are remarkable, considering the period at which they were written, for their beautiful style. His "Canzone d'Amore" has gained him the most fame. The learned Cardinal Egidio Colonna, and some others, have written commentaries on it.

CAVALLO, TIBERIAS, an ingenious experimental philosopher, who was born in 1749. He was a native of Italy, and came over to this country for mercantile purposes in 1771; but, the study of nature displaying superior attractions, he was seduced from the accompting-house, to embrace the leisure of a philosophical retreat, and acquired a well-merited reputation as a digester and elucidator of philosophical discoveries. In 1779 he was admitted a member of the Neapolitan Academy of Science, as well as of the Royal Society of London. To the latter he contributed many ingenious papers; and he was the author of a variety of useful elementary works in natural and experimental philosophy. Mr. Cavallo lived for many years in Well Street, Oxford Street, where he died in 1809.

CAVE, EDWARD.—This ingenious individual was the parent of English periodical literature. He was born at Newton, in Warwickshire, on the 29th day of February, 1691. The school of Rugby, in which he had, by the rules of its foundation, a right to be instructed, was then in high reputation, under the Rev. Mr. Holyock, to whose care most of the neighbouring families, even of the highest rank, entrusted their sons. He had judgment to discover, and for some time generosity to encourage, the genius of young Cave, and was so well pleased with his quick progress in the school that he declared his resolution to educate him for the university, and recommend him as a servitor to some of his scholars of high rank. But prosperity which depends upon the caprice of others is of short duration. Cave's superiority in literature exalted him to an invidious familiarity with boys far above him in rank and expectations, and, as in unequal associations it always happens, whatever unlucky prank was played was imputed to Cave. When any mischief, great or small, was done, though perhaps others boasted of the stratagem when it was successful, yet, upon detection or miscarriage, the fault was sure to fall upon poor Cave.

At last, by some invisible means, his mistress lost a favourite cock, and Cave was with little examination stigmatized as the thief or murderer, not, indeed, because he was more apparently criminal than others, but because he was more easily reached by vindictive justice. From that time, however, Mr. Holyock withdrew his kindness from him, and treated him with a harshness which the crime, in its utmost aggravation, could scarcely deserve.

Under pretence that Cave obstructed the discipline of the school by selling clandestine assistance, and supplying exercises to idlers, he was oppressed with unreasonable tasks, that there might be an opportunity of quarrelling with his failure; and even when his diligence had surmounted them no regard was paid to the performance. Cave bore his persecution awhile, and then left the school, and the hope of a literary education, to seek some other means of acquiring his living. He was first placed with a collector of the excise. He used afterwards to recount, with some pleasure, a journey or two which he rode with him as his clerk, and relate the victories that he gained over his new master in grammatical disputations; but he soon left this place, and was bound apprentice to Mr. Collins, a printer.

His master dying before his apprenticeship was expired, Cave quitted the house upon a stipulated allowance, and married a widow, with whom he lived at Bow. When his time was out, he worked as a journeyman with the celebrated Alderman Barber. And whose principles had such an ascendancy with Cave, just at this time, that he was for some years a writer in "Mist's Journal," which, though he incidentally obtained by his wife's interest a small place in the post-office, he still continued.

He corrected during this period the "Gradus ad Parnassum," for which he was liberally remunerated by the Stationers' Company. He also wrote an "Account of the Criminals," which had for some time a considerable sale; and he published many little pamphlets which accident brought into his way. He was at length raised to the office of clerk of the franks in the post-office, in which he acted with great spirit, often stopping franks which were given by members of parliament to their friends, because he thought too great an extension of this privilege to be illegal. Having in this manner ventured to detain a frank that had been given to the celebrated duchess of Marlborough by Mr. Walter Plummer, he was cited before the house of commons; and accused, however unjustly, of opening letters to detect them. Cave was here treated with great harshness and severity; but declining to answer their questions, by pleading his oath of secrecy, was at last dismissed; and it must be recorded to his honour that, although he was ejected from his situation, he did not conceive himself to be thereby discharged from his trust, but continued to refuse to his nearest friends any information about the management of the office.

By continued industry he in time collected money sufficient for the purchase of a small printing-office, and began the "Gentleman's Magazine." To this undertaking he owed the affluence in which he passed the last twenty years of his life, and the fortune he left behind him, which, though large, had yet been larger had he not rashly impaired it by numerous absurd and unsuccessful projects.

Cave, when he projected the "Gentleman's Magazine," was far from expecting the success which he found; whilst other parties felt so little hope of its consequence that, though he had for some years talked of his plan with printers and booksellers, none of them thought it worth the experiment. Periodical publications had previously been almost wholly confined to the detailing of political transactions and domestic occurrences. But the monthly magazines have since opened a channel for every



species of enquiry and variety of information. The intelligence and discussion contained in them are very extensive and various; and they have been the means of diffusing a general habit of reading which has materially enlarged the public understanding. Many young authors, also, who have afterwards risen to great eminence, have here made their first attempts in composition. Here, too, are preserved an infinitude of curious or useful hints, observations, and facts, which otherwise might never have appeared, or, if presented in a more evanescent form, which would have incurred the danger of being lost.

Cave now began to aspire to popularity; and, being a greater lover of poetry than of any other art, he sometimes offered subjects for poems, and prizes for the best performances. His first prize was 50*l.*, for which, being but newly acquainted with wealth, and imagining that the influence of such a remuneration would prove extremely great; he anticipated the appearance of the first poets of the nation as competitors, and accordingly proposed the allotment of the prize to the universities. His experience soon undeceived him; when the time came, not one name was found among the candidates that had ever been known to the world; whilst the universities, and several private men, rejected the proffer of assigning the prize. This task was ultimately assigned to Dr. Cromwell Mortimer and Dr. Birch, and by the latter the award was made.

Edward Cave departed this life on the 10th of January, 1754, and was buried in the church of St. James's, Clerkenwell; but the following inscription, from the pen of Dr. Hawksworth, is placed at Rugby:—"Near this place lies the body of Joseph Cave, late of this parish, who departed this life November 18th 1747, aged seventy-nine years. He was placed by providence in a humble station, but industry abundantly supplied the wants of nature, and temperance blessed him with content and wealth. As he was an affectionate father, he was made happy in the decline of his life by the deserved eminence of his eldest son, Edward Cave, who, without interest, fortune, or connexion, by the native force of his own genius, assisted only by a classical education, which he received at the grammar-school of this town, planned, executed, and established a literary work, called 'The Gentleman's Magazine,' whereby he acquired an ample fortune, the whole of which devolved to his family."

**CAVENDISH, HENRY.**—This eminent chemist and experimental philosopher was the son of Lord Charles Cavendish, and born at Nice in 1731. After having spent some years at a private school at Hackney, he was sent to the university of Cambridge, where he devoted himself principally to the study of mathematics, natural philosophy, and chemistry. His taste for these pursuits he had probably derived in the first instance from his father, who was distinguished by very high attainments in the same departments of enquiry. On leaving the university, although his fortune was then but small, Mr. Cavendish voluntarily relinquished all the chances of wealth and distinction which his birth and family connexions held out to him, and resolved to devote himself to philosophical pursuits. The history of his remaining life, therefore, is little more than the history of his experiments and discoveries. Of the latter the most famous is his discovery of the composition of water, a substance which had never before been sup-

posed to be a compound at all, and which many persons no doubt still regard, like all the philosophic world till modern times, as one of the very simplest elements in nature. Cavendish, however, found out that it is actually made up of two gases, or airs, namely oxygen gas, or that which forms the principal part of the atmosphere, and hydrogen, or, as it is often called, inflammable air. Not only is it possible to form water by mixing together these two gases, but water itself can be decomposed or separated into these its two constituent ingredients.

Mr. Cavendish was also the author of many other discoveries and most ingenious speculations, which we cannot here attempt to detail. They are all to be found, as they were communicated by himself, in the Transactions of the Royal Society, of which body he was for half a century one of the most distinguished ornaments. He was also, in 1803, elected one of the eight foreign associates of the French Institute. After he was more than forty years of age, one of his uncles unexpectedly left him a considerable fortune, which, with his simple habits, accumulated rapidly. At his death his property is said to have amounted to 1,200,000*l.*, so that he was probably the richest of all the learned men of his time. One most important service which his wealth enabled him to render to his scientific friends and fellow enquirers was the establishment of an extensive library, which was liberally thrown open to the use of all persons who came properly recommended to him. They were allowed not only to consult the books, but to take them home with them. He died at his house on Clapham Common on the 24th of February, 1810, in the seventy-ninth year of his age.

**CAVENDISH, WILLIAM**, first duke of Devonshire, was the son of William, third earl of Devonshire. He was born in 1640, and instructed with great care in classical literature. On various occasions he distinguished himself by his spirit and valour, and in 1677 began that opposition to the arbitrary measures of the ministers of Charles II. which caused him to be regarded as one of the most determined friends of the liberties of his country. Intimately connected with Lord Russell, he joined him in his efforts for the security of free government and the Protestant religion. On the trial of Lord Russell he appeared as a witness in his favour, and offered to assist him in escaping after he had been sentenced to death by changing clothes with him in prison.

In 1684 Cavendish succeeded to his father's title, and, being regarded as one of the most formidable opponents of the arbitrary designs of King James II., attempts were made to intimidate him, but without success. Having been insulted by a minion of the king, he dragged him from the chamber by the nose in the royal presence. He took an active part in promoting the revolution, and was one of the first who declared for the prince of Orange. His services were rewarded with the dignity of duke of Devonshire. He still, however, maintained an independent bearing in parliament. He died in 1707.

**CAULAINCOURT, ARMAND AUGUSTIN LOUISA DE**, duke of Vicenza. He was born in 1773, and entered early into the army, being appointed aide-de-camp to his father, lieutenant-general the marquis de Caulaincourt, and both father and son retired from the service together. He after-



wards served with great distinction in the republican armies, and was made aide-de-camp to Bonaparte when first consul. He attended Napoleon in all his campaigns, but he strongly opposed the war with Russia. After the battle of Leipsic he was made a minister of foreign affairs, which post he held during the discussions at the congress at Chatillon. After the restoration of the Bourbons he took no part in public affairs. His death took place at Paris on the 13th of February, 1827.

**CAXTON, WILLIAM.**—This eminent typographer was born in the Weald of Kent about the year 1412. At this period learning of all kinds was in a much more depressed state in England than in most of the continental countries, in consequence principally of the civil war in which the nation was embroiled, the habits of restlessness thus produced, and the constant pre-occupation of the time and thoughts of men in promoting the cause they espoused, and in protecting their lives and property. Under these circumstances the most plain and common education was often neglected. Caxton's parents, however, performed their duty to him. "I am bouden," says he, "to pray for my father and mother, that in my youth sent me to school, by which, by the sufferance of God, I get my living, I hope truly." When he was about fifteen or sixteen he was put apprentice to William Large, a mercer of London, and afterwards mayor. The name mercer was given at this time to general merchants trading in all kinds of goods.

After he had served his apprenticeship, Caxton took up his freedom in the mercers' company, and became a citizen of London. Some subsequent years he spent in travelling in various countries on the continent of Europe. In 1464 he was appointed ambassador to the court of the duke of Burgundy. During his residence in the Low Countries he acquired or perfected his knowledge of the French language, gained some knowledge of Flemish or Dutch, imbibed a taste for literature and romance, and, at great expense, made himself master of the art of printing. About 1472 Caxton returned to England, and introduced, in all probability, the art of printing into this country. The common opinion is that the "Game of Chess" was the first book printed by Caxton, though Mr. Dibdin thinks that the "Romance of Jason" was printed before it. Caxton was most indefatigable in cultivating his art. Besides the labour necessarily attached to his press, he translated not fewer than 5000 closely-printed folio pages, though well stricken in years. The productions of his press amount to sixty-four. In 1480 he published his "Chronicle," and his "Description of Britain," which is usually subjoined to it.

"After divers works," says he, "made, translated, and achieved, having no work in hand, I, sitting in my study, where as lay many divers pamphlets and books, it happened that to my hand came a little book in French, which late was translated out of Latin by some noble clerk of France, which book is named 'Eneid,' as made in Latin by that noble person and great clerk, Virgil, which book I saw over and read therein (he then describes the contents), in which book I had great pleasure, by cause of the fair and honest terms and words, in French, which I never saw tofore like, ne none so pleasant, ne so well ordered, which book, as me seemed, should be much requisite to noble men to see, as well for the elo-

quence as histories; and, when I had advised me in this said book, I deliberated and concluded to translate it into English, and forthwith took a pen and ink and wrote a leaf or twain, which I oversaw again, to correct it; and, when I saw the fair and strange terms therein, I doubted that it should not please some gentlemen which late blamed me, saying that in my former translations I had over curious terms, which could not be understood of common people, and desired me to use old and homely terms in my translations; and fain would I satisfy every man. And, so to do, took an old book and read therein; and certainly the English was so rude and broad that I could not well understand it. And also my lord abbot of Westminster did show to me late certain evidences, written in old English, for to reduce it into our English now used; and certainly it was written in such wise that was more like to Dutch than to English. I could not reduce, nor bring it to be understanden. Certainly the language now used varieth far from that which was used and spoken when I was born, for we Englishmen been born under the domination of the moon, which is never at rest, but ever wavering. The most quantity of the people understand not Latin, nor French, in this realm of England."

For some time previously to his decease Caxton appears to have attended the making up of the church-warden's accounts, as one of the principal parishioners, and as a regular vestryman, his name being several times subscribed at the passing of them. He died either in 1491 or 1492. "If his funeral," says Mr. Dibdin, "was not emblazoned by 'the pomp of heraldry,' and 'the great ones of rank' were not discoverable among his pall-bearers, yet Caxton descended into his grave in full assurance of a monument which, like the art that he had practised, would bid defiance to decay." A greater benefactor, indeed, to the intellectual improvement of his country it would be difficult to mention than him who introduced the art of printing.

**CAYLUS, ANNE CLAUDE PHILIPPE DE TUBIERES, COUNT OF.**—He was born in October, 1692, at Paris, where he received an education equally solid and splendid. After having served in the army during the war of the Spanish succession, he left the service in 1715, accompanied Bonac on his embassy to Constantinople the following year, and visited Greece, Troy, Ephesus, Byzantium, and Adrianople. In 1717 he returned to Paris, according to the wish of his mother, and began here to arrange his extensive collections. He commenced a great work on Egyptian, Grecian, Etruscan, Roman, and Gallic antiquities, with numerous plates. He was a member of the academy of painting and of the academy of inscriptions, and divided his labours between them. He made a chemical examination of the ancient method of encaustic painting, investigated the mode of painting on marble, the art of hardening copper, the mode by which the Egyptians raised great weights, the mummies, painting on wax, and many other subjects. If he has sometimes misunderstood the ancient authors, and committed some errors with respect to ancient monuments, he has, nevertheless, treated with great success of the processes and materials employed in the arts by the ancients. He died in 1765. Integrity, simplicity, and disinterestedness, were united in his character; with occasional traits of dogmatism. Caylus was



also an industrious and skilful engraver, and has furnished a collection of more than 200 engravings, after drawings in the royal cabinet, and a great number of heads, after the first masters.

**CAZWINI, ZACHARIA BEN MOHAMMED**, an Arabian naturalist, descended from a family of lawyers, who derived their origin from Anas Ben Malek, a companion of Mohammed, who had settled in Caswin, a city in Persia. From that place this author received the surname under which he has become celebrated. Of the circumstances of his life we know only that he was cadi of Wazith and Hillah, and died in the year of the hegira 682 (A. D. 1283). His most important work is on natural history, "The Wonders of Nature and the Peculiarities of Creation," of which Ideler, professor in the university of Berlin, has published the chapter on the "Constellations of the Arabians," and of which there are fragments in Bochart's "Hierozoikon," in Ousley's "Oriental Collections," and in Wahl's, Jahn's, and De Stacy's "Arab. Chrestomathias." It was the object of Cazwini, like Pliny, to describe the wonders of all nature. His work contains a comprehensive view of all that had been written before him, but in so accurate a manner that it is of higher value than most of the original works which treat of the same subjects. There is an abridged translation of it in the Persian.

**CECIL, WILLIAM LORD BURLEIGH**.—This eminent English statesman was son to Richard Cecil, master of the robes to Henry VIII., and was born at Bourne in Lincolnshire in 1520. He studied at St. John's College Cambridge, whence he removed to Gray's Inn, with a view to prepare himself for the practice of the law. Having carried on a successful controversy with two Irish priests on the subject of the pope's supremacy, he obtained the notice of the king; and, being presented with the reversion of the office of *custos brevium*, was encouraged to push his fortune at court. Having married the sister of Sir John Cheke he was by his brother-in-law recommended to the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector Somerset. Having lost his first wife, he took for a second the daughter of Sir Anthony Cooke, director of the studies of Edward VI., and by his alliance with this lady, herself eminent for learning, still further increased his influence.

Cecil rose in 1547 to the post of master of requests, and, soon after, to that of secretary. He endured, in this reign, some of the vicissitudes which befel his patron Somerset, but always recovered his standing, and, in 1551, was knighted and sworn a member of the privy council. His declining to aid the proclamation of Lady Jane Grey secured him a gracious reception from Queen Mary, although he forfeited his office because he would not change his religion. In 1555 he attended Cardinal Pole and the other commissioners appointed to treat for peace with France; and on his return, being chosen knight of the shire for the county of Lincoln, distinguished himself by opposing a bill brought in for the confiscation of estates on account of religious principles. Cecil's foresight led him into a timely correspondence with the princess Elizabeth previously to her accession, to whom, in her critical situation, his advice was exceedingly serviceable. On her accession, in 1558, he was appointed privy counsellor and secretary of state. One of the first acts of her reign was the settlement of religion, which Cecil conducted with great

skill and prudence, considering the difficulties to be encountered. In foreign affairs he showed much tact in guarding against the danger arising from the catholic powers, and very judiciously lent support to the reformation in Scotland. The general tenour of Cecil's policy was cautious, and rested upon an avoidance of open hostilities and a reliance on secret negotiations and intrigues with opposing parties in the neighbouring countries, with a view to avert the dangers which threatened his own. This, upon the whole, was a course almost necessary, considering the situation of England, with a powerful dissatisfied party at home, much dangerous enmity on the part of catholic Europe, and an alliance existing between Scotland and France.

On the suppression of the northern rebellion, in 1571, Elizabeth raised Cecil to the peerage by the title of "Baron Burleigh," and the following year made him a knight of the garter. He is charged with being deeply engaged in fomenting the troubles which caused the flight of the imprudent and unhappy Mary Stuart into England; and, after the discovery of Babington's conspiracy, he never ceased urging her trial and condemnation. He endured for a short time the hypocritical resentment of Elizabeth at the execution of the queen of Scots, but, after a while, recovered his former credit. At the time of the threatened Spanish invasion, he drew up the plan for the defence of the country with his usual care and ability. But soon after losing his wife, to whom he was warmly attached, he became desirous of retiring from public business and leaving the field open to his son Robert, afterwards so celebrated as earl of Salisbury. He was persuaded, however, to keep his employment; and one of his latest efforts was to effect a peace with Spain, in opposition to the more heated counsels of the earl of Essex.

This great minister died in the bosom of his family, and in the possession of all his honours, in 1598. He left behind him the character of the ablest minister of an able reign. How far the emergencies of the period ought to excuse a portion of his dark and crooked policy it may be difficult to determine. But it is easy to decide that almost every school of politicians, under similar circumstances, have countenanced similar laxity under the dangerous plea of expediency. The private character of Burleigh was highly regarded; for, although he failed not to improve his opportunities as a courtier, he always exhibited a probity which conciliated esteem. He possessed, in a high degree, the solid learning, gravity, and decorum, which in that age usually accompanied elevated station. In his mode of living he was noble and splendid, but at the same time economical, and attentive to the formation of a competent fortune for his family. His early occupation as a statesman precluded much attention to literature; but he is mentioned as the author of a few Latin verses and of some historical tracts. A great number of his letters on business are still extant.

**CECIL, ROBERT, EARL OF SALISBURY**, second son of Lord Burleigh, was born according to some accounts about the year 1550; but his birth may, with more probability, be placed thirteen years later. He was deformed and of a weak constitution, on which account he was educated at home, till his removal to the university of Cambridge. Having received the honour of knighthood, he went to France



as assistant to the English ambassador, the earl of Derby, and, in 1596, was appointed one of the secretaries of state. On the death of Sir Francis Walsingham, he succeeded him as principal secretary, and continued to be a confidential minister of Queen Elizabeth to the end of her reign. Having secretly supported the interests of James I. previous to his accession to the crown, and taken measures to facilitate that event, he was continued in office under the new sovereign, and raised to the peerage. In 1603 he was created a baron, in 1604 Viscount Cranbourn, and in 1605 earl of Salisbury. The same year he was chosen chancellor of the university of Cambridge and made a knight of the garter. He was the political rather than the personal favourite of the king, whom he served with zeal and fidelity; and, as he was certainly the ablest, so he was perhaps the most honest minister who presided over the affairs of state during that reign.

In 1608, on the decease of the lord high treasurer the earl of Dorset, that office was bestowed on Lord Salisbury, who held it till his death in 1612. This event took place at Marlborough as he was returning to London from Bath, whither he had gone in a very debilitated state of health, to use the mineral waters. An interesting account of his journey and of the last hours of this eminent statesman, drawn up by one of his domestics, may be found in Peck's "*Desiderata Curiosa*." Lord Salisbury was the author of a "*Treatise against the Papists*," and of "*Notes on Dec's Discourse on the Reformation of the Calendar*," and some of his letters, despatches, and speeches in parliament have been published.

CELLARIUS, CHRISTOPHER, a celebrated geographer, born at Smalcald in 1638. After having studied at various German universities, he was at the age of thirty chosen professor of ethics and the oriental languages at the college of Weissenfels. In 1673 he removed to Weimar, and was afterwards rector of the college of Zeitz and then of the college of Mersberg. On the foundation of the university of Halle, in 1694, he was appointed professor of rhetoric and history. He died in 1707, aged sixty-eight. His productions are very numerous, comprising useful editions of the works of several Latin and Greek writers; but he is best known as the author of a system of ancient geography, entitled "*Notitia Orbis Antiqui*," of which there are many editions.

CELLINI, BENVENUTO, a celebrated sculptor, engraver, and goldsmith, born at Florence in 1500. He was particularly distinguished by his works in gold and silver, which have become very rare, and are sold at present at immense prices. Of a bold, fearless, and open character, but vain, and quarrelsome, and impatient of encroachment and dependence, he was often entangled in quarrels, which frequently caused his antagonists their lives. He himself incurred great dangers, was put into prison, and was saved only by his boldness and the powerful protectors whom his talents as an artist procured him. At the siege of Rome (if we believe his own account given in his autobiography), he killed with one cannon shot the constable of Bourbon and with another the prince of Orange. Cellini was afterwards imprisoned on the charge of having stolen the jewels of the papal crown, which were entrusted to him during the siege, and was released only by the interference of Francis I., whose court he visited, and executed there several works. He

afterwards returned to Florence, and, under the patronage of Cosmo, made a Perseus with the head of Medusa in bronze, which is still an ornament of the market-place; also a statue of Christ, in the chapel of the Pitti palace, besides many excellent dies for coins and medals. In his fifty-eighth year he wrote his own life in Latin, with equal candour and vanity. It has been translated in a masterly manner by Göthe into German. There is also an English translation by Doctor Nugent, published in 1771, which has been still further improved in a modern edition. It contains striking descriptions of Cellini's own adventures, and of the characters of the persons with whom he came in contact.

CELSUS, AURELIUS.—This eminent writer on medicine appears to have flourished in the first century of the Christian era, but little is known of his history. He is said to have written on rhetoric and other subjects; but his "*De Medicina Libri Octo*," on which his fame rests, is the only work now remaining, and it has gone through a great number of editions. The surgical part is most esteemed as corresponding nearest to the present practice; but the whole is written in a style so pure and elegant as to entitle him to a place among the Latin classics. Dr. Clarke has enumerated nearly forty editions, the best of which are thought to be Almeloveen's, Padua, which was published in 1722, and reprinted in 1750, and one published by Krause, with the notes of Scalliger, Casaubon, Almeloveen, Morgagni, &c., to which we may add an edition published at Edinburgh and London in 1809. In 1756 an English translation, with notes, was published by Dr. Grieve, the historian of Kamschatka.

CENCI, BEATRICE, called the beautiful paricide, was the cause of the extermination of the noble family of Cenci. Muratori, in his "*Annals*," relates the story as follows:—"Francesco Cenci, a noble and wealthy Roman, after his second marriage conducted himself towards the children of his first marriage in the most shocking manner, procured the assassination of two of his sons, on their return from Spain, by banditti, and, what is still more horrid, seduced his youngest daughter, a maiden of singular beauty. Beatrice discovered this shocking crime to her relatives, and even sought to obtain protection from Pope Clement. It appears, however, that this was not granted; for, when the guilty father continued his former treatment with aggravated wickedness, she joined with her brother Giacomo, and procured the death of the monster, by two assassins, as he slept. The guilty parties were discovered, confessed the murder on the rack, and were condemned by the pope to be torn to pieces by horses." According to other accounts, Beatrice and her relatives appear to have had little or no share in the murder of the old Cenci; but a tissue of villany and baseness gained belief to the false testimony of two banditti against the Cenci family. So much is certain, that on the 11th of September, 1599, Beatrice Cenci and her sister were executed with a sort of guillotine, called mannaia; but the estates of the family, to which belonged the villa Borghese, since so famed for its treasures of art, were confiscated and presented by the reigning pope, Paul V., of the house of Borghese, to his family. In the palace of Colonna, at Rome, travellers are shown an excellent painting, said to be by Guido Reni, as the portrait of the unfortunate paricide; and this charming

picture of the beautiful girl has been the means of spreading over all Europe the tale of horror connected with it.

**CENTLIVRE, SUSANNA.**—This celebrated dramatic writer was born in Ireland in 1667. Her mind having early taken a romantic turn, on being unkindly treated by those who had the care of her after the death of her mother, she formed the resolution of going to London. Travelling by herself on foot, she was met by Mr. Hammond, father of the author of the "Love Elegies," then a student at the university of Cambridge, who persuaded her to assume the habit of a boy, in which disguise she lived with him some months at college. At length, fearing a discovery, he induced her to proceed to the metropolis, where, being yet only in her sixteenth year, she married a nephew of Sir Stephen Fox. Becoming a widow within a year, she took for a second husband an officer of the army, of the name of Carrol, who was killed in a duel the second year of their marriage. This event in her singular career reduced her to considerable distress, and led her to attempt dramatic composition. Her first production was a tragedy entitled "The Perjured Husband," which was performed in 1700. This was followed by several comedies, chiefly translations from the French, which exhibited the vivacity that distinguishes her literary character, and met with some temporary success. She also tried the stage as an actress on the provincial boards, and by that means attracted the attention of her third and last husband, Mr. Centlivre, yeoman to Queen Anne, whom she married in 1706. She still continued writing for the stage, and produced several more comedies. Some of these remain stock-pieces, of which number are "The Busy Body," "The Wonder," and "A Bold Stroke for a Wife." They are diverting from the bustle of the incident and the liveliness of the characters, but want the accompaniments of adequate language and forcible delineation. They partook of the license of the age.

Mrs. Centlivre enjoyed the friendship of Steele, Farquhar, Rowe, and other wits of the day. Having, however, offended Pope, she obtained a place in the "Dunciad," but is introduced by no means characteristically. She was handsome in person, and her conversation was sprightly and agreeable; her disposition also appears to have been friendly and benevolent. She died in 1723. Besides her dramatic works, published in three volumes, in 1763, a volume of her poems and letters were collected and published by Boyer.

**CERACCHI, JOSEPH.**—This eminent sculptor was born at Rome. In 1799 he was among the warmest partisans of the new republic. On the re-establishment of the papal authority, he was obliged to leave Rome, and went to Paris, where he was employed in making a bust of the first consul. Nevertheless, he joined the young French artists whom he had known at Rome, and whose ardent republican opinions coincided with his own, in a conspiracy against Bonaparte, in whom he saw only the oppressor of his country. In October, 1800, he was arrested at the opera, with Arena, Damerville, and Tipino Lebrun. Before the tribunal he answered only in monosyllables to the questions put to him. He was sentenced to death, together with his accomplices, and ascended the scaffold, February 22, 1801, with great firmness. The death of this disciple and almost rival of Canova was a great loss to sculpture.

**CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, MIGUEL DE,** one of the greatest writers of modern times, was probably born at Alcala de Henares, in 1547. His parents removed from that place to Madrid when he was about seven years old. Their limited means made it desirable that he should fix on some professional study, but he followed his irresistible inclination to poetry, which his master, Juan Lopez, encouraged. Elegies, ballads, sonnets, and a pastoral, were the first productions of his poetical genius; but poverty compelled him to quit his country, at the age of twenty-two, to seek maintenance elsewhere. He went to Italy, where he became page to Cardinal Guilio Aquaviva, in Rome. In 1570 he served under the papal commander, M. A. Colonna, in the war against the Turks and African corsairs, with distinguished courage. In the battle of Lepanto he lost his left hand. After this he joined the troops at Naples, in the service of the Spanish king.



In 1575 Cervantes, returning to his country, was taken by the corsair Arnaut Mami, and sold in Algiers as a slave. Servitude, far from subduing his mind, served to strengthen his faculties. Vincente de los Rios and M. F. Navarrete, his chief biographers, relate the bold but unsuccessful plans which he formed to obtain his freedom; but as the only information we have of that period of his life is from his own novel, "The Prisoner," of which we cannot positively say that it relates merely the facts of his imprisonment, we cannot determine, with great accuracy, his adventures in Barbary. In 1580 his friends and relations at length ransomed him. At the beginning of the following year, he arrived in Spain, and from this time lived in seclusion, entirely devoted to the muses. It was natural to expect something uncommon from a man who, with inexhaustible invention, great richness of imagination, keen wit, and a happy humour, united a mature, penetrating, and clear intellect, and great knowledge of real life and mankind in general. But it rarely happens that expectation is so much surpassed as was the case with Cervantes.

He began his new poetical career with the pastoral



novel "Galatea," in which he celebrates the praises of his mistress. Soon after the publication of this he married. Being thus obliged to look out for more lucrative labour, he employed his poetical genius for the stage; and in the course of ten years furnished about thirty dramas, amongst which his tragedy called "Numantia" is particularly valued. He was not so successful in another kind of drama, particularly favoured by the Spaniards, a tangled mixture of intrigues and adventures; and this was doubtless the cause why he was supplanted by Lope de Vega, who was particularly qualified for this kind of composition. He consequently gave up the theatre, but, it seems, not without regret.

From 1594 to 1599 Cervantes lived retired at Seville, where he held a small office. He did not appear again as an author till after the lapse of ten years, when he produced a work which has immortalized his name—"Don Quixote." Cervantes had in view, by this work, to reform the taste and opinions of his countrymen. He wished to ridicule that adventurous heroism, with all its evil consequences, the source of which was the innumerable novels on knight-errantry. The beginning of the work was at first coldly received, but soon met with the greatest applause, in which, at a later period, the whole of Europe joined. Cervantes's true poetical genius was nowhere so powerfully displayed as in his "Don Quixote," which, notwithstanding its prosaic purpose and its satirical aim, is full of genuine poetry. While it struggles against the prevailing false romance of the time, it displays the most truly romantic spirit.

The extraordinary good fortune of the work did not extend to the author. All his attempts to better his condition were unsuccessful, and he lived retired with his genius and his poverty, and a modest though proud estimation of his merits. After an interval of some years, he again appeared before the public, in 1613, with twelve novels (which may be placed by the side of Boccaccio's), and his "Journey to Parnassus"—an attempt to improve the taste of the nation. In 1615 he published eight new dramas, with intermezzos, which, however, were indifferently received. Envy and ill-will, in the mean time, assailed him, and endeavoured to deprive the neglected author of his literary fame, for which the delay of the continuation of "Don Quixote" afforded the pretext. An unknown writer published, under the name of Alonzo Fernandez de Avellaneda, a continuation of this work, full of abuse against Cervantes. He felt the malice of the act painfully, but revenged himself in a noble manner, by producing the continuation of his "Don Quixote," the last of his works which appeared during his life time, for his novel of "Persiles and Sigismunda" was published after his death. He found a faithful friend in the count of Lemos, and was thus saved from the death of Butler; but poverty, his constant companion through life, remained true to him till his last moments.

The last act of Cervantes's life was to write a dedication to his patron, the count of Lemos. He says "there is an old ballad, which in its day was much in vogue, and it began thus: 'And now with one foot in the stirrup,' &c. I could wish this did not fall so pat to my epistle, for I can almost say in the same words,

'And now with one foot in the stirrup,  
Setting out for the regions of death,  
To write this epistle I cheer up,  
And salute my lord with my last breath.'

Yesterday they gave me the extreme unction, and to-day I write this. Time is short, pains increase, hopes diminish, and yet, for all this, I would live a little longer, methinks, not for the sake of living, but that I might kiss your excellency's feet; and it is not impossible but the pleasure of seeing your excellency safe and well in Spain might make me well too. But, if I am decreed to die, heaven's will be done. Your excellency will at least give me leave to inform you of this my desire, and likewise that you had in me so zealous and well-affected a servant as was willing to go even beyond death to serve you, if it had been possible for his abilities to equal his sincerity. However, I prophetically rejoice at your excellency's arrival again in Spain; my heart leaps within me to fancy you shown to one another by the people, 'There goes the Comte de Lemos!' And it revives my spirits to see the accomplishment of those hopes which I have so long conceived of your excellency's perfections. There are still remaining in my soul certain glimmerings of 'The Weeks of Garden,' and of the famous Bernardo. If by good luck, or rather by a miracle, heaven spares my life, your excellency shall see them both, and with them the 'second part' of 'Galatea,' which I know your excellency would not be ill-pleased to see. And so I conclude with my ardent wishes that the almighty will preserve your excellency.

"Your excellency's servant,

"MICHAEL DE CERVANTES.

"Madrid, April 19, 1616."

This celebrated man died at Madrid, four days after he had written this curious dedication. He was buried without any ceremony, and not even a common tombstone marks the spot where he rests. In addition to his celebrity as an author, he left the reputation of a man of a firm and noble character, clear-sighted to his own faults and those of others. Many of his works are translated into all the languages of Europe, but his "Don Quixote" has been more read and admired than any other satirical novel that ever was written. Mr. Davenport has done ample justice to this illustrious author in our own country.

CERUTTI, GIUSEPPE ANTONIO JOACHIMO.—This eminent Jesuit was born at Turin, June 13th, 1738. He was one of the last members of the order (previously to its dissolution in 1773), and one of their most eminent professors in the college at Lyons. His "Apology for the Jesuits" attracted much attention. He had already published two discourses upon the means of preventing duels, and on the reasons why modern republics have not reached the splendour of the ancient. The last received the prize of the academy of Dijon. The "Apology for the Jesuits" gained him the favour of the dauphin. He was at Paris when the revolution broke out in 1789. His principles, and perhaps a desire of revenging the humiliations which he had experienced as a defender of the Jesuits, made him one of the most zealous supporters of the new order of things. He was intimately connected with Mirabeau, and laboured much for him. He also published several pamphlets, among which was a "Mémoire sur la Nécessité des Contributions Patriotiques." In 1791 he was a member of the legislative assembly. Some time after he delivered in the church of St. Eustache a funeral discourse upon Mirabeau. Ex-

haunted by his zealous exertions, he died Feb. 2, 1792. The city of Paris called a street after his name.

**CESAROTTI, MELCHIOR**, one of the most celebrated of the Italian literati of the eighteenth century, born at Padua in 1730 of a noble family. He devoted himself to the belles lettres, and was soon chosen professor of rhetoric in the seminary in which he was educated. He translated three tragedies of Voltaire. In 1762 he went to Venice, where he translated Ossian into Italian, and was, in 1768, appointed professor of the Greek and Hebrew languages in the university of Padua. Here he published his translation of Demosthenes and of Homer, and his course of Greek literature. After the establishment of the republican government, in 1799, he was appointed by the existing authorities to write an "Essay on Study." In this he made suggestions for the improvement of education. In 1807 appeared his poem called "Pronea," in praise of his benefactor, Napoleon. In spite of his advanced age, he subsequently occupied himself with an edition of all his works, which he had commenced in 1800, but his death in 1808 prevented the completion of this enterprise. Cesarotti was a man of great talents and genius. His prose is animated and powerful, but he indulges too much in innovations, particularly Gallicisms, and cannot therefore compete with such writers as Machiavelli, Galileo, &c. The translation of Ossian is considered his best poetical production, and Alfieri praises its beautiful versification. A complete edition of Cesarotti's works was published by his friend and successor, Giuseppe Barbieri.

**CEVA, THOMAS**, born at Milan in 1648. Lessing says that this Italian Jesuit, who died in 1737, was as great a mathematician as a poet, and truly a poet, not merely a rhymester, as appears from his Latin poem, "The Puer Jesus," which he considered as a comic epopee rather than as a true epic poem. He published several excellent mathematical works; for instance, one on the division of angles, and "Opuscula Mathematica." He also wrote several biographies, as that of the Italian poet Lemene, with judicious remarks upon poetry.

**CEVALLOS, DON PEDRO**, a Spanish minister, of an ancient family of Old Castile, born in 1764 at Santander, studied at Valladolid, was a long time secretary of legation at Lisbon, married a relation of the prince of Peace, was made minister of foreign affairs, and discharged the duties of this office with prudence and sagacity. But, when the schemes of Napoleon began to throw the court of Madrid into confusion, he took part with the prince of Asturias, upon whom all the Spanish patriots, who desired the independence of their country, placed their hopes. He followed him to Bayonne, was a witness of the events that happened there, and accepted from Joseph Bonaparte the office of premier. Joseph thought, perhaps, that a man so generally popular would prove an important support to his cause; but, as soon as he arrived at Madrid, he declared himself against Joseph and joined the Spanish junta. In their service he went to London, where he published a celebrated work on the affairs of Spain. Cevallos lived to see his country freed from the yoke of the French, and he died much regretted.

**CHABERT, JOSEPH BERNARD, MARQUIS OF**, a distinguished navigator, astronomer, and geographer. He was born at Toulon, February 28, 1724,

and in 1746 sailed to Acadia (Nova Scotia) with a French squadron. This voyage made him sensible of the imperfection of all the charts of America that had been attempted. Immediately on his return to Paris, he commenced the study of astronomy, and first introduced the naval officers of France to an acquaintance with a science of great importance to their maritime skill, and often to their safety. In the war which continued till 1748 he obtained the cross of St. Louis. After peace was concluded he presented to the government a plan for a voyage of observation in the North American seas, which was executed in 1750. In 1758 he was chosen a member of the academy, and formed the project of a chart of the Mediterranean. He commenced this work in 1764. He was likewise made inspector-general of the naval dépôts. While he held this office the celebrated Méchain spent several years under his direction, in reducing and arranging a great number of observations which had been made by Chabert, as the foundation for a new atlas of the coasts of the Mediterranean.

The American war interrupted the work, and called the brave Chabert to his post, where he distinguished himself so highly that in 1781 he was made commander of a squadron. The revolution drove him to England, and he was received by Dr. Maskelyne with great kindness. In 1800 he lost his sight, in consequence of his intense application to study, and in 1802 returned to Paris, where Bonaparte assigned him a pension. In 1804 he was appointed a member of the board of longitude, and in 1805 he presented to it a map of Greece, and a description of the coasts of that country. Notwithstanding his blindness, his powerful memory enabled him to make additions to the stores of scientific facts. Lalande praises his accuracy in observations, his patience, his diligence, and his courage in overcoming every obstacle, in the highest terms. He died December 2, 1805, of a pulmonary disease.

**CHALONER, SIR THOMAS**.—This celebrated statesman was born at London in 1515. He received a good education in the university of Cambridge, and afterwards went to Germany, where he was so well received at the court of the emperor Charles V., and was so highly pleased with the noble spirit of that great monarch, that he attended him in his journeys and in his wars, particularly in that fatal expedition against Algiers, which cost the lives of so many brave men, and was very near cutting short the thread of Mr. Chaloner's; for, in the great tempest by which the emperor's fleet was shattered on the coast of Barbary in 1541, the vessel on board of which he was suffered shipwreck, and Mr. Chaloner, having quite wearied and exhausted himself by swimming in the dark, at length reached a cable, of which laying hold with his teeth, he was provisionally drawn up into the ship to which it belonged. He returned soon after, and, as a reward for his learning and services, was promoted to the office of first clerk of the council, which he held during the remainder of that reign. In the beginning of the next he came into great favour with the duke of Somerset, whom he attended into Scotland, and was in the battle of Musselburgh, where he distinguished himself so remarkably in the presence of the duke that he conferred upon him the honour of knighthood, and after his return to court the duchess of Somerset presented him with a rich jewel. The first cloud



that darkened his patron's fortune proved fatal to Sir Thomas Chaloner's pretensions; for being a man of a warm and open temper, and conceiving the obligation he was under to the duke as a tie that hindered his making court to his adversary, a stop was put to his preferment, and a vigilant eye kept upon his actions. But his loyalty to his prince, and his exact discharge of his duty, secured him from any further danger, so that he had leisure to apply himself to his studies and to cultivate his acquaintance with the worthiest men of that court, particularly Sir John Cheke, Sir Anthony Coke, Sir Thomas Smith, and especially Sir William Cecil, with whom he always lived in the strictest intimacy. Upon the accession of Elizabeth, Chaloner appeared at court with his former influence; and it must afford us a very high opinion of his character as well as his capacity that he was the first ambassador named by that princess, and that also to the first prince in Europe, Ferdinand I. emperor of Germany. In this negociation, which was of equal importance and delicacy, he acquitted himself with great reputation, securing the confidence of the emperor and his ministers, and preventing the catholic powers from associating against Elizabeth before she was well settled on the throne, all which she very gratefully acknowledged. After his return from this embassy he was soon appointed to another, which was that of Spain; and, though it is certain the queen could not give a stronger proof than this of her confidence in his abilities, yet he was very far from thinking that it was any mark of her kindness, more especially considering the terms upon which she then stood with King Philip. But he knew the queen would be obeyed, and therefore undertook the business with the best grace he could, and embarked for Spain in 1561. On his first arrival he met with the treatment which he dreaded. This was the searching of all his trunks and cabinets, of which he complained loudly, as equally injurious to himself as a gentleman and to his character as a public minister. His complaints, however, were fruitless; for at that time there is great probability that his catholic majesty was not very desirous of having an English minister, and more especially one of Sir Thomas's disposition at his court, and therefore gave him no satisfaction. Chaloner returned to London in the latter end of 1564, and devoted himself to literature. He resided in a large house of his own building in Clerkenwell Close, opposite a decayed nunnery; and Weever has preserved from oblivion an elegant design of his, which was pencilled on the frontispiece of his dwelling. He died on the 7th of October, 1565, and was buried in the cathedral church of St. Paul with great funeral solemnity, Sir William Cecil, then principal secretary of state, assisting as chief mourner, who also honoured his memory with some Latin verses, in which he observes that the most lively imagination, the most solid judgment, the quickest parts, and the most unblemished probity, which are commonly the lot of different men, and when so dispersed frequently create great characters, were, which very rarely happens, all united in Sir Thomas Chaloner, justly therefore reputed one of the greatest men of his time.

CHALOTAIS, LOUIS REVE DE CARADEUC.—This distinguished individual was born at Rennes on the 6th of March, 1701. His celebrity is principally founded on the legal process instituted

against him, which accelerated the progress of the French revolution. By the force of his eloquence and the independence of his principles Chalotais gained the esteem of the people, and after the sixtieth year of his age excited general attention by the attack which he commenced against the Jesuits. The French court had given them permission to remain in the kingdom, but sought to weaken their influence. D'Alembert, Duclos, Condillac, Mably, Montesquieu, and Diderot, the friends of Chalotais, strove to effect the abolition of the order in France. But it was attacked with the greatest violence in Chalotais's celebrated work, which first appeared in 1761, and has been frequently reprinted, "*Comptes rendus des Constitutions des Jésuites*," which he first read in his official capacity before the parliament of Rennes. His example was followed in the other parliaments, and the consequence was a dissolution of the order.

Chalotais was supported in this process by that hatred which infallibly attends the abuse of power, and particularly by the numerous Jansenists in France, who had so long opposed the Jesuits. He was aided also by the irresolution of the court and the envy of the other religious orders. In vain did Caveyrac, who attempted at first to justify the repeal of the edict of Nantes, write in defence of the Jesuits; in vain did Menouc, Griffet, and the ingenious Cerutti, of their own party, plead the services which they had rendered to the cause of God and to the throne of France, and the brilliant talents which had been developed in their schools. The independent character of Chalotais soon gave his enemies an opportunity of revenging themselves, when a dispute arose between the court and the parliament of Rennes, on account of the refusal of the latter to register certain financial edicts which seemed to infringe the privileges of the duchy of Bretagne.

After serving his country for thirty-six years, Chalotais was arrested with his son and five counsellors of the parliament, who favoured his cause, and thrown into prison. He suffered this treatment as the supposed author of several anonymous letters to one of the ministry, in which the style of a person of the lowest class was imitated. The prisoner in vain protested his innocence in several memorials, seconded by the pen of Voltaire and the public voice. The commission appointed to examine him published their proceedings, and condemned him before the regular forms of law had been all complied with. Calonne, the minister who conducted the process, and the duke of Aiguillon, governor of the province, were the personal enemies of the prisoner. The parliament of Rennes was dissolved, and a new one summoned, which assumed the right of judging in the case of Chalotais. But the process had scarcely commenced when the greatest part of the judges refused to serve; the rest, thirteen in number, were objected to by the prisoner on account of their partiality to the side of the prosecution. The voice of the people at length prevailed. The remonstrances of the court and of the duke of Choiseul determined the king to put a stop to the proceedings. The prisoners were banished to Saintes. Chalotais was requested to resign his office, but he refused. The parliament of Rennes desired the reinstatement of all its members. New pamphlets in relation to the suit appeared every day, and 150 distributors of them were imprisoned in the Bicêtre. The officers of

government at length grew weary of burning the numerous publications, or, as it was said publicly, of burning the truth. From this tedious prosecution of the attorney-general a new action arose. The parliament of Rennes commenced a process against the governor, the duke of Aiguillon, but Louis XVI. set the attorney at liberty.

After ten years of persecution Chalotais was reinstated in his office at Rennes. The whole process against Chalotais was characterized by weakness as much as by tyranny, and indicated the approaching ruin of a despotism which had lost its energy. In 1826 a Jesuit writer in Paris assailed the character of Chalotais anew. A prosecution was commenced against him by the heirs of the accused, and he was brought in guilty.

CHAMBERLAYNE, EDWARD, a celebrated writer on statistics, who was born at Odington in Gloucestershire in 1616, and received his education at Edmund Hall, Oxford, where he became M.A. in 1641. During the civil war he travelled through several parts of Europe; and, returning home after the restoration, he became one of the first fellows of the Royal Society. In 1669 he was appointed secretary to the earl of Carlisle, and was sent to Stockholm to invest the king of Sweden with the order of the garter. He was made LL.D. at Cambridge in 1670; and he was afterwards employed as tutor to the first duke of Grafton, and also as teacher of English to George, prince of Denmark. He died in 1703 at Chelsea, and was interred in the church-yard of that parish, where there is an inscription recording the fact of his having ordered some of his publications to be covered with wax and enclosed in his tomb, "for the benefit of posterity." He was the author of several works, among which is a treatise entitled "*Angliæ Notitia, or the Present State of England*," which first appeared in 1668, and has gone through many editions.

CHAMBERLEN, HUGH, a physician and accoucheur of great eminence, who was born in 1664, and studied at the university of Cambridge, where he obtained the diploma of M.D. in 1690. At the birth of the son of King James II. by his second wife, Mary of Modena, Chamberlen was in attendance; and he afterwards wrote an account of that event addressed to the princess Sophia of Hanover, in order to counteract the rumours in circulation, purporting that the pregnancy of the queen had been feigned, and the child consequently supposititious. He also published a translation of a treatise on midwifery from the French of Mauriceau, and made some valuable improvements in obstetrical instruments. He died in 1728, and was interred in Westminster Abbey, where there is a monument erected to his memory.

CHAMBERS, SIR WILLIAM, an eminent architect, who was born at Stockholm in Sweden. Being brought to England when very young, he received the rudiments of education at a school at Rippon in Yorkshire, after which he went out as chief supercargo of some Swedish ships to China. On his return from this voyage he settled in London, and soon obtained great reputation as a draughtsman. Having being introduced to the earl of Bute, his interest procured him the appointment of architectural drawing-master to the prince of Wales, which led to his subsequent employment as royal architect and surveyor-general of the board of works. The first

building of consequence erected by Chambers was a villa in the Italian style, at Roehampton, for Lord Besborough. After this he was engaged by George III. to lay out and adorn the royal gardens at Kew. Here it was that he displayed a taste for oriental ornament which he had acquired in China, and which subjected him to the merited satire of the author of the famous "Heroic Epistle to Sir William Chambers." He soon became the leading architect of the day; and in 1775 he was appointed to superintend the building of Somerset House in the Strand. Sir W. Chambers, who in 1777 was made a knight of the Swedish order of the polar star, was a fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies, and treasurer of the Royal Academy. He died in 1796, aged sixty-nine. He was the author of "*Designs for Chinese Buildings*," "*Plans, Elevations, and Sections of Buildings in the Gardens of Kew*," and a "*Dissertation on Oriental Gardening*." But his principal literary work is a "*Treatise on Civil Architecture*," published in 1791.

CHAMBERS, EPHRAIM, a miscellaneous writer, and a compiler of a popular "*Dictionary of Arts and Sciences*." He was a native of Milton and Westmoreland, and was educated at a school in Kendal, under the father of the celebrated Bishop Watson. On leaving school he was apprenticed to J. Senex, a mathematical instrument and globe maker in London. Here he acquired such a taste for the study of science, and made so much proficiency in it, that he not only formed the design of compiling his celebrated "*Cyclopædia*," but actually wrote some of the articles for it behind his master's counter. The first edition of this work was published in 1728, and Chambers was soon after chosen F. R. S. Two subsequent editions, in 1738 and 1739, appeared previously to his death, which took place on the 15th of May, 1740. Several improved editions of the "*Cyclopædia*" have been published, and it has served as the basis of many subsequent works.

CHAMPAGNE, PHILIP.—This eminent painter was born at Brussels in 1602, and went to Paris in 1621, where he was afterwards appointed painter to the queen Maria de Medicis, who gave him the direction of the paintings for the Luxembourg. He commenced the *Galerie des Hommes Illustres*. In the suburb St. Jacques he painted six pictures for the Carmelites. Their church contains a crucifix by him, which, though painted on a horizontal surface, appears to the most practised eye to be perpendicular. The paintings in the dome of the Sorbonne are among his best works. He was director of the Academy of Fine Arts. When he began to feel the infirmities of age, he retired to the Port Royal, where his daughter was a nun. She afforded him the subject for a beautiful painting. She is represented seated, a protracted fever having brought her to the verge of death, given up by the physicians. She is praying with the sister of the convent, and regains her health. The figure of the daughter, particularly her head, is of extraordinary beauty. The museum of Paris possesses besides this painting six others of the same artist, among which are a *Lord's Supper* and a *Mater Dolorosa*. Numerous works of his are also to be found at Paris, and scattered through many towns of France. Champagne was very delicate and conscientious. He would never paint undraped figures. He deserves a very high place amongst the painters of the Flemish school. He died in 1674.



CHAMPFORT, SEBASTIAN ROCH NICOLAS, was born in 1741, in a village near Clermont, in Auvergne, and went while he was young to Paris. He wrote several articles for the "Journal Encyclopédique," and was one of the editors of the "Vocabulaire Français." He presented a number of papers to the French and other academies, and wrote some comedies, which were received with great approbation. His "*Le Marchand de Symrne*" is still performed, but his health soon began to decline, and his income was scarcely sufficient to meet his expenses. Chabanon, his most intimate friend, who enjoyed a pension of 1200 livres, compelled Champfort to accept of it. After he was restored to health he retired to the country, to labour and to study. He prepared some of the most important articles in the "*Dictionnaire Dramatique*," and completed his tragedy "*Mustapha et Zeangir*." This production procured for him the office of secretary to the prince of Condé, which he occupied for a time, and then retired to Auteuil.

In 1781 Champfort was admitted to the "Académie Française." His fine inaugural address was his last purely literary work. After this he married and lived in retirement till the death of his wife, when he became reader to the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the king. At the beginning of the revolution Champfort was connected with the leading characters of the two parties which hastened the approach of the revolution, the one by upholding, the other by attacking, abuses. He endeavoured in vain to enlighten the former party; and, being compelled to choose between them, he sacrificed his interest, and joined the one whose character and principles were most agreeable to his own. His connexion with Mirabeau and others at first absorbed his whole attention. He had an important part in several of Mirabeau's speeches and writings. After a time Champfort's condition was altered, but his principles remained the same. He lost his pension and his office, and supported himself wholly by his own exertions. He was appointed by the minister Roland librarian in the great national library; and thus his situation was for a short time improved. But, disgusted with the horrors of the revolution, he expressed himself without reserve, and was thrown into prison with Barthélemy and two other officers of the library. He was soon set at liberty; but his short confinement had filled him with such horror that, when he was thrown into prison a second time, he attempted to put an end to his existence. The care of his friends, and medical aid, saved him for a time; but he died in April 1794 in consequence of his wounds. His writings bear the marks of much study and pure taste. His integrity, fidelity, and disinterestedness cannot be disputed. His works were published in 1795 by Ginguené, in four volumes, and two editions have appeared since.

CHAMPLAIN, SAMUEL DE, a French naval officer in the seventeenth century, who explored the gulf of St. Lawrence in North America, founded Quebec and Montreal, in Canada, and gave his name to an inland lake, which it still retains. He was king's lieutenant, and afterwards governor-general of Canada, where he died in 1634. M. de Champlain was the author of a curious work entitled "*Voyages and Travels in New France, or Canada*," which was published in 1632.

CHANDLER, SAMUEL.—This eminent dissenter was born at Hungerford in 1693. He was early in

life sent to an academy at Bridgewater, but was soon removed to Gloucester, that he might become a pupil to Mr. Samuel Jones, a dissenting minister of great abilities, who had opened an academy in that city, afterwards transferred to Tewkesbury. Such was the attention of that gentleman to the morals of his pupils and to their progress in literature, and such the skill with which he directed their studies, that it was a singular advantage to be placed under so able a tutor. Chandler made a good use of so happy a situation, applying himself to his studies with great assiduity, and particularly to critical, Biblical, and oriental learning. Among the pupils of Mr. Jones were Joseph Butler, afterwards bishop of Durham, and Thomas Secker, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, with whom he formed a friendship that continued to the end of their lives.

On leaving the academy, he continued his studies at Leyden; and, these being finished, he began to preach about July 1714; and, being soon distinguished by his talents in the pulpit, he was chosen, in 1716, minister of the presbyterian congregation at Peckham, near London, in which station he continued some years. He married a lady who possessed a good fortune; but, by the fatal South-Sea bubble of 1720, he unfortunately lost the whole fortune which he had received with his wife. His circumstances being embarrassed, and his income as a minister being inadequate to his expenses, he engaged in the trade of a bookseller, and kept a shop in the Poultry, London, in partnership with John Gray, who afterwards became a dissenting minister, but conformed, and had a living in Yorkshire. Mr. Chandler continued this trade for about two or three years, still continuing to discharge the duties of the pastoral office.

Mr. Chandler's writings having procured him a high reputation for learning and abilities, he might easily have obtained the degree of D.D.; and offers of that kind were made him, but for some time he declined the acceptance of a diploma. However, upon making a visit to Scotland in company with his friend the earl of Finlater and Seafeld, he accepted of this honour, which was conferred upon him without solicitation, and with every mark of respect, by the two universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow. He had likewise the honour of being afterwards elected F.R.S. This occurred in 1754. On the death of George II., in 1760, Dr. Chandler published a sermon on that event, in which he compared that prince to King David. This gave rise to a pamphlet, which was printed in 1761, entitled "*The History of the Man after God's own Heart*," in which the author ventured to exhibit King David as an example of perfidy and cruelty fit only to be ranked with a Nero or a Caligula, and complained of the insult that had been offered to the memory of the late British monarch by Dr. Chandler's parallel between him and the king of Israel. This attack occasioned Dr. Chandler to publish in the following year "A Review of the History of the Man after God's own Heart," in which the falsehoods and misrepresentations of the historian were exposed and corrected. He also prepared for the press a more elaborate work, which was afterwards published under the following title:—"A Critical History of the Life of David, in which the Principal Events are ranged in order of Time, the Chief Objections of Mr. Bayle and others against the Character of this Prince, and the Scripture Account of him and the Occurrences of his

Reign, are examined and refuted, and the Psalms which refer to him explained." As this was the last, it was likewise one of the best of Dr. Chandler's productions. Dr. Chandler's death took place on the 8th of May, 1766. During the last year of his life he was visited with frequent returns of a very painful disorder, which he endured with great resignation and Christian fortitude.

CHAPMAN, GEORGE.—This ingenious scholar stands foremost in the list of our early English poets. He was born in 1557, and received his academical education at Trinity College, Oxford. On reaching the metropolis, to which he resorted early in life, he cultivated an acquaintance with Shakspeare, Spenser, Marlow, Jonson, Daniel, and the other wits of the day. It does not appear that he ever followed any profession; but in 1595 he commenced authorship, by printing a poem entitled "Ovid's Banquet of Sauce." He must however have been long before employed on his Homer, as his translation of the first seven books of the *Iliad* appeared in the following year; and the whole of the poem, being completed in the next four or five years, was dedicated to Henry prince of Wales. He had previously commenced writing comedies, the first of which, "The Blind Beggar of Alexandria," appeared in 1598. During the reign of Elizabeth he had received some notice at court; but being connected with Jonson and Marston in the comedy of "Eastward Hoe," which contained some satires on the Scottish nation, it gave offence to James, and he was of course discountenanced. In 1614 he published his version of the "Odyssey," and soon after, by translating the "Batrachomyomachia" and the "Hymns," completed the whole of Homer. He also translated *Musæus* and *Hesiod*, and occupied himself in a variety of other works, original and translated, until his death, which took place in 1634.

CHAPONE, HESTER, a clever English writer, born October 27, 1726. Her father, Mr. Mulso of Northamptonshire, was an eminent scholar. It is said that at nine years of age she composed a romance entitled "The Loves of Amoret and Melissa," which, we are told, exhibited "fertility of invention, and extraordinary specimens of genius." Her mother was a beauty, with all the vanity that generally attaches to beauty; and, fearing that her daughter's understanding might become a more attractive object than the personal charms on which she valued herself, she took no pleasure in the progress which her daughter seemed to make, and, if she did not obstruct, employed at least no extraordinary pains in promoting her education. This mother, however, died when her daughter was yet young, and a circumstance which otherwise might have been of serious consequence seemed to strengthen the inclination Miss Mulso had shown to cultivate her mind. She studied the French and Italian languages, and made some progress in the Latin. She read the best authors, especially those who treat of morals and philosophy. To these she added a critical perusal of the holy scriptures; but history, we are told, made no part of her studies until the latter part of her life. Her acquaintance with Richardson, whose novels were the favourites of her sex, introduced her to Mr. Chapon, a young gentleman then practising law in the Temple. Their attachment was mutual, but not hasty or imprudent. She obtained her father's consent, and a social intimacy continued for a considerable period

before it ended in marriage. After suffering many privations, she removed on the death of her husband to Hadley, where she died December 25, 1801. Her works were published in a complete form in 1807.

CHAPPE, CLAUDE, who was celebrated as the inventor of the telegraph. He was born in 1763, and attracted notice in his twentieth year by several valuable essays in the "Journal de Physique." Wishing to communicate with his friends who lived at the distance of several miles from him, he conceived the idea of conversing with them by means of signals; and his experiments for this purpose led him to his important invention. Having succeeded in erecting his machine on a large scale, he laid a description of the work, which he called *Telegraph*, before the national assembly in 1792. The establishment of the first telegraphic line was ordered in 1793; the first event communicated by it was the capture of Condé. The convention, having received this news at the opening of a session, forthwith decreed that Condé should be called in future *Nordlibre*, and was apprized in the same sitting that the edict had been delivered and published to the army. The method of interchanging messages by signals was known to the ancients, and has been used by navigators from time immemorial. The tactician *Æneas* mentions several attempts to express the letters of the alphabet at a distance by signals; and, towards the end of the eighteenth century, a trial of this kind was made by Amontons. The system of the former, however, admits of only a very limited application, a whole night being hardly sufficient to compose two or three words according to his method. Amontons, who is generally placed among the inventors of the telegraphic art, left no sketch of the machine contrived by him. The problem, therefore, still remained to be solved. The object was to discover an expedient for conveying any information with despatch to any place at any time. Chappe invented a machine, the signals of which are very distinct, while its motions are easy and simple. It may be erected at any place, defies every kind of weather, and, notwithstanding its simplicity, contains signs enough to convey any ideas in such a way that not more than two signals are commonly necessary. The honour of this invention was contested by many persons. The chagrin which these disputes produced in the mind of Chappe threw him into a deep melancholy; and, in 1805, he put a period to his existence by precipitating himself into a well. His brother, Jean Joseph, became director of the telegraph in Paris.

CHAPTAL, JEAN ANTOINE.—This eminent chemist was born in 1756. Having been long known as a distinguished physician, he rendered himself conspicuous as an adherent to the cause of the revolution, at the assault upon the citadel of Montpellier in 1791. Being called to Paris in 1793, on account of the scarcity of gunpowder, his chemical knowledge and his activity in the enormous factory at Grenoble enabled him to supply the necessary quantity by the production of 3500 lbs. every day. In 1794 he returned to Montpellier, received a place in the administration of the department of the Herault, and the professorship of chemistry, which had been founded there for him. In 1798 he was made a member of the Institute, was appointed by the first consul in 1799 counsellor of state, and in 1800 minister of the interior, in which post he encouraged the study of all the arts, and established a chemical



manufactory in the neighbourhood of Paris. In 1804 he fell into disgrace: the reason assigned is that he refused to declare in one of his reports that sugar prepared from beet-root was better than that from the sugar-cane. In 1805, however, he was made by the emperor grand cross of the legion of honour, and member of the conservative senate.

After the return of Napoleon from Elba, Chaptal was appointed director-general of commerce and manufactures, and minister of state. On the restoration of the king he was obliged to retire to private life, and, at the same time, to enter into negotiations with the princess of Orleans relative to Chanteloup, which formerly had belonged to her. In March, 1816, the king nominated him a member of the Academy of Sciences. Chaptal's works on the national industry, chemistry, the cultivation of the vine, &c., are very much esteemed, especially his "*Chimie appliquée aux Arts*," his "*Chimie appliquée à l'Agriculture*," and "*De l'Industrie Française*." He was director of two chemical manufactories at Montpellier and Neuilly, discovered the application of old wool instead of oil in the preparation of soap, and the mode of dyeing cotton with Turkish red. He invented several kinds of cement and artificial Puzzolanas, by means of native calcined ochre without the aid of foreign matters, new varnishes for earthenware without the use of lead-ores and plumbago, &c., which are so often destructive of health and life, and extended the application of chemical agents to bleaching. His autograph, as attached to a public document, is given beneath.



CHARDIN, JEAN.—This eminent traveller was the son of a protestant jeweller in Paris, and a jeweller himself. He was born in 1643. Before he had reached his twenty-second year his father sent him to the East Indies in order to buy diamonds. After a short residence in Surat, Chardin lived six years in Ispahan, where he was less engaged in mercantile business than in profound studies and scientific researches, making use of his connexions at court for collecting the most authentic information of the political and military state of Persia. He collected the most valuable materials relating to antiquities and history.

In 1670 Chardin returned to France. Finding, however, that he could hope for no employment on account of his religion, he again left France for Persia in 1671, taking with him a considerable quantity of jewels, &c. He spent ten years partly in Persia and partly in India. In 1681 he arrived in London, where, soon after his arrival, Charles II. bestowed on him the honour of knighthood. Chardin published the first volume of his travels in London in 1686. The other volumes were about to follow, when he was appointed minister plenipotentiary of the king of England to the states-general of Holland, and agent of the English East India Company to the same. His new duties did not distract him from his favourite employment, so that in 1711 two editions of his travels appeared. He soon after returned to England, where he died in 1713. The exactness and truth of his statements, and the extent of his knowledge, have

been confirmed by all succeeding travellers. The best edition of Chardin's travels is that by Langlès, published in 1811, in ten volumes octavo, with an atlas in folio.

CHARLEMAGNE, CAROLUS MAGNUS, CHARLES THE GREAT, one of those characters whose achievements bear the impress of gigantic power, by whom nations have been formed and destroyed, and who have exercised an influence which has been felt for centuries, and compelled succeeding generations to admire their greatness, though unable to justify all their actions. Charlemagne, king of the Franks, and subsequently emperor of the west, was born in 742 in the castle of Carlsberg, on the lake of Wurmsee, in Upper Bavaria. His father was Pepin the Short, king of the Franks, son of Charles Martel. After the decease of his father, in 768, he was crowned king, and, according to the wish which Pepin had expressed, divided France with his younger brother Carloman; but the conditions of this partition were several times altered, without being ever adjusted to the satisfaction of the parties. Their mutual discontent was fostered principally by the king of the Lombards, Desiderius (the father-in-law of both princes), because Charlemagne had repudiated his wife. Desiderius sought revenge for the rejection of his daughter, by exciting and encouraging commotions in France, in which he was assisted by the circumstance that the nobles aspired to independence. The people of Aquitania were the first who attempted to become independent. Charlemagne marched against them with rather a small army; but he relied on the assistance of his brother Carloman, to whom a portion of Aquitania then belonged. Carloman appeared indeed in the field, but, in the decisive moment, deserted his brother, who was obliged to sustain alone an unequal conflict. His great courage and conduct, after a long and doubtful contest, procured him the victory in 770, and the insurgents submitted. In this campaign the youthful hero displayed such distinguished military talents that the fear of his name curbed his fiercest vassals. This contest convinced Charlemagne of the necessity of repressing the nobles, and employing them thenceforward in important enterprises, in order to divert their attention from the internal affairs of the empire. Had he not, therefore, himself been inclined to wars of conquest, in which his talents could be exhibited in all their splendour, he would have been induced to undertake them by the internal condition of the empire.

At Carloman's death, in 771, and after the flight of his wife and her two sons to her father, in Italy, Charlemagne made himself master of the whole empire, the extent of which was already very great, as it embraced, besides France, a large part of Germany. He now formed the plan of conquering the Saxons, for which his zeal for Christianity and its diffusion served him as a tolerable pretence. The Saxons, a nation of German heathens, were in possession of Holstein and Westphalia, between the rivers Weser and Elbe, and, like other barbarians, preferred pillaging to peaceful occupations, and a wandering to a settled mode of life. They had several leaders, and constituted various tribes, which were seldom disposed to co-operate. An invasion of the Saxons into the territory of the Franks was the alleged cause of the first war which Charlemagne began against them in 772. The other wars were

produced by the rebellions of this warlike nation, which overpowered but not entirely vanquished was never reduced to complete submission till the peace of Seltz in 803, after it had embraced Christianity. A part of the Saxons Charlemagne removed to Flanders and Switzerland, and their seats were occupied by the Obotrites, a Vandal tribe in Mecklenburg. For thirty-two years did the Saxons resist a conqueror who, at times indulgent to imprudence, often severe to cruelty, striving with equal eagerness to convert and to subdue them, never became master of their country till he had transformed it almost entirely into a desert. The Saxons might have made a more successful defence against the power and genius of Charlemagne, had they not been distracted by internal dissensions. The most celebrated of their leaders was Wittikind, and next to him Alboin, who finally embraced Christianity.

To explain the protracted resistance of the Saxons, we must remember that the manner in which the armies of those days were organized produced an armistice every year, the levy of troops being only for one campaign,—that Charlemagne was obliged to wage wars at the same time against the Lombards, the Avars, the Saracens, and the Danes,—and that the magnitude of his states facilitated the rebellions of his vassals, on which account all his attention was often required to preserve internal tranquillity and maintain his own authority. While he was combating the Saxons on the banks of the Weser, Pope Adrian implored his assistance against Desiderius, who had torn from him the exarchate of Ravenna, which Pepin the Short had presented to the holy see, and who was urging the pope to crown the nephews of Charlemagne, that Charlemagne himself might be considered a usurper, and his subjects be induced to renounce their allegiance. The danger was urgent. Charlemagne immediately left Germany, and marched with his army to Italy. Desiderius fled to Pavia, which was bravely defended by the Lombards. The city finally fell, and Desiderius, with the widow and sons of Carloman, was carried prisoner to France. Desiderius ended his life in a monastery. Respecting the fate of the others history is silent. In 774 Charlemagne was crowned king of Italy with the iron crown; and, although the kingdom of Lombardy was now extinct, the provinces of which it consisted were allowed to retain their former laws and constitutions, it being a general maxim of the great monarch not to deprive the conquered nations of their usages and laws, nor to govern them all under one form. In this he followed the dictates of sound policy, which in so turbulent times led him to beware of consolidating all his vassals into a political body with equal rights, which might render a general combination against their ruler practicable.

In 778 he repaired to Spain, to assist a Moorish prince. He conquered Pampeluna, made himself master of the county of Barcelona, and spread the terror of his name every where. But, on his return, his troops were surprised in the valley of Roncesvalles by the Saracens, in connexion with the mountaineers (the Gascons), and suffered a severe defeat, remarkable from the circumstance that Roland, one of the most celebrated warriors of those times, fell in the battle. The disaffection of the tribes of Aquitania induced Charlemagne to give them a separate ruler. For this purpose he selected the youngest of his sons, Louis, called *Le Débonnaire*. The Lombards were

no less turbulent, and the Greeks made incessant efforts to re-conquer Italy; and the nobles to whom he had entrusted a part of the sovereignty of this country evinced little fidelity. He therefore gave them his second son, Pepin, for a monarch, his eldest son, Charles, remaining constantly with him, and assisting him in his manifold undertakings. In 780 he caused these two sons to be crowned by the pope in Rome, hoping by this means to render the royal dignity inviolable in the sight of the people. Charlemagne had another son, also called Pepin, who was the oldest of all his children, being the son of his divorced wife. This circumstance probably inspired the monarch with an aversion to Pepin, and prevented him from admitting him to participate in the government. Pepin, therefore, became the instigator of a conspiracy against his father, and finally died in a monastery.

After returning from Spain, Charlemagne was again obliged to take the field against the Saxons. Exasperated by the defeat of his generals in 782, he caused 4500 Saxons to be massacred at Verden—a measure which urged to fury the hatred of the people. The year 790, the twenty-second of his reign, was the only one which he passed without taking up arms. As his power increased he meditated more seriously the accomplishment of the plan of his ancestor, Charles Martel, to restore the western empire. To prevent the partition of the empire, the empress Irene, who then reigned at Constantinople, proposed to Charlemagne to marry their children, by which means the world would again have been united under one dominion. Her proposition was accepted; but Irene's ambition carried her so far that she dethroned her own son to render herself supreme, and offered her own hand to Charlemagne, who did not seem averse to this singular union, which would have afforded the world an unparalleled spectacle, had not Irene herself been deposed. In the year 800 Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the west by Pope Leo III.; and, although his journey to Rome had in all probability no other object, he professed himself much surprised at this ceremony. On Christmas-day he was proclaimed Cæsar and Augustus; he was invested with the ornaments of the ancient Roman emperors, and the only thing forgotten was that the empire could not subsist long in a family where the authority was by law divided among the children of the deceased monarch.

After Charlemagne had made a monk of one of his sons, Pepin, king of Italy, died in 810, whose death was followed the next year by that of Charles, the oldest. Thus of his legitimate sons one only remained, Louis, king of Aquitania, whom he adopted as his colleague in 813, as his age and increasing weakness gave him warning that the end of his life could not be far distant. He died on the 28th of January, 814, in the seventy-first year of his age and the forty-seventh of his reign, with anticipations and fears that his empire would not long withstand the attacks of foreign enemies, apprehensions which the event confirmed. He felt too late that the same Saxons part of whom he had driven from their seats would one day take revenge on his empire, and in their train bring with them other barbarians. Charlemagne was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle, his favourite and usual place of residence. He was deposited in a vault, where he was placed on a throne of gold in full imperial costume. On his head he wore the



crown. In his hand he held a chalice. At his side was the sword. On his knees lay the book of the evangelists, at his feet his sceptre and shield. The sepulchre was sealed, and over it was erected a kind of triumphal arch, on which were the words, "Here lies the body of Charles, the great and orthodox emperor, who gloriously enlarged and for forty-seven years happily governed the empire of the Franks."

Charlemagne was a friend of learning; he deserves the name of restorer of the sciences and teacher of his people. He attracted by his liberality the most distinguished scholars to his court: among others, Alcuin, from England, whom he chose for his own instructor; Peter, of Pisa, who received the title of his grammarian; and Paul Warnefried, more known under the name of Paul Diaconus, who gave the emperor instruction in Greek and Latin literature. By Alcuin's advice Charlemagne established an academy in his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, the sittings of which he attended with all the scientific and literary men of his court: Leidrades, Theodulphus, the archbishops of Treves and Mentz, and the abbot of Corvey. All the members of this academy assumed names characteristic of their talents or inclinations. One was called Damætas, another Homer, another Candidus; Charlemagne himself took the name of David. From Italy he invited teachers of the languages and mathematics, and established them in the principal cities of his empire. In the cathedrals and monasteries he founded schools of theology and the liberal sciences; and he strove assiduously to cultivate his mind by intercourse with scholars; and, to the time of his death, this intercourse remained his favourite recreation. He spoke several languages readily, especially the Latin. He was less successful in writing, because he had not applied himself to it till he was further advanced in years. In the winter he read much, and even caused a person to read to him while he took his meals. He was desirous of introducing the Roman liturgy into his states; but the clergy, who clung to the ancient usages, offered some resistance. Several churches, however, complied with the wish of the monarch, and others mingled the Roman and Gallican liturgy. Another great plan of his was to unite the Rhine with the Danube, and consequently the Atlantic with the Black Sea, by means of a canal. The whole army was employed on the work; but its accomplishment was prevented by the want of that knowledge of hydraulic architecture which has been since acquired. The arts however, under his patronage, produced other monuments of his fame, and it is a well-known fact that the city of Aix-la-Chapelle received its name from a splendid chapel, which he caused to be built of the most beautiful Italian marble. The doors of this temple were of bronze, and its dome bore a globe of massive gold. Charlemagne also erected baths in which more than 100 persons could swim in warm water. He was himself very fond of swimming, and frequently used these baths, with all the nobles of his court, and even with his soldiers. To Charlemagne France is indebted for its first advances in navigation. He encouraged agriculture, and made himself immortal by the wisdom of his laws. Thus his law *de villis* is esteemed a monument of his views on rural economy; and Menzel, in his history of the Germans, says of him, "His greatest praise is that he prevented the total decline

of the sciences in the west, and supplied new aliment to their expiring light,—that he considered the improvement of nations as important as their union and subjugation. This love of intellectual improvement is the more laudable in a prince whose youth was spent in military exercises and the chase, and his whole after-life in the whirlpool of war, at a time too before the charm of beautiful models had made intellectual occupation an enjoyment, but when literature and science appearing in heavy forms, destitute of grace, deterred rather than invited. He received ambassadors from the patriarch of Jerusalem, from the emperors Nicephorus and Michael, and was twice complimented with embassies from Haroun al Raschid, the celebrated caliph of Bagdad, all of which he received with a splendour unexampled even in the east.

In private life Charlemagne was exceedingly amiable, a good father and generous friend. His domestic economy afforded a model of frugality, his person a rare example of simplicity and greatness. He despised extravagance of dress in men, though on solemn occasions he appeared in all the splendour of majesty.

CHARLES I.—Of the many distinguished monarchs bearing this name, who have at various periods of time held sway in the kingdoms of Europe, we shall only enumerate those which are most celebrated for their military or political importance. The unfortunate monarch, whose life we are now about to describe, was born in the year 1600, and was the second son of James VI. of Scotland and Anne of Denmark. Soon after the birth of his son James succeeded to the crown of England; and, upon the death of Prince Henry, in 1612, Charles was created prince of Wales. His youth appears to have passed respectably, little being recorded of him previously to his romantic journey to Spain in company with Buckingham in order to pay his court in person to the Spanish infanta.



Through the arrogance of Buckingham, this match was prevented, and the prince was soon after contracted to Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France. In 1625 he succeeded to the throne on the death of his father, and received the kingdom embroiled in a Spanish war, and full of suspicion and dislike to the minister Buckingham. The first parliament which he summoned, being much more dis-

posed to state grievances than grant supplies, was dissolved; and, by loans and other expedients, an expedition was fitted out against Spain, which terminated in disgrace and disappointment. In the following year, a new parliament was summoned; and the disgust and jealousy which prevailed between the king and this assembly, during that session, laid the foundation of the misfortunes of his reign. The house of commons impeached the minister, and the king supported him. They held fast the public purse; and he intimated a design of following *new counsels*, should they continue to resist his will, and suddenly and angrily dissolved them after a short session while they were preparing a remonstrance against the levying of tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament. Charles then began to employ his threatened mode of raising funds, by loans, benevolences, and similar unpopular proceedings, which, however partially sanctioned by precedent, were wholly opposed to the rising opinions of civil liberty throughout the nation, and to the constitutional doctrine, which rendered the commons the guardian and dispenser of the public treasure. His difficulties were further increased by a preposterous war with France, intended to gratify the private enmity of Buckingham, who added to the odium against him by an ill-fated expedition to assist the Huguenots of Rochelle.

In 1628 the king was obliged to call a new parliament, which showed itself as much opposed to arbitrary measures as its predecessor, and after voting the supplies prepared a bill called "a petition of right, recognising all the legal privileges of the subject," which, notwithstanding the employment of all manner of arts and expedients to avoid it, Charles was constrained to pass into a law; and had the concession been unequivocal and sincere, and the constitutional mode of government which it implied been really adopted by both sides, much that followed might have been prevented. Charles, however, by his open encouragement of the doctrines of such divines as Sibthorpe and Mainwaring, who publicly inculcated the doctrine of passive obedience and represented all limitation of kingly power as seditious and impious, too clearly sanctioned the jealousy of the commons, who would not, in consequence, rest in confidence or slacken their attacks upon Buckingham, on which account they were suddenly prorogued. The assassination of the favourite soon after, by the enthusiast Felton, removed one source of discord, and Charles became more his own minister; and, some differences with his queen which had been fomented by Buckingham being made up, he ever after continued much under her influence.

The parliament which met in January 1628 manifested so determined a spirit against the king's claim of levying tonnage and poundage by his own authority that it was suddenly dissolved, and Charles was determined to try to reign without one. For this purpose, having judiciously terminated the pending wars between France and Spain, he raised Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards so celebrated as Lord Strafford, to the principal place in his councils. This able statesman had begun his political career in opposition to the court, but, having been gained over, was by his austerity, talent, and firmness, an exceedingly fit instrument to curb the spirit of resistance to prerogative which had become so strong among the commons. In ecclesiasti-

cal affairs Charles, unhappily for himself and the church, was guided by the counsels of Laud, then bishop of London, a prelate whose learning and piety were debased by superstition and a zeal as indiscreet as intolerant. Under these counsels some years passed away in the execution of plans for raising money without the aid of parliament, with other dangerous expedients. The arbitrary courts of high commission and star-chamber, in the hands of Laud, also exercised in many instances the most dreadful oppression, of which the treatment of Williams, bishop of Lincoln, and others, affords memorable examples. In 1634 ship-money began to be levied, which, being strictly applied to naval purposes, the nation at large acquiesced in it with less than usual repugnance; and some writers, who courageously attacked the court against the principle, were treated with so much severity that others were deterred from following their example. So desperate did the cause of liberty at this time appear that great numbers of the Puritans emigrated to New England; and, by order of the court, a ship was prevented from sailing, in which were Sir Arthur Hazelrig, John Hampden, and Oliver Cromwell. It was in 1637, not long after this remarkable event, that Hampden commenced the career of open resistance by refusing to pay ship-money, the right to levy which, without authority of parliament, he was determined to bring before a court of law. His cause was argued for twelve days in the court of Exchequer; and, although he lost it by the decision of eight of the judges out of twelve, the discussion of the question was followed by the most important consequences in its operation upon public opinion. It was in Scotland, however, that formal warlike opposition was destined to commence. From the beginning of his reign Charles had endeavoured to introduce into that country a liturgy copied from the English—an innovation which produced the most violent tumults, and ended in the formation of the celebrated "covenant" in 1638, by which all classes of people mutually engaged to stand by each other. The covenanters levied an army, which the king opposed by an ill-disciplined English force, so equivocally inclined that, not able to trust to it, Charles agreed to a pacification. The next year he raised another army; but, his finances being exhausted, after an intermission of eleven years he again assembled a parliament, who, as usual, began to state grievances previously to granting supplies. Losing all patience, the king once more hastily dissolved it, and prosecuted several members who had distinguished themselves by their opposition. Raising money in the best manner he could devise, an English army was again made to proceed towards the north; but, being defeated by the Scots, it became obvious that affairs could no longer be managed without a parliament; and, in 1640, that dreaded assembly was again summoned, which proved to be the famous long parliament whose career forms so memorable a portion of English history.

It is not within the limits of this work to give an account of the proceedings connected with the prosecution, condemnation, and execution of Strafford and Laud, or the various measures of reaction in regard to ship-money, tonnage, and poundage, and the abolition of the iniquitous courts of high commission and star-chamber: suffice it to say that Charles



soon found himself reduced to a comparatively passive spectator of the ascendancy of the democratical portion of the constitution, and was obliged, both in Scotland and in England, to yield to the torrent which assailed him. In the mean time, a flame burst out in Ireland, which had no small effect in kindling the ensuing conflagration at home. The oppressed catholic population of that country, during the confusion of the times, rose against the government, for the purpose of regaining their rights. The old catholic settlers of the English pale joined the native Irish, and, to strengthen their cause, pretended to have a royal commission, and to act in defence of the king's prerogative against a puritanical and republican parliament. This pretended commission is now generally deemed a forgery, but such was the supposed partiality of Charles to catholicism that this event added considerably to popular disaffection. The parliament being summoned, the king left the conduct of the war entirely to it; but it now became evident that the commons intended systematically to pursue their advantages and to reduce the crown to a state of complete dependence. They framed a remonstrance, containing a recapitulation of all the errors of the reign, renewed an attempt for excluding bishops from the house of lords, passed ordinances against superstitious practices, and so powerfully raised the popular odium against the episcopal orders as to intimidate its members from attending to their duties in parliament. At length, it being apparent that either the zealous adherents of prerogative or those who were anxious to establish the government upon a more democratic basis must give way, Charles, instigated it is supposed by the injudicious advice of his queen and Lord Digby, caused his attorney-general to enter in the house of peers an accusation against five leading members of the commons, and sent a sergeant-at-arms to the house to demand them. Receiving an evasive answer, he the next day proceeded himself to the house, with an armed retinue, to seize their persons. Aware of this intention, they had previously withdrawn; but the king's appearance with a guard caused the house to break up in great disorder and indignation. The accused members retired into the city, where a committee of the house was appointed to sit, and the city militia was mustered under a commander appointed by parliament, which also demanded the control of the army. Here the king made his last stand, the matter having now arrived at a point which arms alone could decide. The queen fled to Holland, to procure troops and ammunition; and Charles, with the prince of Wales, proceeded northwards, and for a time fixed his residence at York. The king was received in his progress with great demonstrations of loyalty from the gentry; and many eminent persons, who had been the conscientious opposers of his arbitrary measures in the first instance, now joined his party. On the other hand, all the puritans, the inhabitants of the great trading towns, and those who had adopted republican notions of government, sided with the parliament; and in no public contest was more private and public virtue ranged on both sides, however alloyed, as in all such cases, with ambition, bigotry, and the baser passions.

The first action of consequence was the battle of Edge Hill, and, although indecisive, it enabled the king to approach London, and produce considerable alarm. He then retired to Oxford, and negotiations

were entered into, which proved unavailing. Nothing decisive, however, of importance against the royal troops took place, until the battle of Marston Moor, in 1644, which was gained chiefly by the skill and valour of Cromwell. The succeeding year completed the ruin of the king's affairs, by the loss of the celebrated battle of Naseby. Thenceforward a series of disasters attended his armies throughout the kingdom, and he took the resolution of throwing himself into the hands of the Scottish army, then lying before Newark. He was received with respect, although placed under guard as a prisoner; and, a series of abortive negotiations ensuing, an agreement was made with the parliament to surrender him to their commissioners, on the payment of a large sum, claimed as arrears by the Scottish army. The king was accordingly surrendered to the commissioners appointed, and was carried in the first place to Holmby House, in Northamptonshire, subsequently to the head-quarters of the army at Reading, and soon after to Hampton Court, where he was treated with no small portion of the respect exacted by his station.

In the mean time, however, the army and independents becoming all-powerful, he was led into some fears for his personal safety, and, making his escape with a few attendants, proceeded to the southern coast. Not meeting a vessel, as he expected, he crossed over to the Isle of Wight, and put himself into the hands of Hammond, the governor, a creature of Cromwell, by whom he was lodged in Carisbrook Castle. While in this remote situation, the Scots, ashamed of the manner in which they had delivered him up, and indignant at the proceedings of the English, marched a considerable army to his relief, under the duke of Hamilton. This force, although strengthened by a strong body of English royalists, was entirely routed and dispersed by Cromwell, as were the insurgents in Kent and Essex, by Fairfax. During this employment of the army and its leaders, a new negotiation was opened with the king in the Isle of Wight, who agreed to nearly every thing demanded of him, except the abolition of episcopacy; and so much had it now become the interest of the parliament itself to comply with him that a vote was at length carried that the king's concessions were a sufficient ground for a treaty. The triumphant army however, on its return, cleared the house by force of all the members opposed to its views; and, thereby procuring a reversal of this vote, the king's person was again seized, and, being brought from the Isle of Wight to Hurst Castle, preparations were made for trying him on the capital charge of high treason against the people. As the house of lords refused to concur in a vote for this purpose, the commons declared its concurrence unnecessary; and the king, being conducted to London, and stripped of all ensigns of royalty, was brought before the court of justice specially erected for this unprecedented trial on the 20th of January, 1649.

The conduct of Charles had been calm and dignified throughout his adversity, and in no respect was it more so than on this occasion. Three times he objected to the authority of the court, when brought before it, and supported his refusal by clear and cogent arguments. At length, evidence being heard against him on the proof that he had appeared in arms against the parliamentary forces, sentence of death was pronounced against him. He requested

a conference with both houses, which was rejected, and only three days were allowed him to prepare for his fate. As he left the tribunal, he was insulted by a portion of the soldiery, and other base and unpardonable indignities were offered to him, which he bore with dignified equanimity. The interposition of foreign powers, the devotion of friends and ministers, who sought to save him by taking all the blame upon themselves, were vain. After passing three days between his condemnation and execution in religious exercises, and in tender interviews with his friends and family, he was led to the scaffold. His execution took place before the banquetting-house, Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1649, where, after addressing the people around him with great firmness and composure, the ill-fated king submitted to the fatal stroke. Thus died Charles I., in the forty-ninth year of his age, than whom few kings have been more distinguished for the virtues which ornament and dignify private life. He was in an eminent degree temperate, chaste, and religious, and, although somewhat cold and reserved in demeanour, was in fact highly kind and affectionate, and secured the warmest attachment of those who had access to him. His talents were also considerable; but he shone more in suffering than in acting, and was deficient in the decision and self-reliance which are necessary to superior executive ability. His mind was cultivated by letters and a taste for the polite arts, particularly painting, the professors of which he munificently encouraged; and the collections of works of art which he made in his prosperity show great judgment in the selection. He had also a feeling for poetry, and wrote in a good style in prose, without reference to the celebrated "Eikon Basilike," his claim to which is now generally disputed. To all these personal and private acquirements he joined a graceful figure and pleasing countenance, and under happier circumstances would doubtless have been regarded as a very accomplished sovereign. His autograph is given in the subjoined sketch.

*Carolus R*

With respect to his political character, as exhibited in the great struggle between himself and the parliament, it is impossible not to perceive that he strove to maintain a portion of prerogative that had become incompatible with any theory of civil and religious liberty; but it is equally certain that he only sought to retain what his predecessors had possessed, and what power never concedes willingly. There are periods, possibly, in the history of every people in which old and new opinions conflict, and a concussion becomes unavoidable; and it was the misfortune of Charles to occupy the throne at a time when the development of the representative system necessarily encountered the claims of prerogative. If the parliament had acquiesced in the kingly pretensions, as usually explained by Laud and the high-churchmen of the day, it would have dwindled into a mere registry of royal edicts, like those of France. On the other hand, Charles acted a part which every monarch in his situation may be expected to act, for a philo-

sophical appreciation of the true nature of a political crisis is scarcely to be expected from one who sits upon a throne. The most forcible accusation against Charles is on the score of insincerity. It is asserted that he never intended to fulfil the conditions imposed upon him. This can scarcely be denied; but it is equally certain that some of them might justly be deemed questionable, if not demanded with a direct view to produce that conduct in the king which so naturally followed. On the whole, though many may demur to his title of martyr, few will hesitate to regard him as a victim to a crisis which the growing power of the commons, and the unsettled nature of the prerogative, rendered sooner or later inevitable. His fate, like that of the house of Stuart generally, exhibits the danger and absurdity of those high theoretical notions of kingly prerogative which, while they add very little to the real power of those whom they are intended to favour, too frequently seduce them into encounters with currents of principle and action, a resistance to which is always futile, and generally destructive.

CHARLES II., king of England and Scotland, was the son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria of France, and was born in 1630. He was a refugee at the Hague when the death of his father took place, on which he immediately assumed the royal title. He first intended to proceed to Ireland, but was prevented by the progress of Cromwell. He therefore listened to an invitation from the Scots, who had proclaimed him their king; and, being obliged to throw himself into the hands of the rigid presbyterians, they subjected him to many severities and mortifications, which caused him to regard that sect ever after with extreme aversion. In 1651 he was crowned at Scone; but the approach of Cromwell with his conquering army soon rendered his abode in Scotland unsafe. Hoping to be joined by the English royalists, he took the spirited resolution of passing Cromwell and entering England. He was immediately pursued by that active commander, who, with a superior army, gained the battle of Worcester; and Charles, after a variety of imminent hazards, in one of which he was sheltered for twenty-four hours in the branches of a spreading oak, reached Shoreham in Sussex, and effected a passage to France.

He passed some years in Paris, little regarded by the court, which was awed by the power of the English commonwealth; and this indignity induced him to retire to Cologne. It is the province of history to state the circumstances that produced the restoration, which General Monk so conducted that Charles, without a struggle, succeeded at once to all those dangerous prerogatives which it had cost the nation so much blood and treasure first to abridge and then to abolish. This unrestricted return was not more injurious to the nation than fatal to the family of the Stuarts, which, had a more rational policy prevailed, might have occupied the throne at this moment. On the 29th of May, 1660, Charles entered his capital amidst universal and almost frantic acclamations; and the different civil and religious parties vied with each other in loyalty and submission. His first measures were prudent and conciliatory. Hyde, Lord Clarendon, was made chancellor and prime minister; and an act of indemnity was passed, from which those alone were excepted who were immediately concerned in the late king's death.



A settled revenue was accepted in lieu of wardship and purveyance, and the army was reduced. In respect to religion, there was less indulgence; for not only were prelacy and the parliamentary rights of bishops restored, which was to be expected, but an act of uniformity was passed, by the conditions of which nearly all the presbyterian clergy were driven to a resignation of their livings. In 1662 he married the infanta of Portugal, a prudent and virtuous princess, but in no way calculated to acquire the affection of a man like Charles. The indolence of his temper, and the expenses of his licentious way of life, soon involved him in pecuniary difficulties; and the unpopular sale of Dunkirk to the French was one of his most early expedients to relieve himself.

In 1663 a rupture took place with Holland, which, as it proceeded from commercial rivalry, was willingly supported by parliament. It was attended in the first instance by various naval successes; but, France and Denmark entering into the war as allies of the Dutch, the English were overmatched, and a Dutch fleet entered the Thames, and, proceeding up the Medway, burnt and destroyed ships as high as Chatham. Such was the naval disgrace of a reign which, on many other accounts, is probably the most nationally discreditable one in the English annals; and the domestic calamities of a dreadful plague in 1665, and of the great fire of London in 1666, added to the disasters of the period. Soon after Clarendon, who had become very unpopular, and was personally disagreeable to Charles, was dismissed, and sought shelter from his enemies by a voluntary exile. A triple alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden, for the purpose of checking the ambition of Louis XIV., followed. It did honour to the political talents of Sir William Temple, and was one of the few public measures of the reign which deserve approbation. The thoughtless profusion of Charles, however, soon brought him into a condition which rendered him the mere pensioner of Louis, by whose secret aid he was supported in all his attempts to abridge the freedom of his people.

In 1670 he threw himself into the hands of the five unprincipled ministers collectively denominated the cabal, who supported him in every attempt to make himself independent of parliament. A visit which Charles received from his sister, the duchess of Orleans, was rendered subservient to French policy, by means of one of her attendant ladies, a beautiful French woman. This female made, as was intended, a conquest of Charles, who created her duchess of Portsmouth; and, amidst all his other attachments, she retained an influence over him which kept him steadily attached to the court of France. The party-troubles of his reign commenced about this time, by the open declaration of the duke of York, presumptive heir to the crown, that he was a convert to the Roman Catholic religion. Soon after the ministry broke the triple alliance, and planned a rupture with the Dutch; and, as the king did not choose to apply to parliament for money to carry on the projected war, he caused the exchequer to be shut up in January, 1672, and by several other disgraceful and arbitrary proceedings gave great disgust and alarm to the nation.

The naval operations against the Dutch were by no means successful; and a new parliament being called, which strongly expressed the discontent of the nation, the cabal was dissolved and a separate

peace made with Holland in 1674. Divisions in the cabinet, fluctuations in the king's measures, and parliamentary contests followed, and occupied the next three years, until in 1677 Charles performed a popular act by marrying his niece, the princess Mary, to the prince of Orange; and, by taking some decided steps in favour of the Dutch, he also forwarded the peace of Nimeguen, which took place in 1678. The same year was distinguished by the pretended discovery of the celebrated popish plot, for the assassination of the king and the introduction of the Catholic religion. Notwithstanding the infamous character of Oates and Bedloe, and the improbable nature of their disclosures, their tale, supported by the general suspicion of the secret influence of a Catholic faction, met with universal belief; and, in connexion with the idle details of the inventors of it, the parliament exhibited nearly as much credulity as the vulgar. Many Catholic lords were committed; Coleman, the duke of York's secretary, and several priests, were hanged; and a venerable nobleman, the earl of Stafford, was beheaded. The duke of York thought fit to retire to Brussels, and a bill for his exclusion from the throne passed the house of commons. Such was the state of the country that Charles was obliged to give way to some popular measures, and the great palladium of civil liberty, the habeas corpus bill, passed during this session; and the temper of the parliament was so much excited that the king first prorogued and then dissolved it. The court now sought to establish a balance of parties, to distinguish which the terms Whig and Tory were about this time invented.

In 1680 a new parliament assembled, and the commons again passed the exclusion bill, which was rejected by the lords. This parliament was also dissolved in the next year, and a new one called at Oxford, which proved so refractory that a sudden dissolution of it ensued; and, like his father, Charles determined henceforward to govern without one. By the aid of the Tory gentry and the clergy he obtained loyal addresses from all parts of the kingdom, and attachment to high monarchical principles came again into vogue. The charge of plots and conspiracies was now brought against the Presbyterians, and a person named College was executed upon the same infamous evidence as had been previously turned against the Catholics; and the celebrated earl of Shaftesbury, who headed the popular party, was brought to trial, but acquitted. The non-conformists, generally, were also treated with much rigour; and a step of great moment, in the progress to arbitrary power, was the instituting suits at law (*quo warrantos*) against most of the corporations in the kingdom, by which they were intimidated to a resignation of their charters, in order to receive them back so modelled as to render them much more dependent than before. These rapid strides towards the destruction of liberty at length produced the celebrated Rye-House plot, the parties to which certainly intended resistance; but that the assassination of the king was ever formally projected seems very doubtful. It certainly formed no part of the intention of Lord William Russel, whose execution, with that of Algernon Sidney, on account of the plot, forms one of the striking events of this disgraceful reign. Charles was at this time as absolute as any sovereign in Europe; and, had he been an active prince, the fetters of tyranny might have been com-

pletely rivetted. Scotland, which at different periods of his reign had been driven into insurrection by the arbitrary attempts to restore episcopacy, was at length completely dragooned into submission, and the relics of the covenanters were suppressed with circumstances of great barbarity. It is said, however, that Charles was becoming uneasy at this plan, which was chiefly supported by the bigoted austerity of the duke of York, and that he had made a resolution to relax, when he expired, from the consequences of an apoplectic fit, in February 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age and twenty-fifth of his reign. At his death he received the sacrament according to the rites of the Roman church, and thus proved himself to have been, during the whole of his life, as hypocritical as profligate.

The character of Charles II. requires little analysis. He was a confirmed sensualist and voluptuary; and, owing to the example of him and his court, his reign was the era of the most dissolute manners that ever prevailed in England. The stage was an open school of licentiousness, and polite literature was altogether infected by it. Charles was a man of wit, and a good judge of certain kinds of writing, but was too deficient in sensibility to feel either the sublime or the beautiful in composition; neither was he generous even to the writers whom he applauded. We subjoin his autograph.



He possessed an easy good nature, but united with it a total indifference to any thing but his own pleasure; and no man could be more destitute of honour or generosity. His ideas of the relation between king and subject were evinced by his observation on Lauderdale's cruelties in Scotland. "I perceive," said he, "that Lauderdale has been guilty of many bad things against the people of Scotland; but I cannot find that he has acted in any thing contrary to my interest." Yet, with all his selfishness and demerits as a king, Charles always preserved a share of popularity with the multitude, from the easiness of his manners. Pepy's memoirs and other private documents, however, clearly show the opinion of the more reflecting portion of his subjects; and it is now pretty generally admitted that, as he was himself a most dishonourable and heartless monarch and man, so his reign exhibited the English character in a more disgraceful light than any other in British history. It need not be added that he left many illegitimate children, the descendants of some of whom are still among the leading peerage of the country.

CHARLES XII., king of Sweden.—This celebrated monarch was born at Stockholm on the 27th of June, 1682. On the death of his father in 1697, when he was but fifteen years old, he was declared of age by the estates; but the young king showed but little inclination for business: he loved violent bodily exercises, and especially the chase of the bear. To his jealous neighbours this seemed a favourable time to humble the pride of Sweden in the north; and Frederic IV. of Denmark, Augustus II. of Poland,

and the czar Peter I. of Russia, concluded an alliance which ended in the great northern war. The Danish troops first invaded the territory of the duke of Holstein Gottorp. This prince, who had married the eldest sister of the king of Sweden, repaired to Stockholm and asked for assistance. Charles had a particular attachment for him, and proposed in the council of state the most energetic measures against Denmark. After making some arrangements respecting the internal administration, he embarked at Carlserona in May, 1700; and thirty ships of the line and a great number of transports, strengthened by an English and Dutch squadron, appeared before Copenhagen. Arrangements were making for the disembarkation, when Charles, full of impatience, plunged from his boat into the water, and was the first who reached land. The Danes retired before the superior power of the enemy. Copenhagen was on the point of being besieged, when the peace negotiated at Travendal was signed, by which the duke of Holstein was confirmed in all the rights of which it had been attempted to deprive him. Thus ended the first enterprise of Charles XII., in which he exhibited as much intelligence and courage as disinterestedness. He adopted at this time that severe and temperate mode of life to which he ever remained true, avoiding relaxation and useless amusements; wine was banished from his table; at times coarse bread was his only food, and he often slept in his cloak on the ground.

After thus checking Denmark, the attacks of Augustus and Peter were to be repelled. The former was besieging Riga, the latter menaced Narva and the country situated about the gulf of Finland. Without returning to his capital Charles caused 20,000 men to be transported to Livonia, and went to meet the Russians, whom he found 80,000 strong, in a fortified camp under the walls of Narva. On the 30th of November, 1700, between 8000 and 10,000 Swedes placed themselves in order of battle, under the fire of the Russians, and the engagement began. In less than a quarter of an hour the Russian camp was taken by storm: 30,000 Russians perished on the field, or threw themselves into the Narva; the rest were taken prisoners or dispersed. After this victory Charles crossed the Dwina, attacked the intrenchments of the Saxons, and gained a decisive victory. Charles might now have concluded a peace which would have made him the arbiter of the north; but, instead of so doing, he pursued Augustus to Poland, and determined to take advantage of the discontent of a great part of the nation for the purpose of dethroning him. Augustus attempted in vain to enter into negotiations; in vain did the Countess Konigsmark, mistress of Augustus, endeavour to obtain an interview with Charles, and disarm the Swedish hero by her beauty. Charles refused to negotiate with the king or to speak with the countess. The war continued; the Swedes gained a brilliant victory at Clissau. In 1703 all Poland was in the possession of the conquerors; the cardinal primate declared the throne vacant, and, by the influence of Charles, the new choice fell on Stanislaus Leezinsky.

Augustus hoped to be secure in Saxony, as Peter had meanwhile occupied Ingria, and founded St. Petersburg, at the mouth of the Neva. But the victory of Narva despised an enemy on whom he hoped, sooner or later, to take an easy revenge, and invaded



Saxony. At Altranstadt he dictated the conditions of peace, in 1706, when the Livonian Patkul, who was the prime mover of the alliance against Sweden (at that time Peter's ambassador in Dresden), was delivered up to him on his demand, and was broken on the wheel. It was, with justice, a subject of astonishment that a prince, till then so magnanimous, could stoop to such intemperate revenge; and, in other respects, Charles exhibited during his stay in Saxony moderation and magnanimity. Several ambassadors and princes visited the camp of the king at Altranstadt, among whom was Marlborough, who sought to discover Charles's plans, and convinced himself that the victorious hero would take no part in the great contests of the south. The king of Sweden however, before he left Germany, required the emperor to grant to the Lutherans in Silesia perfect freedom of conscience; and the requisition was complied with. In September, 1707, the Swedes left Saxony. They were 43,000 strong, well clothed, well disciplined, and enriched by the contributions imposed on the conquered. 6000 men remained for the protection of the king of Poland. With the rest of the army Charles took the shortest route to Moscow; but, having reached the region of Smolensk, he altered his plan at the suggestion of the Cossack Hetman Mazeppa, and proceeded to the Ukraine, in the hope that the Cossacks would join him. But Peter laid waste their country, and the proscribed Mazeppa could not procure the promised aid.

The different marches, the want of provisions, the perpetual attacks of the enemy, and the severe cold, weakened Charles's army in an uncommon degree; and General Lowenhaupt, who was to bring reinforcements and provisions from Livonia, arrived with only a few troops, exhausted by the march and by continual skirmishes with the Russians. Pultawa, abundantly furnished with stores, was about to be invested, when Peter appeared with 70,000 men. Charles, in reconnoitring, was dangerously wounded in the thigh; consequently, in the battle of July the 8th, 1709, which changed the fortunes of the Swedish hero and the fate of the north, he was obliged to issue his commands from a litter, without being able to encourage his soldiers by his presence. This and still more the want of agreement between Renschild and Lowenhaupt were the reasons why the Swedes did not display their usual skill in manœuvring, which had so often given them the victory. They were obliged to yield to superior force, and the enemy obtained a complete victory. Charles saw his generals, his favourite minister, Count Piper, and the flower of his army, fall into the power of those Russians so easily vanquished at Narva. He himself, together with Mazeppa, fled with a small guard, and was obliged, notwithstanding the pain of his wounds, to go several miles on foot. He finally found refuge and an honourable reception at Bender, in the Turkish territory. His enemies were now inspired with new hope. Augustus protested against the treaty of Altranstadt. Peter invaded Livonia, and Frederic of Denmark made a descent on Schonen. The regency in Stockholm took measures for the defence of the Swedish territory; and General Steinbock assembled a body of militia and peasants, defeated the Danes at Helsingborg, and compelled them to evacuate Schonen. Several divisions were sent to Finland to keep off the Russians, who nevertheless advanced, being

superior in numbers. Charles, meanwhile, negotiated at Bender with the Porte, succeeded in removing the ministers who were opposed to him, and induced the Turks to declare war against Russia. The armies met on the banks of the river Pruth, July 1, 1711. Peter seemed nearly ruined, when the courage and prudence of his wife produced a peace, in which the interests of Charles were entirely neglected.

This monarch, however, projected at Bender new plans, and, through his agents, solicited of the Porte auxiliaries against his enemies. But the Russian agents were no less active to prepossess the Porte against him, pretending that Charles designed to make himself, in the person of Stanislaus, the actual master of Poland, in order from thence, in connexion with the German emperor, to attack the Turks. The seraskier of Bender was ordered to compel the king to depart, and, in case he refused, to bring him, living or dead, to Adrianople. Little used to obey the will of another, and apprehensive of being given up to his enemies, Charles resolved to defy the forces of the Porte, with the two or three hundred men of which his retinue consisted, and, sword in hand, to await his fate. When his residence at Varnitza, near Bender, was attacked by the Turks, he defended it against a whole army, and yielded only step by step. The house took fire and he was about to abandon it, when, his spurs becoming entangled, he fell and was taken prisoner. His eye-lashes were singed by powder and his clothes covered with blood. Some days after this singular contest Stanislaus came to Bender, to ask the king of Sweden to give his consent to the treaty which he saw himself obliged to conclude with Augustus; but Charles refused. The Turks now removed their prisoner from Bender to Demotica, near Adrianople, where he spent two months in bed, feigning sickness and employed in reading and writing. Convinced at last that he could expect no assistance from the Porte, he sent a parting embassy to Constantinople, and set off in disguise with two officers. Accustomed to every deprivation, Charles pursued his journey on horseback, through Hungary and Germany, day and night, with such haste that only one of his attendants was able to keep up with him. Exhausted and haggard he arrived before Stralsund about one o'clock on the night of November 22, 1714. Pretending to be a courier with important despatches from Turkey, he caused himself to be immediately introduced to the commandant, Count Dunker, who questioned him concerning the king, without recognising him till he began to speak, when he sprang joyfully from his bed and embraced the knees of his master.

The report of Charles's arrival spread rapidly throughout the city. The houses were illuminated, and a general feeling of joy was felt by all classes. A combined army of Danes, Saxons, Russians, and Prussians immediately invested Stralsund. Charles performed, during the defence, miracles of bravery. But, being obliged to surrender the fortress, he proceeded to Lund in Schonen, and took measures to secure the coast, and then attacked Norway. The baron of Görtz, whose bold but intelligent plans were adapted to the situation of the Swedish monarchy, was at that time his confidential friend. His advice was that Charles should gain Peter the Great to the interest of Sweden by important concessions, make

himself master of Norway, and from thence land in Scotland, in order to dethrone George I., who had declared himself against Charles. Görtz discovered resources for prosecuting the war, and entered into negotiations at Aalund with the plenipotentiaries of the czar. Peter was already gained, and a part of Norway conquered; the fortunes of Sweden seemed to assume a favourable aspect, and Charles was besieging Frederickshall, when, on the 30th of November, 1718, as he was in the trenches leaning against the parapet, and examining the workmen, he was struck on the head by a cannon ball. He was found dead in the same position, his hand on his sword, in his pocket the portrait of Gustavus Adolphus and a prayer-book. It is more than probable that the ball which killed him was fired, not from the fortress, but from the Swedish side. A century afterwards, Nov. 30, 1818, Charles XIV. caused a monument to be erected on the spot where he fell.

At Charles's death Sweden sunk from the rank of a leading power. In his last years he had formed great plans for the improvement of its navy, trade, and commerce. At Lund, he often conversed with the professors of the university, and attended public disputations on geometry, mechanics, and history, and while in Bender the reading of useful books was one of his principal employments: he sent for Swedish scholars and caused them to travel through Greece and Asia. Firmness, valour, and love of justice were the grand features of Charles's character, but were disfigured by an obstinate rashness; but after his return he showed himself more peaceable, gentle, moderate, and disposed to politic measures. Posterity, considering him in relation to his times, will say that he had great virtues and great faults, that he was seduced by prosperity, but not overcome by adversity.

CHARLES XIII., king of Sweden, was born in October, 1748. He was the second son of king Adolphus Frederic and Louisa Ulrica, sister of Frederic the Great of Prussia, and having been appointed, at his birth, high admiral of Sweden, his education was directed chiefly to the learning of naval tactics, for which purpose he made several cruises in the *Cattegat*. In 1765 he became honorary president of the Society of Sciences at Upsal, and in 1770 he commenced the tour of Europe. The death of Adolphus Frederic recalled him to Sweden, where he took an important part in the revolution of 1772, after which his brother, Gustavus III., appointed him governor-general of Stockholm and duke of Sudermannland. In 1774 he married Hedwig Elizabeth Charlotte, princess of Holstein-Gottorp. In the war with Russia in 1788 he received the command of the fleet, defeated the Russians in the Gulf of Finland, and, in the most dangerous season of the year, brought back his fleet in safety to the harbour of Carlsrona, after which he was appointed governor-general of Finland. After the murder of Gustavus III., in 1792, he was placed at the head of the regency, and, happily for Sweden, preserved the country at peace with all other nations, while he united with Denmark for the protection of the navigation in the northern seas. He likewise founded a museum, established a military academy for 200 pupils, and gained universal esteem. In 1796 he resigned the government to Gustavus Adolphus IV., who had become of age, and retired, as a private man, to his castle of Rosersberg. He never

appeared again in public life till a revolution hurled Gustavus Adolphus IV., in 1809, from the throne, and placed Charles at the head of the state, as administrator of the realm, and, some months afterwards, as king of Sweden, at a very critical period. The peace with Russia, at Fredericksham, which took place on the 17th of September, 1809, gave the country the tranquillity necessary for repairing its heavy losses, and for completing the constitution. He had already adopted Prince Christian of Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg as his successor, and, after his death, Marshal Bernadotte, who was elected by the estates in August, 1810, to take the place of the prince. In May, 1811, he founded the order of Charles XIII., which is conferred solely on free-masons of high degree. His prudent conduct in the war between France and Russia, in 1812, procured Sweden an indemnification for Finland by the acquisition of Norway in 1814. Although some disappointed nobles may have given utterance to murmurs against his government, Charles XIII. nevertheless enjoyed the love of his people till his death, which took place on the 5th of February, 1818.

CHARLES MARTEL, a son of Pepin Heristel, mayor of the palace under the last kings of the Merovingian dynasty. His father had governed under the weak kings of France with so much justice, and so much to the satisfaction of the people, that he was able to make his office hereditary in his family. Childeric II., king of the Franks, refusing to acknowledge Charles Martel as mayor of the palace, the latter deposed him, and set Clothaire IV. in his place. After the death of Clothaire, he restored Childeric, and subsequently placed Thierri on the throne, showing how absolute was the control of the mayor, and that the royal dignity was a mere phantom. Charles Martel rendered his reign celebrated by the great victory which he gained, in October 732, over the Saracens near Tours, from which he acquired the name of Martel, signifying hammer. He died in 741. His son Pepin the Short governed the Franks till the year 752, nominally under the effeminate king Childeric III.; but, in this year, Pope Zachary replied to a question put to him by the states of France that he ought to be king who had the royal power, in consequence of which the Franks declared Pepin king at Soissons in 752. He died in 768, highly honoured by his subjects. His sons were Charlemagne and Carloman.

CHARLES IV., emperor of Germany.—This emperor was a member of the house of Luxemburg, and was born in 1316, and educated at Paris. His father John of Luxemburg, king of Bohemia, celebrated in history for his chivalric spirit, fell in the battle of Crecy. The quarrels of the emperor Louis the Bavarian with the king of Bohemia, the father of Charles, the choice of the latter in the room of the emperor excommunicated by Clement VI., and the victory which Louis, far his superior in power and talents, obtained over his rival, we have not room to relate. After the death of Louis, which took place in October 1347, Charles of Luxemburg, who inherited the kingdom of Bohemia, and had been chosen emperor in 1346 by five electors, hoped to occupy the imperial throne without opposition. But the very means which had raised him to the throne created him enemies. The princes of the empire regarded him as a servant of the pope, and ten years had not yet elapsed since Germany, at the diet of Rense, had adopted the



most energetic measures against the claims of the holy see. The election of Charles IV. was the first infringement of the celebrated constitution of 1338, and, in consequence, the archbishop of Mentz, whom Clement IV. had deposed, the electors of Brandenburg and the palatinate, the duke of Saxe Lauenburg, who arrogated a vote in the election, assembled at Lahnstein, declared the choice of Charles to be void, and elected Edward III. of England, brother-in-law of the last emperor; but our own monarch, then at war with France, made use of the offer of the electors so far only as to secure the neutrality of the king of Bohemia, and rejected the proffered crown. Equally fruitless was the choice of Frederic the Severe, landgrave of Meissen, upon which the enemies of Charles elected the virtuous and heroic Count Gunthar of Scharzburg, whom Charles, as some writers, though without sufficient authority, assert, put out of his way by poison. Those who surrounded Gunthar in his last moments extorted from him an abdication, for which they were munificently paid by Charles, who was as liberal when the gratification of his ambition was concerned as he was unjust and rapacious in satisfying his avarice. Charles now used every effort to appease his enemies. He married the daughter of the elector of the palatinate, gave the elector of Brandenburg Tyrol as a fief, and was unanimously elected emperor, and consecrated at Aix-la-Chapelle. But no sooner was he crowned than he took possession of the imperial insignia, and, contrary to his express promise, conveyed them to Bohemia.

In 1354 the emperor went to Italy to be crowned by the pope; but this favour he purchased on terms which made him an object of ridicule and contempt. Having been consecrated at Milan king of Italy, he confirmed the Visconti in the possession of all the usurpations of which he had promised to deprive them. He also annulled all the acts of his grandfather, Henry VII., against Florence, and by a treaty concluded at Padua resigned the latter city, with Verona and Vicenza, to Venza. Trafficking thus with his rights, he went to Rome, and was crowned by a delegate of the pope. He refused the request of some Romans to claim the city as belonging to him in the name of the empire, and, in a treaty, renounced all sovereignty over Rome, the states of the church, Ferrara, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and even took an oath not to return to Italy without the consent of the pope. Despised by the Guelphs, detested by the Ghibellines, Charles returned to Germany, where he issued the celebrated golden bull, which, till recently, continued a fundamental law of the German empire. He thus acquired some claims to the public gratitude; but these were soon effaced by the general indignation excited by the proposal made with his consent by the papal nuncio to introduce a tax, equal to the tithe of all ecclesiastical revenues, for the benefit of the holy see. All the members of the diet opposed it; and Charles, in his anxiety to conciliate the princes of the empire, announced that he would propose to the assembly a reform of the German clergy. The pope, enraged at this proposal of the emperor, exhorted the electors to depose him. Charles immediately relapsed into his accustomed submissiveness, and not only abandoned all his reforms, but even confirmed, in 1359, all the privileges of the clergy, all their present and future possessions, and made them independent of the secular power.

Such vacillating conduct subjected him to the contempt of both parties, of which he received a proof before the close of the same diet, which was held at Mentz. Several princes had, by degrees, obtained possession of many territories, formerly fiefs of the empire. Charles attempted to reunite them with the empire; but the dissatisfaction which was manifested at the attempt frustrated this plan of the weak emperor, who indemnified himself by selling to the king of Poland the rights of sovereignty which had been hitherto exercised by the German emperors over some of his provinces. It may be easily supposed that, under such an emperor, Germany did not enjoy internal tranquillity. Bands of robbers plundered the country in all quarters. The emperor marched against them without accomplishing any thing, and finally left the princes and cities to protect themselves by mutual alliances as well as they were able. The state of Italy was no less melancholy. Tuscany was suffering the evils of anarchy; Lombardy was distracted by civil wars, and the Visconti had made themselves masters of the Milanese. The emperor, true to his principle of sanctioning power wherever found, appointed these usurpers his vicars-general in Lombardy, and, emboldened by this, Barnabas Visconti threatened to subject all Italy to his yoke. Pope Urban V. sent an invitation to Charles to concert measures of resistance with him, hastened from Avignon to Rome, concluded several alliances, levied troops, and waited for the emperor, who actually appeared with a considerable force; so that Italy for a short time deemed itself safe. Charles took advantage of the pope's situation to persuade him to crown his fourth wife, Elizabeth of Pomerania, at Rome, and in return entered into the most positive engagements with Urban. Notwithstanding this, he again engaged in negotiations with the Visconti, and sold them a formal confirmation of all their usurpations. In like manner, during his residence in Italy, he sold states and cities to the highest bidder, or, if they themselves offered most, made them independent republics. With great treasures, but despised by his enemies and hated by his allies, he returned to Germany. Gregory XI. having given his consent that his son Wenceslaus should be elected king of the Romans, he employed his ill-gotten wealth to purchase the votes of the electors, who were irritated at the conduct of the pope, and distributed among them in addition the domains of the empire on the Rhine and several free imperial cities. Thus he attained his object.

To maintain their rights against the arbitrary measures of the emperor, the imperial cities in Suabia formed the celebrated *Swabian league*, which Charles opposed in vain. To the pope he manifested his gratitude by extending the privileges of the clergy. The empire was nearly ruined when Charles died at Prague in 1378. To his eldest son, Wenceslaus, he left Bohemia and Silesia; to the second, Sigismund, the electorate of Brandenburg, and to the third Lusatia. His reign is remarkable for the improvement and prosperity of Bohemia, for the founding of the universities of Prague and Vienna, for a terrible persecution of the Jews, and as the period when the sale of letters of nobility commenced in Germany.

CHARLES V., emperor of Germany and king of Spain, was the eldest son of Philip, archduke of Austria, and of Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, was born at Ghent on the 24th

of February, 1500. Charles's birth gave him claims to the fairest countries of Europe. He was educated in the



Netherlands, under the care of William of Croy, lord of Chievres, but he preferred military exercises to study. Chievres, without diverting him from his favourite occupations, taught him history, formed him for affairs of state, and implanted in him that gravity which he retained through life. After the death of Ferdinand, his grandfather, in 1516, Charles assumed the title of king of Spain. The management of this kingdom was entrusted to the celebrated cardinal Ximenes, who by his genius prepared the way for the glorious reign of Charles V. In 1519 Maximilian likewise died, and Charles was now elected emperor. He left Spain to take possession of his new dignity, for which he had to contend with Francis I. king of France. His coronation took place at Aix-la-Chapelle with extraordinary splendour. The elective capitulation signed by his ambassadors he ratified without hesitation. The chief features of it were the reservations made by the electors, securing themselves against foreign influence. The emperor was not to begin any war without their consent; no language but the German or Latin was to be used in the administration of the affairs of the empire, and the rich commercial confederacies of merchants, whose wealth, as the instrument expressed it, had enabled them to act according to their own will, were to be abolished by the emperor, assisted by the advice of the members of the empire. The association aimed at was the powerful Hanseatic league, whose influence had excited the electors' jealousy. The progress of the reformation in Germany demanded the care of the new emperor, who held a diet at Worms, and Luther, who appeared at this diet with a safe conduct from Charles, defended his cause with energy and boldness. The emperor kept silent; but, after Luther's departure, a severe edict appeared against him, in the name of Charles, who thought it for his advantage to show himself the defender of the Roman church. The claims which Francis I. had advanced to the empire, and those which he still preferred to Italy, the Netherlands, and Navarre, made war appear inevitable. Charles prepared for it by an alliance with the pope, and hostilities broke out in 1521. The French, victorious beyond the

Pyrenees, were unsuccessful in the Netherlands. A congress held at Calais only increased the irritation, and gave Henry VIII., king of England, a pretext for declaring himself for Charles, whose party daily acquired strength. A serious insurrection in Spain was happily subdued. The defeat of Bonnivet in the Milanese, and the accession of the constable of Bourbon, indemnified Charles V. for his want of success in Provence. Francis, who was besieging Pavia, was defeated by the imperial forces, and taken prisoner in 1525. On this occasion Charles feigned the moderation of a Christian hero. Without improving his advantages, he remained inactive in Spain, but endeavoured to obtain his object in another way. He proposed to Francis I. such hard conditions that this unfortunate prince swore that he would die in captivity rather than accede to them. Meanwhile he was carried to Spain, and treated with respect. Charles, however, did not visit him until he was informed that the life of his prisoner was in danger. The treaty of Madrid was finally concluded in January 1526. The power of Charles now became a source of uneasiness to most other princes of Europe, and Pope Clement VII. placed himself at the head of a league of the principal states of Italy against the emperor; but their ill-directed efforts were productive of new misfortunes. Rome was taken by storm by the troops of the constable, sacked, and the pope himself made prisoner. Charles V. publicly disavowed the proceedings of the constable, went into mourning with his court, and carried his hypocrisy so far as to order prayers for the deliverance of the pope. On restoring the holy father to liberty, he demanded a ransom of 400,000 crowns of gold, but was satisfied with a quarter of that sum. He also released for 2,000,000 the French princes, who had been given to him as hostages.

Henry VIII. now allied himself with the French monarch against Charles, who accused Francis of having broken his word, given on the honour of a gentleman. The quarrel brought on a challenge to a duel, which did not however take place, and the war was terminated in 1529 by the treaty of Cambray, of which the conditions were favourable to the emperor. Charles soon after left Spain, and was crowned in Bologna as king of Lombardy and Roman emperor, and on the occasion of this solemnity the proud Charles kissed the feet of the same pope who had been his prisoner. In 1530 he seemed desirous at the diet of Augsburg to reconcile the various parties; but, not succeeding, he issued a decree against the Protestants, which they met by the Smalcaldic league. He also published in 1532 a law of criminal procedure. Notwithstanding his undertakings in favour of the Catholic religion, Charles always showed himself moderate towards the Protestants whenever his interest left room for toleration. Nor did the Protestant princes hesitate to furnish their contingents when he was assembling an army against the Turks. Having compelled Solyman to retreat, he undertook in 1535 an expedition against Tunis, reinstated the dey, and released 20,000 Christian slaves. This success added to his character somewhat of the chivalric, which gave him still more influence in Christendom, and promoted his political projects. He manifested this chivalrous spirit still more in a speech which he made at Rome before the pope and cardinals, when hostilities were renewed in Italy against France. In this he proposed a duel,



in which the duchy of Burgundy on the one part, and the duchy of Milan on the other, were to be the prize; but on the following day he expressed himself in such a manner to the French ambassador that it was suspected that his challenge was only a figure of speech. His invasions of Provence and Picardy met with small success.

A truce was concluded in 1537, and the two monarchs had an interview, in which they spoke only of mutual respect and esteem. Soon after, Charles, who was in Spain, where he had annihilated the old constitution of the cortes, wished to pass through France to the Netherlands. He spent six days with Francis I. in Paris, where the two princes appeared together in all public places like brothers. Courtiers were not wanting who advised the king of France to detain his guest, until he had annulled the treaty of Madrid; but Francis was satisfied with promises, which Charles very soon forgot. Having quelled the disturbances in the Netherlands, Charles resolved in 1541 to crown his reputation by the conquest of Algiers. Against Doria's advice, he embarked in the stormy season, and lost a part of his fleet and army, without gaining any advantage. After his return, his refusal to invest the king of France with the territory of Milan involved him in a new war, in which the king of England embraced his part. The army of Charles was defeated at Cerisola; but, on the other hand, he penetrated to the heart of Champagne. The disturbances caused in Germany by the reformation induced the emperor to accede to the peace of Crespy, in 1545, as the policy of Charles was to reconcile the two parties, and, towards the Protestants, he employed alternately threats and promises. After some show of negotiation, the Protestant princes raised the standard of war; and the emperor declared in 1546 the heads of the league under the ban of the empire, excited divisions among the confederates, collected an army in haste, and obtained several advantages over his enemies. John Frederic, the elector of Saxony, was taken prisoner in the battle of Muhlberg in 1547. Charles received him sternly, and gave him over to a court-martial, consisting of Italians and Spaniards, under the presidency of Alva, which condemned him to death. The elector saved his life only by renouncing his electorate and his hereditary estates; but he remained a prisoner. Meanwhile the emperor appeared somewhat more moderately inclined towards the vanquished party. On coming to Wittenberg, he expressed surprise that the exercise of the Lutheran worship had been discontinued; and, when he visited the grave of Luther, said, "I do not war with the dead: let him rest in peace: he is already before his judge." The landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, one of the heads of the Protestants, was compelled to sue for mercy; and, notwithstanding the promise, Charles deprived him of his freedom.

After having dissolved the league of Smalcalden, the emperor again occupied himself with the plan of uniting all religious parties, and for this purpose issued the Interim, so called, which was as fruitless as the measures proposed by him at the diet of Augsburg. Neither was he successful in securing the imperial crown to his son. Discord still agitated public sentiment, and a new war broke out against him. Maurice of Saxony, whom he had invested with the electoral dignity, formed a league, which was joined by Henry II., king of France, the successor of Francis. The preparations had been made with the greatest

secrecy. Charles was at Inspruck, superintending the deliberations of the council of Trent, and meditating great plans against France and Turkey, and was expecting the aid of Maurice, when this prince threw off the mask, appeared suddenly at the head of an army, and invaded the Tyrol in 1552, while Henry II. entered Lorraine. Charles was near being surprised in Inspruck, in the middle of a stormy night. Tormented by the gout, he escaped alone, in a litter, by difficult roads. Maurice abandoned the imperial castle to plunder; the council of Trent was dissolved; and the Protestants dictated the conditions of the treaty of Passau in 1552. Charles withdrew to Brussels, where, hard pressed by his enemies, and suffering from the gout, he became gloomy and dejected, and for several months concealed himself from the sight of every one, so that a report of his death was spread through Europe. His last exertions were directed against France, which constantly repelled his assaults. The diet of Augsburg, in 1555, confirmed the treaty of Passau, and gave the Protestants equal rights with the Catholics. Charles saw all his plans frustrated, and the number of his enemies increasing. He therefore resolved to transfer his hereditary states to his son Philip. Having conveyed the estates of the low countries at Louvain, in 1555, he explained to them the reasons of his resolution, asserted that he had sacrificed himself for the interests of religion and of his subjects, but that his strength was inadequate to further exertions, and that he should devote to God the remainder of his days. He then turned to Philip, who had thrown himself on his knees and kissed the hand of his father, reminded him of his duties, and made him swear to labour incessantly for the good of the people. He then gave him his blessing, embraced him, and sunk back exhausted on his chair. At that time Charles conferred on Philip the sovereignty of the Netherlands alone. In January, 1556, he conferred upon him, in like manner, the Spanish throne, reserving for himself merely a pension of 100,000 ducats. The remaining time that he spent in the Netherlands he employed in reconciling his son with France, and effected the conclusion of a truce.

Having made an unsuccessful attempt to induce his brother Ferdinand to transfer the imperial crown to the head of his son, he sent a solemn embassy to Germany to announce to the electors his abdication, after which he embarked at Zealand, and landed on the coast of Biscay. It is said that he threw himself on the earth on landing, kissed it, and exclaimed, "Naked I left the womb of my mother, and naked I return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." He had selected for his residence the monastery of St. Justus, near Placencia, in Estremadura, and here he exchanged sovereignty, dominion, and pomp, for the quiet and solitude of a cloister. His amusements were confined to short rides, to the cultivation of a garden, and to mechanical labours. It is said that he made wooden clocks, and, being unable to make two clocks go exactly alike, was reminded of the folly of his efforts to bring a number of men to the same sentiments. He attended religious services twice every day, read books of devotion, and, by degrees, fell into such dejection that his faculties seemed to suffer from it. He renounced the most innocent pleasures, and observed the rules of the monastic life in all their rigour. In order to perform an extraordinary act of piety, he resolved to celebrate

his own obsequies. Wrapped in a shroud, and surrounded by his retinue, he laid himself in a coffin, which was placed in the middle of the church. The funeral service was performed, and the monarch mingled his voice with those of the clergy, who prayed for him. After the last sprinkling, all withdrew, and the doors were closed. He remained some time in the coffin, then rose, threw himself before the altar, and returned to his cell, where he spent the night in deep meditation. This ceremony hastened his death. He was attacked by a fever, of which he died, in September, 1558. Charles had a noble air and refined manners. He spoke little, and smiled seldom. Firm of purpose, slow to decide, prompt to execute, equally rich in resources and sagacious in the choice of them, gifted with a cool judgment, and always master of himself, he steadily pursued his purpose, and easily triumphed over obstacles. Circumstances developed his genius, and made him great. Although his want of faith was notorious, he imposed, by the semblance of magnanimity and sincerity, even on those who had already experienced his perfidy. An acute judge of men, he knew how to use them for his purposes. He protected and encouraged the arts and sciences, and is said to have picked up a brush, which had fallen from the hand of Titian, with the words, "Titian is worthy of being served by an emperor." By his wife Eleonora, daughter of Emanuel, king of Portugal, he had one son, afterwards Philip II., and two daughters. He had also several natural children.

Charles V. is one of the most remarkable characters in history. He exhibited no talents in his youth, and in after life, when his armies in Italy were winning battle after battle, he remained quietly in Spain, apparently not much interested in these victories; but, even in his early youth, his motto was, "not yet." It was not till his thirtieth year that he showed himself active and independent; but, from this time to his abdication, he was, throughout, a monarch. No minister had a marked influence over him. He was indefatigable in business, weighing the reasons on both sides of every case with great minuteness; very slow in deciding, unchangeable of purpose, so that he once said to a courtier, who praised him for his perseverance and firmness, that he sometimes insisted upon things not right. Granvella was the only person who possessed his entire confidence. Wherever he was, he imitated the customs of the country, and won the favour of every people except the Germans. Among them he was not liked, owing to his want of the frankness which they expected in their emperor. Charles was slow in punishing, as well as in rewarding; but, when he did punish, it was with severity; when he rewarded, it was with munificence. His health early declined, so that even in his fortieth year he felt himself weak. After his mother's death, he thought sometimes that he heard her voice, calling to him to follow her.

CHARLES VI., the second son of the emperor Leopold I., was born in October, 1685. The last prince of the house of Hapsburg, Charles II., disregarding the house of Austria, whose right to the Spanish throne was undoubted according to the law of inheritance by descent, had by his will made Philip, duke of Anjou, second grandson of Louis XIV., heir of the Spanish monarchy; and after the death of Charles II., in November, 1700, Philip had taken possession of the vacant kingdom. England and Holland united

against him, and this alliance was soon joined by the German empire, Portugal, and Savoy. Charles was proclaimed king of Spain at Vienna in 1703, and proceeded by way of Holland to England, from whence, in January, 1704, he set sail with 12,000 men for Spain, which was almost wholly occupied by the French, and landed in Catalonia. He succeeded in making himself master of Barcelona; but he was soon besieged there by his rival Philip V. The French had already taken Mont Jouy; preparations were making for an assault on the city, and it seemed as if Charles could not escape being captured. Nevertheless, at the head of a garrison of hardly 2000 men, he made the most obstinate resistance till the long-expected English fleet appeared, which put to flight the French ships that blockaded the harbour, and landed a body of troops, which compelled the French speedily to raise the siege. This event was followed by alternate reverses and successes. Twice Charles reached Madrid, and twice was he driven from the city. The first time, in 1706, he caused himself to be proclaimed king in the capital under the name of Charles III. He had been a second time compelled to flee to the walls of Barcelona, when he was informed of the death of his brother Joseph I. According to the will of Leopold, this event placed the double crown of Charles V. on his head: to his claims on Spain it added the more certain possession of the Austrian dominions. But the allies were averse to seeing so much power united in the same hands.

Charles repaired to Germany by way of Italy, and on his arrival learned that, at Eugene's suggestion, he had also been elected emperor. His coronation took place at Frankfort in December, 1711, and in the following year he received at Presburg the crown of Hungary. At the same time he still retained the empty title of king of Spain. He now prosecuted, under the conduct of Eugene, the Spanish war of succession, which his brother had carried on with so much success in the Netherlands; but, Marlborough's disgrace and the retreat of the English army having resulted in a defeat at Denain, the allies concluded a peace with France at Utrecht in 1713, in spite of all the efforts of the emperor to prevent it. He was obliged in the following year to sign the treaty of Rastadt. This treaty secured him in the possession of Milan, Mantua, Sardinia, and the Netherlands. Soon after, in June 1715, the Turks declared war against Venice. The emperor undertook the defence of this republic. His brave armies, led by Eugene, achieved decisive victories at Peterwardein and Belgrade. But, as the Spaniards menaced Italy, Charles concluded in 1718 the peace of Passarowitz, by which he obtained Belgrade, the north of Servia, and Temeswar. Cardinal Alberoni, who was at the head of the cabinet of Madrid, involved Austria by his schemes in a new war. But the quadruple alliance concluded at London in 1718 terminated the war with the removal of this minister in 1720.

To secure his dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa in default of male heirs, Charles strove to induce the various powers to guarantee the pragmatic sanction, which settled the succession in her favour, and he succeeded by degrees in gaining the concurrence of all the European powers. The emperor availed himself of a short period of peace to establish various institutions for the benefit of commerce. He visited in person the coasts of Istria, where he caused roads and harbours to be constructed and



vessels to be built. His plans respecting the Indian trade in the Netherlands had not the same success, and he was compelled to sacrifice them to the pretensions of the maritime powers. The reign of this prince, by nature a lover of peace, was marked with perpetual agitations. The succession to the Polish throne, after the death of Augustus II. in 1733, disturbed the peace of Europe, and Charles with Russia supported the son of this prince, but France and Spain declared themselves for Stanislaus Leczinsky. From this arose a bloody war, which terminated, in 1735, in the loss of the Two Sicilies and a part of the duchy of Milan. Austria received Tuscany in exchange for Lorraine, and obtained Parma. Hardly had Charles finished this war when his alliance with Russia involved him anew in a war with the Turks. In 1737 his troops, under field-marshal Seckendorf, invaded Servia without any declaration of war, and occupied Nissa. But the Turks renewed their attacks with a continually-augmented force, and obliged the emperor, after three unsuccessful campaigns, to cede to them, by the peace of Belgrade in 1739, Walachia, and the Austrian part of Servia, with Belgrade. Charles died in October, 1740, at a time when he was employed in the improvement of his distracted finances, and was about putting the last hand to the pragmatic sanction, by causing the grand duke of Tuscany, his son-in-law, to be chosen king of the Romans.

CHARLES VII., king of the Romans, was born at Brussels in the year 1697, and was the son of Maximilian Emanuel, elector of Bavaria, then governor of the Spanish Netherlands. His youth was spent at the imperial court, and in the war against the Turks he commanded the army of auxiliaries sent by his father. In 1722 he married the daughter of Joseph I., having previously renounced all rights which this marriage might give him to the succession to the throne of Austria. In 1726 he succeeded his father as elector of Bavaria. He was one of the princes who protested against the pragmatic sanction guaranteed in 1732 by the diet of Ratisbon, and, in consequence, concluded a defensive alliance with Saxony.

After the death of Charles VI., in 1740, he refused to acknowledge Maria Theresa as his heiress, founding his own claims to the succession on a testament of Ferdinand I., and he was supported by the king of France with a considerable force. In 1741 he was recognized at Linz as archduke of Austria. The obstacles thrown in his way by Cardinal Fleury, who wished not to dismember the Austrian monarchy, as well as the want of artillery and ammunition, prevented him from getting possession of Vienna. On the other hand, he took Prague, where he was crowned and proclaimed king of Bohemia. In 1742 he was unanimously elected king of the Romans: he made a solemn entry into Frankfort, and was crowned by his brother, the elector of Cologne. But fortune soon deserted him. The armies of Maria Theresa reconquered all Upper Austria, and overwhelmed Bavaria, and it became necessary to abandon Bohemia. Charles fled to Frankfort and convoked a diet, when an attack of the king of Prussia on Maria Theresa allowed him to return to Munich in 1744, in which city he died in January, 1745, exhausted by grief and disease.

CHARLES IV., king of Spain, was born at Naples, on the 12th November, 1740, and went to

Madrid in 1759, when his father, Charles III., after the death of his brother Ferdinand VI., ascended the Spanish throne, and succeeded him December 13, 1788. He was married to the princess of Parma, Louisa Maria. Too imbecile to govern, he was always ruled by his wife and his ministers, among whom the prince of peace, Godoy, duke of Alcudia, from the year 1792, had unbounded influence over him. The hatred which this favourite drew on himself from the prince of Asturias, and other grandees, brought on a revolution in 1808, which enabled Napoleon to dethrone the Bourbons. Charles abdicated at Aranjuez, but afterwards revoked this abdication, and finally ceded, at Bayonne, his right to the throne to Napoleon, who settled on him for life the palace of Compiègne and a pension of 30,000,000 of rials, of which 2,000,000 were destined for the queen's jointure. Charles after this lived at Compiègne with the queen and the prince of peace, but subsequently exchanged this residence for Rome, where the climate was more congenial to him. From 1815, he occupied the palace Barberini, in that city. Hunting he always made his principal employment. He died at Naples, on the 19th of January, 1819, of a relapse of the gout, while on a visit to his brother, the king of the Two Sicilies. His wife died a short time previous.

CHARLES THE BOLD, duke of Burgundy.—This celebrated military leader was the son of Philip the Good and Isabella of Portugal, and was born at Dijon, in November, 1433. He was of a violent impetuous disposition, sometimes breaking out into the most extravagant fury, and early displayed that unhappy ambition which was the source of his errors and misfortunes. His dislike of the lords of the house of Croy, the favourites of his father, was insurmountable; and, being unable to procure their disgrace, he withdrew from the court, and went to Holland. He was again reconciled, however, with his father, whom he inspired with his own hatred of Louis XI., and placed himself at the head of the party then forming against that monarch. Having passed through Flanders and Artois, he crossed the Somme at the head of 26,000 men, and appeared before Paris. The king sent the bishop of the city, Alain Chartier, to reproach him for waging war against his sovereign. But the heir of Burgundy answered, "Tell your master that against a prince who makes use of the dagger and poison there are always sufficient grounds of war, and that, in marching against him, one is very sure of finding, on the way, companions enough. Moreover, I have taken up arms solely at the urgent request of the people, nobility, and princes: these are my accomplices!" Louis met him at Montlheri. Charles broke through one wing of the royal army, and allowed himself to be carried on too far in pursuit of the fugitives. Surrounded by fifteen *gens d'armes*, who had already killed his master of the horse, he received a wound, but refused to surrender, performed prodigies of valour, and thus gave his soldiers time to come to his release. From this time, Charles conceived so high an opinion of his own talents for war that the greatest reverses could not cure him of it.

He succeeded his father in 1467, and immediately engaged in a war with the citizens of Liege, whom he conquered and treated with extreme severity. Before this undertaking, he had been obliged to restore to the citizens of Ghent the privileges which had



been taken from them by Philip the Good. He now revoked his forced concessions, caused the leaders of the insurrection to be executed, and imposed a large fine on the city. In 1468 he married Margaret of York, sister of the king of England, and resolved immediately to renew the civil war in France; but Louis disarmed him by giving him 120,000 crowns of gold. In the same year the monarch and the duke had a meeting at Peronne, in order to adjust their differences. There the duke learned that the inhabitants of Liege, instigated by the king, had rebelled anew. In vain did Louis on oath protest his innocence: he was imprisoned and strictly guarded. After hesitating long between the most violent measures, the duke finally compelled the king to sign a treaty, the most disgraceful condition of which was that he should march with Charles against the city of Liege, which he had himself excited against the duke. Charles encamped before Liege, in company with the king: the city was taken by storm, and abandoned to the fury of the soldiers. Such success rendered the mind of the duke utterly obdurate, and added the last traits of that inflexible sanguinary character which made him the scourge of his neighbours, and led to his own destruction. Edward IV. conferred on him, in 1470, the order of the garter. Shortly after, he received, in Flanders, Edward himself, who came to seek an asylum with the duke, and Charles gave him money and ships to return to England. About the end of the same year, the war between the king of France and the duke of Burgundy was renewed; and never did Charles show himself more deserving of the name of the *Bold*, or *Rash*, than in this war. Forced to sue for a truce, he nevertheless soon took up arms anew, accused the king, publicly, of magic and poisoning, and, at the head of 24,000 men, crossed the Somme. He took the city of Nesle by storm, caused fire to be set to it, and, as he saw it burning, said, with barbarous coolness, "Such are the fruits of the tree of war."

An enemy to tranquillity, insensible to pleasure, loving nothing but destruction and bloodshed, and, notwithstanding his pride, master of the art of procuring allies, Charles, who desired to be equal to Louis XI. in dignity and rank, as well as in power, formed the plan of enlarging his dominions on the Rhine, and elevating his states into a kingdom, under the name of Belgic Gaul. He visited the emperor Frederic III., at Treves, to obtain the title of king and vicar-general of the empire, which the emperor had promised him on condition that he should marry his daughter to the archduke; but, as neither would enter first into obligations, they separated in dissatisfaction, and the negociation was broken off. Louis, meanwhile, involved Charles in greater embarrassments, by exciting against him Austria and the Swiss. Charles now determined to dethrone him, and, for this purpose, made an alliance with the king of England; but, being compelled to hasten to the aid of his relative, the bishop of Cologne, he lost ten months before Neuss, which he besieged in vain, and then hastened to Lorraine to take revenge on the duke Rene, who at the instigation of France had declared war against him. Having completed the conquest of Lorraine by the taking of Nancy, in 1475, he turned his arms against the Swiss; and notwithstanding the representations of these peaceful mountaineers, who told him that all that he could find among them would not be worth so much

as the spurs of his horsemen, he took the city of Granson, and put to the sword 800 men by whom it was defended. But these cruelties were soon avenged by the signal victory which the Swiss obtained near the same city, on the 3d of March, 1476. With a new army he returned to Switzerland, and lost the battle of Murten; and the duke of Lorraine, who had fought in the army of the Swiss, led the victors to the walls of Nancy, which surrendered immediately. At the first information of this siege, Charles marched to Lorraine to retake the city of Nancy from the duke Rene. He entrusted to the count of Campo-Basso the charge of the first attack, and, on learning that this officer was a traitor, he regarded the information as a snare. Campo-Basso protracted the siege, and gave Rene time to come up with 20,000 men. On the approach of this army, he deserted with his troops to the enemy, so that the army of Charles now consisted of only 4000 men. Against the advice of his council Charles persisted in risking battle with such unequal forces. On the 5th of January, 1477, the two armies met: the right wing of the Burgundian was broken through and dispersed, and the centre, commanded by the duke in person, was attacked in front and flank. As Charles was putting on his helmet, the gilded lion, which served for a crest, fell to the ground, and he exclaimed with surprise, "Ecce magnum signum Dei!" Defeated, and carried along with the current of fugitives, he fell, with his horse, into a ditch, where he was killed by the thrust of a lance, in the forty-fourth year of his age. His body, covered with blood and mire, and with the head imbedded in the ice, was not found till two days after the battle, when it was so disfigured that for some time his own brothers did not recognize it. He was finally known by the length of his beard and nails (which he had suffered to grow since his defeat at Morat), as well as by the scar of a sword-cut which he had received in the battle of Montlheri. With this prince expired the feudal government in Burgundy.

Charles was not without good qualities. In the government of his people we find no traces of the severity with which he treated others, and his disposition made him attentive to the administration of justice. He was buried at Nancy, at the command of the duke of Lorraine. In 1550 Charles V., his great-grandson, caused his remains to be conveyed to Bruges. He was married three times, but left only one daughter, Maria, heiress of Burgundy, by Isabella of Bourbon, his second wife.

CHARLES IX., king of France.—This monarch was the son of Henry II. and Catharine of Medici. He was born in 1550, at St. Germain en-Laye, and ascended the throne at the age of ten years, after the death of his brother Francis II. No regency was appointed, and it was deemed sufficient to write to the parliament, through the young prince, that he had requested his mother to undertake the administration of the public affairs; and the parliament acquiesced in this resolution, to avoid exciting new contests between the Guises and the princes of the blood. Catharine consented that the king of Navarre should be appointed governor general of the realm, as she was too well aware of the weakness of his character to fear it. In order to gratify her ambition, she resolved to throw every thing into confusion. The Guises soon saw that they must oppose a Catholic league to the political associations of the Calvinists; and the cruel persecutions against the



Huguenots now broke out. The duke of Guise, who obtained possession of the person of the young king, was shot by an assassin before Orleans, in February 1563. In his last moments he advised the king and the queen mother to negotiate with the parties. This advice was followed, and a treaty was signed. The king, who was the same year declared of age, visited the provinces in company with his mother. At Bayonne he had a meeting with his sister Isabella, the wife of Philip II. of Spain. This excited such suspicions in the Calvinists that they took up arms, and immediately formed the plan of attacking the king on his return to Paris. Being warned in season he escaped the danger; but this plot could not fail to arouse the hatred of Charles, who was proud by nature, and more to be pitied than blamed for his too great confidence in his artful mother.

After the battle of St. Denis in 1567, in which the constable of Montmorency lost his life, Catharine entered into negotiations for peace. But the Calvinists reserved a part of the places which they were to have surrendered, and continued to keep up a communication with England and the German princes. A new civil war soon broke out; and, notwithstanding the jealousy of Charles, Catharine placed the duke of Anjou at the head of the royal army. The prince of Condé having been shot in the battle of Jarnac, in 1569, and the admiral Coligni having been defeated at Montcontour in the same year, the king concluded peace in 1570 on terms which were so favourable to the Calvinists that they seem even to have suspected treachery under them. The heads of that party did not therefore all appear at court when Charles celebrated his marriage with Elizabeth, the daughter of Maximilian II. By degrees this distrust disappeared, and the marriage of the young king of Navarre (afterwards Henry IV.), with Margaret, sister of Charles IX., seemed to banish every suspicion. This marriage took place August 18, 1572. On the 22d the first attempt was made on the life of Coligni, and on the 24th began that massacre known under the name of "the massacre of St. Bartholomew's," from having taken place on the night of the festival of that saint. Civil war again broke out for the fourth time, and Catharine now became aware of the errors of her policy. Charles could no longer conceal his aversion to her, and was on the point of assuming himself the reins of government when he died, childless, in 1574. He was succeeded by his brother Henry III. Charles was brave, indefatigable, ambitious, of a lively penetrating genius, and loved the sciences. The cruelties which disgrace his reign should be laid to the charge of his mother rather than himself.

**CHARLES EMANUEL I.**, duke of Savoy.—This prince was born at the castle of Rivali in 1562, and particularly distinguished himself in the battles of Montbrun, Vigo, Asti, Chatillon, Ostage, at the siege of Berne, and on the walls of Suza. He formed, in 1590, the plan of uniting Provence to his dominions, and Philip II. of Spain, his father-in-law, obliged the parliament of Aix to acknowledge him as the protector of this province, in order, by this example, to induce France to acknowledge the king of Spain as protector of the whole realm. The duke of Savoy, not less ambitious, likewise aimed at this crown; and, after the death of Matthias, desired also to be chosen emperor of Germany. He likewise intended to conquer the king-

dom of Cyprus, and to take possession of Macedonia, the inhabitants of which, oppressed by the Turks, offered him the sovereignty over their country. Henry IV., who had reason to complain of the duke, and whose general, the duke of Lesdiguière, had beaten Charles Emanuel several times, entered at last into a treaty of peace with him, not disadvantageous to the duke of Savoy; but he could not remain quiet, and began again a war with France, Spain, and Germany. He died of chagrin at Savillon, in 1630. He is one of those princes who render the surname of Great suspicious. His heart was as hard as his native rocks. He built palaces and churches, loved and patronised the sciences, but thought little of making them sources of happiness.

**CHARLEMONT, LORD.**—This distinguished nobleman was descended from the ancient family of Caulfield, and acted so important a part in the affairs of Ireland during the last century that it becomes necessary for us to trace his life somewhat in detail. At an early period in life Lord Charlemont determined on taking a manly and independent position, and, attaching himself neither to the court nor to the popular party, to hold out a standard to which, if emergency rendered it necessary, men of public spirit and honourable principle might resort. He was occasionally, perhaps, found to espouse the popular side of some questions, from an idea that a liberal opposition was more necessary in Ireland than in England.

In 1763 the earl of Northumberland having arrived in Ireland, as lord lieutenant, communicated to Lord Charlemont that the king was so sensible of the important services he had rendered to the kingdom, not only upon the occasion of the descent of a small body of French under M. Thurot, upon Carrickfergus in 1760, but repeatedly afterwards in exerting himself to preserve the peace and tranquillity of the country, especially in the insurrection which broke out in Armagh and Tyrone in 1763, he had graciously directed that an earldom should be offered to him for his acceptance. Lord Charlemont, after expressing his gratitude to his majesty, hesitated a little as to the proffered dignity, from an apprehension that it might be conceived his future parliamentary conduct was to be influenced by it; but receiving an assurance from the earl of Northumberland that no such thing was contemplated, and it being suggested that as the offer of promotion having proceeded directly from the king himself any refusal of it might be construed as a mark of disrespect, Lord Charlemont at once acquiesced. It happened that soon after his sincerity was put to the test; for an address being moved in the house of lords, returning thanks for the conclusion of the treaty of Paris, he voted against the address, though his patent was then passing through the offices. To this patent, Lord Charlemont some years afterwards thought it necessary, "according to an ancient and honourable usage," to annex an engrossed testimonial, stating the manner in which it was granted, in consequence of his witnessing what he conceived to be an unwarrantable and unseemly profusion of the honours of the peerage of Ireland; in this he touches with great modesty on his own services, which he says were too inconsiderable to be recorded, and recurs to "the merits of the first peer of his family, and the remarkable circumstance of an earldom having been intended for his ancestor so early as the reign of James I."



On the 2d of July, 1768, he was united to Miss Hickman, the daughter of Robert Hickman, Esq., of the county of Clare, of an ancient and respectable family, allied to that of Lord Windsor. In the midst of political contests, Lord Charlemont never lost sight of literature. He at this time meditated a history of the poetry of Italy, from the time of Dante to that of Metastasio; but a variety of occupations withdrew his attention from that work for several years. He at last resumed it in 1785, and left an accurate account of the best poets of Italy during the period alluded to.

Some years afterwards, it was Lord Charlemont's lot to sustain a severe domestic calamity. His brother, Francis Caulfield, to whom he was greatly attached, was lost between Parkgate and Dublin, in returning from England to attend his duties in parliament as representative of the borough of Charlemont. The vessel in which he sailed foundered at sea, and all on board perished. By the vacancy which Mr. Caulfield's death occasioned in parliament, the electors of Charlemont were enabled, under the auspices of his lordship, to return to the House of Commons a man who was destined to act a more conspicuous part than any one whom they had ever before deputed to serve there. This was the celebrated Henry Grattan, who took his seat for the first time in the house the 11th of December, 1775.

The year 1778 furnishes not only ample but even splendid materials for the historian of Ireland. The national distress was indeed great, but the national spirit was still greater. The volunteer army now appeared, an institution totally unprecedented, totally unlike any thing which we read of in the annals of any other nation of the world. With the history of Lord Charlemont it particularly blends itself. It gave to him the justest celebrity, and, as he said himself, "to that institution my country owes its liberty, prosperity, and safety; and if, after *her* obligations, I can mention my own, I owe to it the principal and dearest honours of my life."

The origin of this singular association is in general pretty well known. About this time, and perhaps a year or so before, some detached corps had been embodied in different parts of Ireland, particularly the county of Wexford, by the public spirit of some gentlemen; but the volunteer army of Ireland is indebted for its formation to a letter of Sir Richard Heron, who was then there as secretary to Lord Buckinghamshire. Little did that gentleman imagine that any part of his correspondence should give rise to hosts of armed citizens, self-paid, self-commissioned, which not only protected, but for some years spread a glory round Ireland, astonished England, and, there is much reason to believe, obliged France to pause in the midst of some of her ambitious projects. An embargo had, in conjunction with other causes, reduced the export, and more especially the provision trade of Ireland. As the south languished under that embargo, so did the north under the pressure of the American war, which, as far as it could commercially operate there, desolated the linen trade, and, with the falling off of whatever meagre supports it had, fell also the revenue. The reduction of the former produced a general discontent, and of the latter an inability to pay for the necessary defence of the kingdom. In this state of things, the town of Belfast, which eighteen years before had been visited by invasion, applied to government for protection against the

enemy, who then menaced it with peculiar danger. Sir Richard Heron's answer was plain and candid—government could afford it none.

Antrim and the adjacent counties now poured forth their armed citizens; and the town of Armagh raised a body of men, at the head of whom Lord Charlemont placed himself. Every day beheld the institution expand. Several who had at first stood aloof now became volunteers from necessity, from fashion. No landlord could meet his tenants, nor member of parliament his constituents, who was not willing to serve and act with his armed countrymen. The "spirit-stirring drum" was heard through every province, to animate its inhabitants to the most sacred of all duties, the defence of their liberties and their country.

Shortly afterwards, the king having determined to create a new order of knighthood in Ireland, to be styled the knights of St. Patrick, Lord Temple the then viceroy wrote to Lord Charlemont in the most complimentary terms, alluding to his public services, and requesting his permission to place his name on the list then being prepared, in pursuance of his majesty's commands. Lord Charlemont, with many expressions of thanks, accepted the honour proposed to him. In the beginning of the following year, the installation took place and was conducted with great magnificence. Immense crowds attended the procession of the knights from the castle to the cathedral, and Lord Charlemont, as he passed along, was received with applause and acclamations by all ranks of people.

Early in 1786 Lord Charlemont was placed in a situation as new as it was agreeable to him. He was elected president of that learned body the Royal Irish Academy, then incorporated under the auspices of his majesty. When this honour was conferred on Lord Charlemont he did not regard it as a mere honorary distinction to add another title to the solemn enumeration of his dignities at the herald's office, and nothing to literature. Not one of the members attended the meetings of the Academy oftener than he did, few so constantly. His contemporary academicians were delighted with his urbanity, the graces of his conversation, and the variety of literary anecdote, ancient and modern, with which he amused and indeed instructed them during the intervals of their agreeable labours at the academy. In such labours he himself bore no inglorious part.

The greater portion of Lord Charlemont's life was now spent either at the house he had built at Palace Row or at his elegant villa near Dublin, which he had called Marino, from its proximity to the sea, in the enjoyment of the society of his friends, or engaged in literary occupations. His house was uniformly open to all who had any claim on his attention, either from similarity of constitutional principles or their cultivation of those pleasing and liberal studies which in general employed his mind, and were his most agreeable, though too often only momentary, refuge from severer labours. Every foreigner of taste, and every Englishman of rank and talent, who visited Dublin, made it a point to be introduced to him. As Edmund Burke once said of him, "he was indeed a man of such polished manners, of a mind so truly adorned and disposed to the adoption of whatever was excellent and praiseworthy, that to see and converse with him should alone induce any one who relished such qualities to pay a visit to Dublin."

About this time an event occurred which led to



the removal of the legislature from Ireland to England. We allude to the malady with which the king became afflicted, and by which the personal exercise of the royal authority being interrupted, it was deemed necessary to provide for the exigency. In the proceedings in the Irish parliament, Lord Charlemont took a conspicuous part. The meeting of the legislature was deferred as long as possible, and every effort was made to secure a majority for government, but in vain. Most of the members who had always voted with opposition, and many who on this occasion left the viceroy, proposed to Lord Charlemont to call a general meeting of such as were adverse to the proceedings in the British parliament. A large party therefore of the members of both houses met at Charlemont-house, on the 23d of February, 1789. In two days after, the session opened, when it was quickly found there was a preponderance against administration, as well in the Lords as in the Commons. In the House of Lords an address to the prince of Wales was moved by Lord Charlemont, supported by the duke of Leinster, Lord Granard, Lord Moira, Lord Donoughmore, and other peers, requesting his royal highness to take upon himself the government of Ireland, with the style and title of Prince Regent, and in the name and behalf of his majesty to exercise all regal powers during his majesty's indisposition, and no longer. Both houses now waited on Lord Buckingham, with their address to the prince, which his excellency refused to transmit. The consequence of this refusal (for which a vote of censure on the lord lieutenant passed both houses) was that the Commons appointed four of their members, and the Lords two of theirs, the duke of Leinster and Lord Charlemont, to proceed to England with the addresses. These proceedings terminated more happily than had been anticipated, by the restoration of the sovereign to perfect health. The deputation nevertheless, was received most graciously by the prince, who particularly distinguished the venerable earl.

On his return to Ireland, the health of Lord Charlemont began to fail considerably. He was now of rather advanced age, and his constitution had never at any time been very robust; he, nevertheless, continued to lead an active life, not only as a member of the legislature, but in forming the Whig club, which was established about this time, at whose meetings he often presided, and of which, when his health permitted, he was the life and ornament. It consisted of the leading members of the opposition in both houses of parliament, with the addition of many gentlemen who were not in parliament, nor belonged to any party, but that of the constitution. At the same time, he was no less assiduous in forming the literary than the political character of his country; he attended constantly the meetings of the Irish Academy.

In the stormy debates of the House of Commons, in the session of 1790, Lord Charlemont took a deep interest, and spent so much more of his time in the lower house than in the upper that it was said he should have been admitted *ad eundem* in the former assembly. It is true he never omitted his attendance in the Lords, but appeals constituted, at this time, the principal business of their lordships.

Soon after this, the Bath waters being recommended as beneficial to the health of some of his lordship's family, he prepared, at the close of April, to go there. The journey was undertaken by him

with cheerfulness. "It is not pleasant to me," says he, "to give up Marino; it is still less pleasant to me to give up my library; but it is least of all pleasant to me to absent myself from that sphere of public life where my endeavours may possibly be of some small utility to my country. My absence, however, will be, I trust, but short; and if wanted I shall be ready and at hand."

At Bath Lord Charlemont remained for nearly six months; and then returned to Ireland to resume his usual avocations. We find him during the succeeding years at his post in parliament, though his health continued to decline. We have no particular event to record about this time, except a melancholy one, the death of his second son, James Caulfield, a fine youth of seventeen years of age, who died in September, 1793. His loss was long severely felt by his father. In 1796, the government having determined to raise yeomanry corps throughout the kingdom for the internal protection of the country in case of emergency, infirm as Lord Charlemont was he went down to his own county of Armagh, where he was of essential service in promoting this object. Upon the dissolution of parliament, in July 1797, the venerable earl had the pleasure of seeing his eldest son, Lord Caulfield, elected for the county of Armagh, with the entire approbation and applause of those concerned in the election. Such marks of the esteem and affection of the people for himself and his family were always dear to him. The debate in which Lord Caulfield spoke for the first time was on a motion of Sir Laurence Parsons for an enquiry into the state of the nation, and to suggest such measures as were likely to conciliate the people. Lord Charlemont happened to be present, and in writing to Dr. Halliday he thus mentions the occurrence:—"You will see in the papers that Frank has broken the ice, an effort which gives me the more pleasure as I feared that the sheepishness of the father might have been entailed on the son. For his first essay he was not deficient in matter nor in manner, and he showed a bashfulness which indicates that sensibility without which no man ever yet succeeded as a speaker."

In the beginning of 1798, the health of Lord Charlemont began rapidly to sink. He was now subject to continued indisposition, daily sinking under his disorder, but still anxiously employed for the welfare of his country.

He had attended constantly in the House of Lords during the discussion of the question of the Union, and the first temporary defeat of that measure had given him some transient spirits; but his health declined every hour, his appetite had almost ceased, his limbs swelled, and it was evident to his family and his friends that he could not long survive. He was visited in his last illness by his numerous acquaintances, till his strength becoming more and more exhausted rendered him incapable of seeing but very few. At last, for some days previous to his dissolution, he sank into a species of stupor, and at length expired at Charlemont-house, in Dublin, on the 4th of August, 1799, in the seventieth year of his age. It was at first intended that his funeral should be public, and, though finally agreed on that it should be strictly private, it was most numerously attended. His remains were conveyed to Armagh, and interred in the family vault, in the ancient cathedral there.

**CHARLTON, WALTER.**—This eminent English physician was born at Shepton Mallet in 1619. He took an active part in favour of Charles I., and in 1689 was elected president of the college of physicians. He died in 1707, leaving behind him several works on natural history and antiquities.

**CHARLEVOIX, PETER FRANCIS XAVIER DE,** a French Jesuit, was born at St. Quentin in 1682. He was for some years a missionary in America, and on his return had a chief share in the "*Journal de Trévoux*" for more than twenty years. He died in 1761, greatly esteemed for his high moral character and extensive learning. Of his works, the "*Histoire Générale de la Nouvelle France*" is the most valuable. This describes his own experience, and the manners and customs of the native Americans, for which he is often quoted as a writer of good authority. His style is simple and unaffected, but not perfectly correct.

**CHARLOTTE AUGUSTA.**—This princess was the daughter of Queen Caroline and George IV. of England. She was born at Carlton House on the 7th of January, 1796, and passed the first years of her life under the eyes of her mother, who watched over her with the fondest affection. She was afterwards placed under the care of Lady Clifford, and the bishop of Exeter superintended her studies. These were calculated to prepare her to become, one day, the queen of a great nation, and she was obliged to attend to them from morning to evening. She is said to have been well acquainted with the principal ancient writers, and with the history and statistics of the European states, especially with the constitution and laws of her native country. She spoke, with ease, French, German, Italian, and Spanish, sung well, played on the harp, piano, and guitar, and sketched landscapes from nature with much taste.



Her style of writing was pleasing, and she was fond of poetry. In the unfortunate dissensions between her father and mother, she inclined to the side of the latter. The prince of Orange was fixed upon as her future husband, and the nation desired their union, because the prince had been educated in this country,

and was acquainted with the customs and interests of the people. After having completed his studies at the university of Oxford, he had served in the British army in Spain, and distinguished himself. The union, however, was prevented by the disinclination of the princess.

In the mean time, she was introduced at court in 1815, on her nineteenth birth-day. The princess, who, in any situation, would have been an ornament to her sex, displayed an ardent but generous disposition, an independence and loftiness of sentiment. In 1814 Prince Leopold of Coburg visited England, in the suit of the allied sovereigns, who went to London after the peace of Paris, and, having made an impression on the heart of the princess, he was permitted to sue for her hand. Their marriage, the result of personal inclination, was solemnized on the 2d of May, 1816. The prince (whom Napoleon declared, at St. Helena, one of the finest men he had ever seen) loved her with tenderness. They were always together, rode out in company, visited the cottages of the country people, and exhibited a pleasing picture of conjugal love. They seldom left Claremont, and only went to London when their presence at court was necessary. Their domestic life resembled that of a private family: after dinner, they painted together, and the evenings were devoted to music or reading. Meanwhile, the nation anxiously expected the moment when the princess, who was highly beloved, should become a mother. The expectations which had been entertained, however, were disappointed by a premature delivery. On the 5th of November, 1817, after three days of suffering, the princess was delivered of a dead child, and a few hours after her delivery she was seized with convulsions, and breathed her last.

**CHARNOCK, STEPHEN,** an eminent nonconformist divine, who was educated at Emanuel College, Cambridge. He was ejected from his living on the passing of the act of uniformity, after which he attached himself to the general body of dissenters, preaching at various chapels in the metropolis. He died in 1680, and his sermons and other works were afterwards published in two folio volumes.

**CHAROST, ARMAND JOSEPH DE BETHUNE, DUKE OF.**—This nobleman was born at Versailles in 1728, and proved himself a worthy descendant of his great ancestor Sully. He was the friend and father of his soldiers, and rewarded the brave from his own resources. In 1758 he sent all his plate to the mint, to supply the necessities of the state. The peace concluded in 1763 restored him to a more quiet sphere of usefulness; yet he did not discontinue his favours towards the soldiers whom he had commanded. He was particularly active in the promotion of agriculture and public instruction, and long before the revolution he abolished the feudal services on his own estates, and wrote against feudal institutions. He established charitable institutions, provided for the support and instruction of orphans, employed physicians and midwives, and founded and liberally endowed an hospital. In a year of dearth, he imported grain into Calais at his own expense. In the assembly of the notables, he declared himself for an equal distribution of the public burdens. Meanwhile the revolution broke out; and the decree relative to a patriotic contribution appeared. He made a voluntary present of 100,000 francs to the state. During the reign of



terror he retired to Meillant, where he was arrested, and did not obtain his liberty until after the 9th Thermidor. In the testimonies given in his behalf by the revolutionary committees, he was called the father and benefactor of suffering humanity. He returned to Meillant, where he established an agricultural society. No sacrifice was too great for him, and his vast fortune was scarcely sufficient for his enterprises. He died October 27, 1800, of the small-pox, lamented by the people, whose benefactor he had been.

**CHASTELER, JOHN GABRIEL, MARQUIS OF.**—This nobleman was a descendant in a collateral line from the dukes of Lorraine. He was born in 1763, and received his first education at Metz, in the College de Fort. In 1776 he entered the Austrian service, and, after having served against the Turks, he displayed his zeal for the house of Austria in the disturbances in the Netherlands. In 1796-97 he was employed in the negotiations of his court in Poland and Russia, was afterwards with Suwaroff in Italy, where he distinguished himself in several engagements with the French armies. In 1808, with Hoffer, he was the soul of the celebrated insurrection in the Tyrol, and all the political as well as military events which were connected with it. Meanwhile, the disasters at Ratisbon had taken place, and Chasteler was obliged to retreat into the northern part of Tyrol. Napoleon, enraged at the surrender of 8000 French and Bavarians at Innspruck, issued a proclamation at Enns, in which "a certain Chasteler, who calls himself a general in the Austrian service, but who is the leader of a band of robbers, and the author of the murders committed upon the French and Bavarian prisoners, as well as the instigator of the Tyrolese insurrection," is declared an outlaw, and ordered to be brought before a court-martial, and shot within twenty-four hours. The emperor Francis commanded that an order which violated all international laws, and which was the more censurable as Chasteler had taken particular care of the prisoners and the wounded, should be met by retaliation. The Bavarian army, under the command of the marshal duke of Dantzic, entered Tyrol: Chasteler fearlessly encountered it, but his army was routed. After the close of the war, he received several appointments, and in December, 1814, was made governor of Venice, where he died, May 7th, 1825. This general was of a chivalrous character and a cultivated mind; he spoke several languages, was as brave as he was generous, and was one of the noblest walloons in the armies of Austria.

**CHATEAUROUX, MARIE ANNE, DUCHESS OF.**—This celebrated female, who was a descendant of the illustrious house of Nesle, was married to the marquis de la Tournelle in 1734. Being left a widow at the age of twenty-three, she was received by her aunt, the duchess Mazarin, but soon lost this support. Her two sisters (mesdames de Vintimille and Mailly) had successively been in the possession of the favour of Louis XV., when the king conceived an ardent passion for her. She was made lady of honour to the queen, and afterwards duchess of Chateauroux, with a pension of 80,000 livres. By her persuasion Louis XV. put himself at the head of the armies in Flanders and Alsace, but he fell sick at Metz, his life was despaired of, and he was obliged to consent to the dismissal of the duchess. She was received in Paris by Richelieu, who, after the king's recovery,

effected her recal. Her triumph was complete, and she was promised the important post of superintendent of the dauphiness, when she died, in 1744.

**CHATHAM, WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF.**—This celebrated statesman was born at London in the year 1708. He was educated first at Eton and afterwards at Trinity College, Oxford, of which he was entered a gentleman commoner in 1726. On leaving the university he purchased a cornetcy in the Blues; but, urged probably by the desire of obtaining a more suitable field for the display of his abilities than a military life afforded, in 1735 he procured himself to be returned to parliament for the family borough of Old Sarum. Sir Robert Walpole was then at the head of affairs; and Pitt immediately joined the opposition, which eventually compelled that minister to retire in 1742. For the part which he thus took he was, the year after he entered parliament, deprived by Walpole of his commission, but was compensated by being made one of the gentlemen of the bedchamber to the prince of Wales. His eloquence, as soon as he began to take a part in the debates, raised him to distinction and importance; and, imperfectly as the proceedings of the house were then communicated to the public, his reputation as one of the most powerful speakers of the day seems to have rapidly spread itself over the nation. It was in 1740, in the course of this contest with Walpole's administration, that, on a motion relating to impressment, he made his famous reply to Mr. Horatio Walpole, the brother of the minister, vindicating himself from the double charge of youth and theatrical elocution, which Johnson reported with so much spirit in the "Gentleman's Magazine."

Walpole's administration was succeeded by that of Lord Carteret (afterwards earl of Granville); but this change did not introduce Pitt to office. The celebrated Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, however, left him in 1744 a legacy of 10,000*l.*, in reward, as it was expressed in the will, of the noble disinterestedness with which he had maintained the authority of the laws, and prevented the ruin of his country. The following year he resigned his post in the household of the prince. In 1746, under the premiership of the duke of Newcastle, Mr. Pitt was for the first time chosen to fill a place in the government, being appointed to the office of vice-treasurer for Ireland, from which he was transferred the same year to that of paymaster-general of the forces. In this situation, which he held for nearly nine years, he displayed his characteristic activity, energy, and decision, and the most high-minded integrity and contempt for many of the customary profits of office.

In 1755 however, on a disagreement with the majority of his colleagues, he resigned; but in little more than a year after the force of public opinion compelled his recal; and on the 4th December, 1756, he was appointed principal secretary of state. In the April following, finding his views still thwarted by the rest of the cabinet, he again retired; but within less than three months the king was obliged to yield to the national voice, the ministry was driven from power, and a new one was formed under the auspices of Pitt, who, reinstated in his former place of secretary of state, now exercised under that name the authority of premier. For the next four years Pitt may be regarded as having been the director of the energies of England; and they are four of the most glorious years in the history of the country.

Victory crowned the British arms wherever they appeared, whether on sea or on land; the French were beaten at almost every point both in the east and in the west; the vast territory of Canada was wrested from them, almost before the government at home was aware that it was in danger; and they were eventually stripped of nearly all their other colonies in every part of the world. Along with these successes abroad, tranquillity and contentment at home no less remarkably distinguished the supremacy of this able, patriotic, and popular minister. In October, 1760, George II. died, and the ascendancy of new principles which the new reign brought along with it before long compelled Pitt to tender the resignation of his services. His administration terminated, and that of Lord Bute commenced, in October, 1761.

No fallen minister ever carried with him more completely the confidence and regret of the nation over whose councils he had presided: but the king was also popular at this time, and, the war being continued by his new ministers with vigour and success, no discontent appeared till after the conclusion of peace. Our triumphs in the West Indies over both France and Spain had particularly elated the spirits of the people, and it was conceived that we ought either to dictate a peace as conquerors or continue the war till our adversaries should be more effectually humbled. With these ideas, when the preliminaries for peace were discussed in parliament, Mr. Pitt, though he had been for some time confined by a severe fit of the gout, went down to the House of Commons, and spoke for nearly three hours in the debate. He gave his opinion distinctly upon almost every article in the treaty, and, upon the whole, maintained that it was inadequate to the conquests and just expectations of the kingdom. Peace was however concluded on the 10th of February, 1763, and Mr. Pitt continued unemployed. He had the magnanimity not to enter into that petulant and indiscriminating plan of opposition which has so frequently disgraced the ill-judging candidates for power, but maintained his popularity in dignified retirement, and came forward only when great occasions appeared to demand his interference. One of these was the important question of general warrants in 1764, the illegality of which he maintained with all the energy of his genius and eloquence. A search or seizure of papers, without a specific charge alleged, would be, as he justly contended, repugnant to every principle of liberty. The most innocent man could not be secure. "But by the British constitution," he continued, "every man's house is his castle. Not that it is surrounded with walls and battlements. It may be a straw-built shed. Every wind of heaven may whistle round it. All the elements of nature may enter it. But the king cannot; the king dares not."

When the discontents in America began to appear, on the occasion of the stamp act, Mr. Pitt again found a subject for his exertions. The repeal of that act being proposed in March, 1766, by the new ministry of the Rockingham party, Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, very forcibly supported the measure.

In 1766 Mr. Pitt was made lord privy seal, and at the same time created earl of Chatham, a title by which he has been since universally known, but he resigned his ministerial office on the second of November, 1768, and it was the last public employment

which he ever accepted. He does not indeed appear to have been desirous of returning to office. He was now sixty; and the gout, by which he had been long afflicted, had become too frequent and violent in its attacks to allow of close or regular application to business. In the intervals of his disorder he continued occasionally to exert himself on questions of great magnitude, and was particularly strenuous in 1775, and the ensuing years, against the measures pursued by the ministers in the contest with America. Nevertheless, in all things he maintained his native spirit. When France began to interfere in the contest, he fired with indignation at the insult; and when, in 1778, it was thought necessary, after the repeated misfortunes of the war, to acknowledge the independence of America, he summoned up all the strength that remained within him to pour out his disapprobation of a measure which he considered so inglorious. He did so in a speech of considerable energy, and, being answered in the course of the debate by the duke of Richmond, seemed agitated with a desire to reply; but when he attempted to rise the effort proved too violent for his debilitated constitution, and he sank in a kind of fit into the arms of those who were near him. This extraordinary scene of a great statesman almost dying in the last exertion of his talents has been perpetuated by the pencil, and will live for ever in the memory of his countrymen. He did not long survive this effort. This debate happened on the 8th of April, 1778, and he died on the 11th of May ensuing.

Lord Chatham was buried in Westminster Abbey, and honoured by a public funeral, and two monuments were erected to his memory, one of which is given in the sketch beneath.



The sentiments of Lord Chatham were liberal and

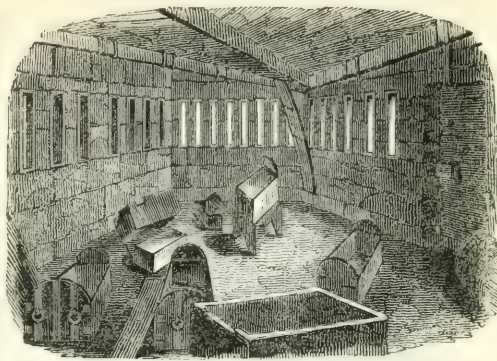


elevated, but he was haughty and impatient of contradiction, and perhaps exhibited too marked a consciousness of his own superiority. His private life was as estimable as his public character. To use the language of Lord Chesterfield, "it was stained by no vice, nor sullied by any meanness." No literary production of Lord Chatham, except one or two short poems, had appeared until the publication by Lord Grenville, in 1804, of his "Letters" to his nephew, afterwards the first Lord Camelford, which contain much excellent advice to a young man, clothed in easy and familiar language, and reflect equal honour on the author's head and heart.

But we cannot better conclude our notice of this distinguished statesman than by quoting the masterly delineation by Wilks:—"He was born an orator, and from nature possessed every outward requisite to bespeak respect and even awe. A manly figure, with the eagle eye of the famous Condé, fixed your attention, and almost commanded reverence the moment he appeared; and the keen lightnings of his eye spoke the high spirit of his soul before his lips had pronounced a syllable. There was a kind of fascination in his look when he eyed any one askance. Nothing could withstand the force of that contagion. The fluent Murray has faltered, and even Fox shrunk back appalled from an adversary 'fraught with fire unquenchable,' if I may borrow the expression of our great Milton. He had not the correctness of language so striking in the great Roman orator, but he had the *verba ardentia*, the bold glowing words."—See PITT.

CHATTERTON, THOMAS, a youthful poet whose genius, eccentricity, and melancholy fate have gained him much celebrity. He was born at Bristol in 1752 of poor parents, and he had not learned to read when an old French musical work happened to fall into his hands, the characters of which excited his curiosity. When eight years old he entered a charity-school at Colston, where the workings of his genius lay concealed under the appearance of melancholy and incapacity. However, when about ten years of age, he acquired a taste for reading, which became from that period a kind of ruling passion. His first work was a satire on a Methodist who had abandoned his sect from interested motives. This work was received with much applause. At the age of fourteen he left school, and was articled as apprentice to a scrivener at Bristol. His father, who died before his birth, had accidentally obtained possession of a number of old parchments of the fifteenth century. Many of these were consumed in the family; but several fell into the hands of Chatterton, who, after a few days, declared that he had discovered a treasure. He then procured glossaries of the old dialects of the country, and in 1768, when the new bridge at Bristol was completed, he inserted a paper in the "Bristol Journal," entitled "A Description of the Friars' first Passing over the Old Bridge, taken from an Ancient Manuscript." At the time of the publication of this paper he was but sixteen years old. Upon being questioned as to the manner in which he had obtained it, he finally asserted that he was in the possession of several valuable old manuscripts, taken, as those above-mentioned really were, from an old chest in Redcliffe Church, Bristol. A view of the interior of this room is given in the subjoined sketch, which from its peculiar architecture appears to have been well fitted for the study of the

monkish poet to whom Chatterton ascribed the composition of his principal works.



He had been engaged for a year in the composition of several poems, which he attributed to different ancient writers, and in 1769 he ventured to write to Horace Walpole, giving him an account of his literary discoveries, and enclosing a specimen. Having received a polite answer, he wrote a second letter, informing Walpole of his situation, and requesting pecuniary assistance to enable him to follow his inclination for poetry. Walpole however, who in the mean time had discovered the poems to be spurious, returned them to Chatterton without taking any further notice of him. Discontented with his situation, he obtained a release from his apprenticeship by threatening to put an end to his life, and went to London. The favourable reception which he there met from the booksellers inspired him with new hopes, and he wrote for several journals on the side of the opposition. He indulged the hope of effecting a revolution, and used to boast that he was destined to restore the rights of the nation. Failing to procure the rewards which he had expected for his exertions in favour of this party, he observed that "he must be a poor author who cannot write on both sides." On this principle he acted; but prosperity did not attend his dereliction from principle. His situation daily became worse. Although extremely temperate, and often voluntarily confining himself to bread and water, he was frequently destitute even of these necessities. What he gained by his labours he spent partly in presents for his mother and sisters, to whom he always held out the most splendid expectations, partly in public places of amusement, which he continued to visit under the appearance of easy circumstances. At last, after having been several days without food, he poisoned himself in 1770, when not yet eighteen years old.

His works were more extensively read as the public became acquainted with the history of his misfortunes. The most remarkable are the poems published under the name of ROWLEY, which he composed at the age of fifteen years. They display a vigorous and brilliant imagination, fertility of invention, and often a deep sensibility. Among the poems which he published under his own name, his satires deserve the preference. His prose writings are spirited, and have been several times republished. —CHAUCER, GEOFFREY.—This early English author, who has justly been styled the father of English poetry, was born in London in 1328, and



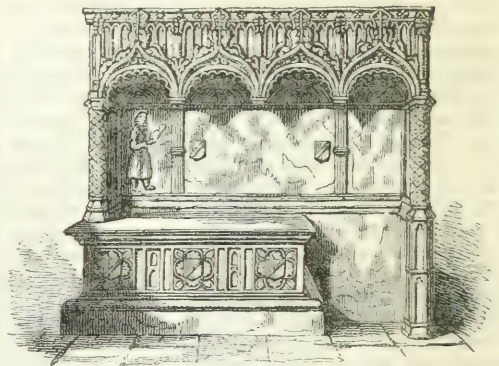
studied at Cambridge and Oxford. At the age of eighteen he wrote his celebrated "Court of Love," the oldest poem now extant in the English language.



Having improved himself by travelling, he studied law for some time; but, becoming disgusted with this study, he repaired to court, where he became yeoman to Edward III., and he was in high favour with the king, and particularly with his son, John of Gaunt, the celebrated duke of Lancaster. He was the confidant of the prince's love to his cousin, the duchess Blanche, and made their love, their marriage, and the charms and virtues of the duchess, the themes of several songs. The duchess, however, soon found a rival in Lady Catharine Swynford, whose sister Chaucer married. This alliance established him more firmly in favour of the duke, by whose influence he was appointed to the most honourable offices. He was sent ambassador to Genoa, on which occasion he visited Petrarch. He was also sent as envoy to Charles V. of France, to negotiate the renewal of the truce, and a marriage between Richard, prince of Wales, and the king's daughter, in which mission, however, he was unsuccessful.

As an adherent of the duke of Lancaster, he embraced the opinions of Wickliffe, and formed a close connexion with him; but neither business, nor the intrigues of the court, nor the theological controversies of the time, interrupted his poetical labours. His first poem was soon followed by "Troilus and Cressida," the "House of Fame," and other works, which were imitations of Boccaccio and other less celebrated authors. He seems particularly to have borrowed from the works of the Troubadours. These works bear the stamp of the corrupt taste which at that time prevailed throughout Europe; but they are remarkable for correct delineation of character. In 1382 the Wickliffites attempted, in spite of the opposition of the clergy, to elect a lord mayor of London of their own party. The disturbances to which this dispute gave rise occasioned a severe persecution of that sect on the part of the court, and Chaucer, who was hated by the people as the personal friend of Wickliffe, fled to Hainault, where he continued to receive his salary. The faithlessness of his agents, who discontinued their re-

mittances, having obliged him to make a secret journey to England, he was discovered, arrested, and deprived of his post of comptroller of the customs, the duties of which had been discharged, in his name, by his deputy. He finally obtained his liberty by disclosing the designs of the party with which he had been connected. This conduct drew upon him a load of obloquy, while, at the same time, he was suffering from poverty. During his distresses he wrote his "Testament of Love," a sort of imitation of Boethius's "De Consolatione," which he had translated in his youth. Chaucer's situation was once more changed with that of the duke of Lancaster, who, in the hope of ascending the Spanish throne, had entered into a second marriage with the daughter of Peter the Cruel; and, though he had returned from Spain in 1389 without having gained this object, yet he brought back considerable sums, which he employed in reviving his party at court. Four years later, on the death of his second wife, the duke married Catharine Swynford, and Chaucer, now nearly connected with the royal family, regained the favour of the court, and was restored to his office. After the duke's death he seems to have lived in retirement at Donnington Castle, where the oak in the shade of which it was said he loved to muse long bore his name. There he wrote his most celebrated work, the "Canterbury Tales," in verse. They are distinguished for variety of character and liveliness of description. Chaucer is the first writer who introduced the spirit and fictions of chivalry into poetry. His "Sir Topaz," however, is written in ridicule of these fictions. Chaucer died about 1400, and the original monument erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey is represented in the annexed sketch.



CHAUDET, ANTOINE DENIS, a celebrated French sculptor, who was born at Paris, March 31, 1763, when the most corrupt taste in sculpture prevailed. In the twenty-first year of his age he obtained the first prize of the Academy, and he then went to Rome, where he met the celebrated Drouais. They were soon united by the ties of the most intimate friendship and an equal enthusiasm for art. After his return to Paris, he became a member of the academy. His first work was a bas-relief under the peristyle of the Pantheon, representing the love of glory. The bad taste of the period could not justly estimate the grand and simple character of this work: it was reserved for later times to appreciate the masterly and sublime performance. Tra-



vellers may find in the museums of the Luxembourg and Trianon several of Chaudet's finest works; among them, *La Sensibilité*, a young girl astonished at the motion of the sensitive plant, which shrinks from her touch; the beautiful statue of Cyparissa, &c. Chaudet died at Paris in April, in 1810.

**CHAUFEPIE, JAMES**, a French Protestant minister, who compiled a valuable "Historical and Critical Dictionary." He was born in 1702, and died at Amsterdam in 1786.

**CHAULIEU, GUILLAUME AMFRIE DE**, was born at Fontenai in 1639, early distinguished himself by his genius, and gained the esteem of the duke of Vendome, through whose influence he was appointed abbot of Aumale, and received besides several other benefices, so that his yearly income amounted to 30,000 livres. Pleasure was now the sole occupation of Chaulieu; he lived in the temple where many persons were assembled, who, like himself, united the love of pleasure with a taste for letters. In this society of epicureans, though it was frequently visited by the grand prior of Vendome himself, decorum and morality were not very rigorously observed; but the pleasures of the table were heightened by poetical sallies. Chaulieu, a disciple of Chapelle and Bachaumont, distinguished himself among the rest by the charms of his wit and the gaiety of his disposition, and received the surname of the Anacreon of the Temple. Like Anacreon, he devoted himself to love and poetry to the last. In a letter to the Marquis de Lafare, he describes himself as vain, impatient, and impetuous, by turns active and indolent, fond of projects, and not less fond of repose. He died in his house in the Temple, in 1720, aged eighty-one. La Harpe justly remarks that his verses display the negligence of an indolent mind, but, at the same time, good taste, and are free from all affectation.

**CHAUNCEY, SIR HENRY**.—This eminent English antiquary was born at Hertford in 1632. He was knighted by Charles II. in 1681, and afterwards created a Welsh judge. A short time prior to his death, which occurred in 1700, he published his "Historical Antiquities of Hertfordshire." An enlarged edition of the work has since been published by Mr. Clutterbuck.

**CHAUSSEE, PIERRE CLAUDE NIVELLE DE LA**, a dramatic writer, born at Paris in 1692. His first work was a critique on "the Fables of La Motte." When La Motte advanced the paradox that verse is useless in the tragedy and ode, he was answered by Chaussée, in his "Épître à Clio," which is still esteemed. His first dramatical work, "La Fausse Antipathie," written after he had passed the age of forty, was received with approbation. The following circumstance gave rise to the new species of drama which he introduced:—The actress Quinault, perceiving a good subject for an affecting drama in a farce, proposed it to Voltaire, who declined the attempt. She then applied to Chaussée, who at her suggestion wrote "Le Préjugé à la Mode." Thus the sentimental comedy originated from the farce. Chaussée then attempted tragedy, and wrote the unsuccessful piece "Maximien," a subject which had already been treated of by Corneille. His "Ecole des Mères," and his "Gouvernante," which followed, are still acted. He died in 1754. Voltaire says he is one of the first writers after those of genius.

**CHEKE, SIR JOHN**, an eminent English statesman and cultivator of classical literature, who was born at Cambridge in 1514, and received his education at St. John's College, in the university of that place. After having travelled on the continent, he returned to Cambridge, and was made regius professor of Greek, in which office he distinguished himself by introducing many improvements in the pronunciation of that language. Bishop Gardiner, chancellor of the university, opposed these innovations, and a literary correspondence took place between the professor and the chancellor, which was some time after published.

In 1544 Cheke was appointed tutor to the prince of Wales, afterwards Edward VI., and he appears, likewise, to have assisted in the education of the princess Elizabeth. On the accession of Edward he received a pension of 100 marks, was made provost of King's College, Cambridge, and obtained grants of considerable landed property. He soon after married, and in 1547 retired from court to the university, in consequence of some disappointment, but was soon recalled, and remained a great favourite with the king to the end of his reign. In 1550 he was made gentleman of the king's bedchamber; the next year he was knighted, and in 1553 he obtained the post of secretary of state. He was also a privy counsellor. The death of his royal patron occasioned a revolution in his fortunes. Cheke was a sincere Protestant and was deeply involved in the measures adopted for the reformation of the church of England, and, having had the imprudence to engage in the scheme for raising Lady Jane Grey to the crown, he was on its failure committed to the Tower. After a few months, however, he was set at liberty; and, having obtained from Queen Mary permission to travel, he went into Italy, and thence to Strasburg, in Germany.

His conduct while abroad gave offence to the Catholic zealots in England, who procured the confiscation of his estates, on the pretext of his having exceeded the leave of absence which had been granted him. He was then obliged to support himself by giving lectures on the Greek language. In 1556, having been induced to visit Brussels (probably through the contrivance of his enemies), he was there arrested by order of Philip II., then sovereign of the Netherlands, and sent prisoner to England. Powerful means were adopted to convert him to popery. The fear of death prevailed over his constancy, and he was induced to make a public abjuration of his former faith. His estates were not restored, but he received an equivalent for them from the queen, and he was much caressed by the heads of the Catholic party, who however, with cruel policy, obliged him to sit on the bench at the trials of the unfortunate Protestants. It is a circumstance honourable to his character that he appears to have keenly felt his degraded situation. He died of grief not long after, in September 1557. Sir John Cheke published several small treatises, original and translated, chiefly relating to theology. He was also the author of many works preserved in manuscript. Among these is an English translation of the gospel of St. Matthew, intended to exemplify his plan for the reformation of the English language, by banishing from it all words but such as are of Saxon origin.

**CHENEVIX, RICHARD**, a very versatile writer, born in Ireland in the middle of the last century,

He published several works on chemistry, and produced two popular tragedies. Mr. Chenevix died at Paris in 1830.

**CHESELDEN, WILLIAM.**—A celebrated English surgeon and anatomist, who was born in Leicestershire in 1688, and after a common school education and some medical instruction in the country he proceeded to London to prosecute his studies. At the age of twenty-two he began to give lectures on anatomy, and in 1711 he was chosen F.R.S. In 1713 he published a treatise on the "Anatomy of the Human Body," long esteemed a favourite manual of the science. He continued his lectures for more



than twenty years, during which he gradually rose to the head of his profession. In 1723 he published a treatise on the "High Operation for the Stone." Cheselden, who was a very dexterous and successful operator, afterwards added to his reputation by practising what is termed the *lateral* method of operating for the stone since generally adopted. A peculiar operation which he performed on a youth of fourteen who had been blind from his birth, and who obtained his sight by means of it, attracted much notice; and in 1728 he published an account of it in the "Philosophical Transactions." In 1733 was published his "Osteography, or Anatomy of the Bones," folio, consisting of plates and short explanations, a splendid and accurate work. Cheselden obtained in 1737 the appointment of chief surgeon to Chelsea Hospital. This situation he held till his death, which took place at Bath on the 10th of April 1752, in consequence of a fit of apoplexy. Besides the productions already mentioned, he published a translation from the French of "Le Dran's Surgery," and several other anatomical and surgical papers in the Philosophical Transactions. The private character of Cheselden was generally respectable; but he was not exempt from faults and foibles. Among these was a predilection for pugilism, and a degree of vanity which rendered him more ambitious of being thought a skilful architect or coachmaker than a good anatomist. He was, however, humane and liberal, and was much esteemed by pope and other literary men with whom he was acquainted.

**CHESNE, ANDREW DU.**—A very eminent

French historian was a native of Touraine. Early in the seventeenth century he was appointed historiographer to the king of France, which office he held till the time of his death in 1640. He wrote a history of this country, which is much admired in France.

**CHESTERFIELD, PHILIP DORMER STANHOPE.**—This celebrated statesman and author was born at London in 1694. He was educated at Cambridge, and in 1714 made the tour of Europe, and acquired, particularly at Paris, that polished grace of manners for which he was afterwards so distinguished. On the accession of George I., General Stanhope, his great uncle, procured him the place of gentleman of the bed-chamber to the prince of Wales; and the borough of St. Germain's, in Cornwall, elected him to parliament, though he had not yet attained the legal age. At the close of the first month of his membership, he delivered a speech, in which he astonished the audience by the vigour of his thoughts no less than by the elegance of his style and the facility and grace of his delivery. He distinguished himself equally in the House of Lords, in which he took his seat after his father's death.

In 1728 he was appointed ambassador to Holland, and succeeded in delivering Hanover from the calamities of a war, by which it was threatened. On his return, he was made knight of the garter and lord steward of the household to George II. He was afterwards appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and on his return, in 1746, received the place of secretary of state; but he soon retired from public affairs, and devoted the remainder of his life to study and the society of his friends. His talents as an author are displayed in several moral, critical, and humorous essays, in his parliamentary speeches, which were printed at a later period, and particularly in a collection of letters to his son, which are celebrated throughout Europe. To the charms of wit and grace he united a thorough knowledge of the manners, customs, and the political condition of Europe, extensive information, a noble and unaffected elegance, and a style that would do honour to the most experienced writer. All this, however, cannot excuse the corrupt moral tone of his letters. One is shocked to hear a father recommending to his son grace of manners as the most essential quality of a man of the world, and even instigating him to licentious irregularities. It must be mentioned, however, in his excuse, that the young man to whom these letters were addressed (a natural son, whom he had adopted under the name of Stanhope) was remarkable for the awkwardness of his manners, and that his father, who set so high a value on elegance, hoped to inspire him with the same taste by setting the subject in its strongest light. His efforts, however, were not successful. Towards the close of his life, Chesterfield became deaf, and suffered from other bodily infirmities, which cast a gloom over his last days. He was intimate with Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, and other distinguished scholars, and an acquaintance of Dr. Johnson, who called him a wit among lords and a lord among wits, and said of his letters that they taught "the morals of a prostitute and the manners of a dancing-master." He died in 1773, at the age of seventy-nine.

**CHETHAM, HUMPHREY.**—This eminent merchant was born at Crumpsall, in Lancashire, towards the close of the sixteenth century; and, having



realized a large fortune, left by will a sufficient sum for the endowment of a literary institution at Manchester, which still bears his name. The college contains many curious books and manuscripts.

**CHEYNE, GEORGE.**—This eminent physician was born in Scotland in 1671, and, after taking his doctor's degree, settled in London. He published several medical works tending to point out the great advantages of a simple diet. His "*Philosophical Principles of Natural Religion*" is also a good book. Dr. Cheyne died at Bath in 1743.

**CHIABRERA, GABRIEL**, a celebrated poet, born at Savona, in the Genoese territory, in 1552. His poetical genius developed itself late in life, and he was considerably advanced when he began to study the poets attentively. He preferred the Greeks, and particularly Pindar, his admiration for whom inspired him with the desire of imitating him. Thus he created a manner and style which was altogether different from that of the other Italian lyric poets, and which procured him the surname of the *Italian Pindar*. Equally successful were his attempts to imitate Anacreon; his canzonets are as easy and elegant as his canzonis are sublime. He is, besides, the author of several epic, dramatic, pastoral, and other poems. His fame soon spread over all Italy. He visited Rome, and presided a considerable time at Florence and Genoa. Wherever he went, he was loaded with presents and honours. He died in 1638.

**CHICHLEY, HENRY.**—This eminent ecclesiastic was born in 1362 at Higham-Ferrars in Northamptonshire, of parents who, if not distinguished by their opulence, were at least enabled to place their children in situations which qualified them for promotion in civil and political life. Their sons, Robert and Thomas, rose to the highest dignities in the magistracy of London; and Henry, the subject of this memoir, was placed at Winchester School, and thence removed to New College, where he studied the civil and canon law. Of his proficiency here we have little information; but the progress of his advancement indicates that he soon acquired distinction and conciliated the affection of the first patrons of the age. From 1392 to 1407 he can be traced through various ecclesiastical preferments and dignities, for some at least of which he was indebted to Richard Metford, bishop of Salisbury. This valuable friend he had the misfortune to lose in the last-mentioned year; but his reputation was so firmly established that King Henry IV. about this time employed him on an embassy to Pope Innocent VII., on another to the court of France, and on a third to Pope Gregory XII., who was so much pleased with his conduct as to present him to the bishopric of St. David's, which happened to become vacant during his residence at the apostolic court in 1408. In the following year he was deputed, along with Hallum, bishop of Salisbury, and Chillingdon, prior of Canterbury, to represent England in the council of Pisa, which was convoked to settle the disputed pretensions of the popes, Gregory and Benedict, both of whom were deposed, and Alexander V. chosen in their room, who had once studied at Oxford.

On Chichley's return he passed some months in discharging the functions of his diocese. In May, 1410, he was again sent to France, with other negotiators, to obtain a renewal of the truce between the two kingdoms; but this was not accomplished until the year following, nor without considerable difficul-

ties. For nearly two years after this, we find him residing on his diocese, or paying occasional visits to the metropolis, which his high character as a statesman rendered no less necessary than grateful to his royal master. On the accession of Henry V., he was again consulted and employed in many political measures, and appears to have completely acquired the confidence of the new sovereign, who sent him a third time into France on the subject of peace. The English were at this time in possession of some of the territories of that country, a circumstance which rendered every treaty of peace insecure, and created perpetual jealousies and efforts towards emancipation on the part of the French.

In the spring of 1414, Chichley succeeded Arundel as archbishop of Canterbury, which he at first refused in deference to the pope; but, on the pontiff's acceding to the election made by the prior and monks, he was put in complete possession, and soon had occasion to exert the whole of his talents and influence to preserve the revenues of the church, which the parliament had more than once advised the king to take into his own hands. The time was critical; the king had made demands on the court of France which promised to end in hostilities, and large supplies were wanted. The clergy, alarmed for the whole, agreed to give up a part of their possessions, and Chichley undertook to lay their offer before parliament, and as far as eloquence could go to render it satisfactory to that assembly. It is here that historians have taken occasion to censure his conduct, and to represent him as precipitating the king into a war with France, in order to divert his attention from the church. But while it is certain that he strongly recommended the recovery of Henry's hereditary dominions in France, and the vindication of his title to that crown, it is equally certain that this was a disposition which he rather found than created; and in what manner he could have thwarted it, if such is to be supposed the wiser and better course, cannot be determined without a more intimate knowledge of the state of parties than is now practicable. The war, however, was eminently successful, and the battle of Agincourt gratified the utmost hopes of the nation, and has ever since been a proud memento of its valour. During this period, besides taking the lead in political and ecclesiastical measures at home, Chichley twice attended the king's camp in France.

After the death of Henry V. in 1422, and the appointment of Humphrey duke of Gloucester to be regent during the minority of Henry VI., Chichley retired to his province, and began to visit the several dioceses included in it, carefully enquiring into the state of morals and religion. The principles of Wickliffe had made considerable progress, and it was to them chiefly that the indifference of the public towards the established clergy and the efforts which had been made to alienate their revenues were attributed. Officially, therefore, we are not to wonder that Chichley, educated in all the prejudices of the times, endeavoured to check the growing heresy, as it was called; but, from the silence of Fox on the subject, there is reason to hope that his personal interference was far more gentle than that of his predecessor Arundel. On the other hand, history has done ample justice to the spirit with which he resisted the assumed power of the pope in the disposition of ecclesiastical preferments, and asserted

the privileges of the English church. In all this he was supported by the nation at large, by a majority of the bishops, and by the University of Oxford; nor at this time was more zeal shown against the Lollards, or first Protestants, than against the capricious and degrading encroachments of the court of Rome. Among the vindications of Chichley's character from the imputations thrown upon it by the agents of the pope, that of the university of Oxford must not be omitted. They told the pope that "Chichley stood in the sanctuary of God as a firm wall that heresy could not shake nor simony undermine, and that he was the darling of the people and the foster parent of the clergy." These remonstrances, however, were unsatisfactory to the proud and restless spirit of Martin V.; but, after he had for some time kept the terrors of an interdict hanging over the nation, the dispute was dropped without concession on either side, and the death of this pope soon after relieved the archbishop from further vexation.

He was now advancing in years, and, while he employed his time in promoting the interests of his province, he conceived the plan of founding a college in Oxford, which he lived to accomplish on a very magnificent scale. One benefit he conferred, about the same time, of a more general importance to both universities. During the sitting of one of the convocations, in 1438, the universities presented a remonstrance, stating the grievances they laboured under from wars, want of revenues, and the neglect of their members in the disposal of church livings. Chichley immediately procured a decree that all ecclesiastical patrons should, for ten years to come, confer the benefices in their gift on members of either university exclusively; and that vicars general, commissaries, and officials, should be chosen out of the graduates in civil and common law.

He had now held eighteen synods, in all of which he distinguished himself as the guardian of the church, and was eminently successful in conciliating the parliament and nation, by such grants on the part of the clergy as showed a readiness proportioned to their ability to support the interests of the crown and people. The most noted of his constitutions were those which enjoined the celebration of festivals, regulated the probates of wills, provided against false weights, and augmented the stipends of vicars. That which is most to be regretted was his instituting a kind of inquisition against Lollardism. In 1442 he applied to Pope Eugenius for an indulgence to resign his office into more able hands, being now nearly eighty years old, and, as he pathetically urges, "heavy laden, aged, infirm, and weak beyond measure." He entreats that he may be released from a burthen which he was no longer able to support either with ease to himself or advantage to others. He died, however, before the issue of this application could be known, on the 12th of April, 1443, and was interred with great solemnity in the cathedral of Canterbury, under a monument of exquisite workmanship built by himself.

The character of Chichley, when assimilated to that of the age in which he lived, is not without a portion of the dark sentiment and barbarous spirit of persecution which obstructed the reformation; but, on every occasion where he dared to exert his native talents and superior powers of thinking, we discover the measures of an enlightened statesman, and that liberal and benevolent disposition which

would confer celebrity in the brightest periods of our history. The foundation of All Souls College is not the first instance of his munificent spirit. In 1422 he founded a collegiate church at his native place, Higham-Ferrars, so amply endowed that on its dissolution by Henry VIII. its revenues were valued at 156*l*. This college consisted of a quadrangular building, of which the church only now remains, and is used as a parish church. To this he attached an hospital for the poor, and both these institutions were long supported by the legacies of his brothers Robert and William, aldermen of London. He also expended large sums in adorning the cathedral of Canterbury, founding a library there, and in adding to the buildings of Lambeth palace.

CHILLINGWORTH, WILLIAM, an eminent divine and writer on controversial theology, who was born at Oxford in 1602, and received his education at Trinity College, in the university of that city. He did not confine his academical studies to divinity, but also distinguished himself as a mathematician, and cultivated poetry. Metaphysics and religious casuistry, however, appear to have been his favourite pursuits; and Lord Clarendon, who was particularly intimate with him, celebrates his rare talents as a disputant, and says he had "contracted such an irresolution and habit of doubting that, by degrees, he grew confident of nothing." This sceptical disposition laid him open to the arguments of a Jesuit, who persuaded him that the church of Rome, in establishing the authority of the pope as an infallible judge, afforded the only means for ascertaining the true religion. He was convinced by this reasoning, and converted, but subsequently came to the conclusion that he had acted erroneously, and wrote several works to justify his second conversion, especially "The Religion of Protestants a safe Way to Salvation," first published in 1637. Some scruples of conscience, relative to signing the thirty-nine articles, prevented him for a time from obtaining church preferment. His scruples, however, were so far overcome that he made the subscription in the usual form, and was promoted to the chancellorship of Salisbury, with the prebend of Brixworth annexed, in July, 1638. On the civil war taking place, Chillingworth joined the king's party, and employed his pen in a treatise "Of the Unlawfulness of resisting the Lawful Prince, although most Impious, Tyrannical, and Idolatrous." This tract was not, however, committed to the press. He did not confine himself to literary efforts in support of the royal cause, having at the siege of Gloucester, in 1643, acted as engineer. His classical reading suggested to him an imitation of some Roman machine for the attack of fortified places; but the approach of the parliamentary army prevented the trial of it against the walls of Gloucester. Not long after he retired to Arundel Castle, in an ill state of health, and was made a prisoner on the surrender of that fortress to Sir William Waller. Being removed at his own request to Chichester, he died in the episcopal palace in January, 1644.

CHISHULL, EDMUND.—This eminent divine was born at Egworth in Bedfordshire. The precise time of his birth has been a matter of much controversy, but it appears that he graduated at Oxford in 1692. He was for some time at the English factory in Smyrna, and he became vicar of Walthamstow in 1708, where he died in 1733. His principal work



is a treatise on the "Soul:" but his "Antiquitates Asiaticæ Christianam Æram Antecedentes," is a work of great learning.

**CHLADNI, ERNEST.**—This eminent philosopher was born at Wittenburg in 1756. He commenced a series of important experiments on the vibration of sounding bodies before he was twelve years of age, and in 1787 published a work entitled, "Discoveries concerning the Theory of Sound." He continued his attention to this subject till the time of his death, which occurred in 1829.

**CHODOWIECKI, DANIEL NICHOLAS**, a painter and engraver, who was born at Dantzic in 1726. He received from his father, in his leisure hours, his first instruction in miniature-painting, which he practised with great assiduity, in order to support his mother, after the death of his father. His first trials excited the astonishment of connoisseurs. A little engraving, the Play at Dice, in 1756, particularly attracted the attention of the Academy of Berlin. During the seven years' war, he engraved various subjects connected with it. The history of the unhappy Calas gave him an affecting subject for a picture, which, at the desire of all who saw it, he engraved on copper. The impressions of the year 1767 are particularly esteemed. Almost all the plates to Lavater's "Physiognomical Fragments" are from his designs. He engraved several of them himself. At last, scarcely a book appeared in Prussia for which he did not engrave at least a vignette. The number of his engravings is estimated at more than 3000; but we must observe that he was in the habit of making changes in his plates after a number of copies had been struck off, so that all the copies of the same plate are not entirely alike. He must be considered the founder of a new art in Germany—that of representing modern figures. He died, February 1, 1801, at Berlin, where he was director of the Academy of Arts. He was universally esteemed for his integrity.

**CHOISEUL, ETIENNE FRANCOIS DE**, duke de Choiseul et d'Amboise, minister of state of Louis XV. This distinguished nobleman was born in 1719. When count of Stainville, he displayed a brilliant courage, and was rapidly promoted. His marriage with a rich heiress, sister to the duchess of Gontaut, and his intimate connexion with the marchioness de Pompadour, permitted him to indulge his ambitious hopes, which he never concealed. He went as ambassador to Rome, and in 1756, in the same capacity, to Vienna. In 1757 he succeeded the cardinal Bernis, then minister of foreign affairs, who, from chagrin at the opposition which he experienced, after the conclusion of the much-contested alliance with Austria, resigned his office. The new minister quickly gained the greatest influence. He was made duke and peer, and administered, at the same time, the department of war. He afterwards resigned the department of foreign affairs to his relative the count Choiseul, who subsequently became duke of Praslin. Without having the name, he was in fact prime minister, and conducted alone all the public affairs. From the beginning he was unfriendly to the Jesuits, and united with the parliaments to effect their ruin. Meanwhile, the seven years' war continued, and France, after experiencing continual reverses, was compelled by the exhausted state of her finances to conclude a peace, in 1763, on unfavourable terms. This misfortune could not be ascribed to the two ministers who

divided between themselves the administration of the state. Less able ministers would probably have been obliged to make greater sacrifices. But the honours and demonstrations of favour with which Choiseul and Praslin were loaded were sufficient to draw upon them the bitterest accusations. Their enemies asserted that they only prolonged the war to render themselves necessary, and reproached them for not having sooner concluded peace.

Madame de Pompadour died in 1764, the dauphin in 1765, and the dauphiness in 1767. After spreading the most absurd and infamous reports concerning the death of the dauphin, to throw suspicions on Choiseul, his enemies, the duke d'Aiguillon, the abbé Terray, and the chancellor Maupeou, had recourse to the vilest instruments to effect his ruin. They succeeded so far that Louis XV., in spite of the representations of the minister and his own promises, degraded the royal dignity by introducing the countess du Barry at court. At first the countess used all her arts to insinuate herself into the favour of the minister. Her ambition was to succeed to all the influence of Madame de Pompadour. Choiseul haughtily refused her proposals; but, laudable as was his conduct towards the mistress, he ought not to have allowed himself to forget the respect due to his king and benefactor. He might, perhaps, have persuaded him by compliance: his boldness only irritated him, and supplied his enemies with new pretexts for assailing him. The duchess of Grammont, the minister's sister, always possessed great influence over him. She exercised it on this occasion without the least moderation, encouraged by the discontent of the nation, which favoured the parliaments then attacked by the chancellor Maupeou.

The cause of the parliaments and the minister soon became one. The king was persuaded that Choiseul excited them to opposition. The attachment of Louis to his minister struggled, for some time, against the intrigues of his enemies; but in December 1770 he announced to him, in severe terms, his disgrace and his banishment to Chanteloup. The departure of Choiseul resembled a triumph. His removal was considered by the nation a public misfortune. He lived three years in exile, surrounded by a splendid and select society. On the death of Louis XV. he recovered his liberty, having been in exile just long enough to increase his reputation, and to confirm the general esteem in which he was held.

While minister of war, after seven years of reverses, he had changed the organization of the army in consequence of the new tactics introduced by Frederic the Great. Although the displeasure of the old officers was excited, and many gave in their resignations, yet the necessity for the change was soon evident. The corps of artillery received a new form, and excellent schools were established, in which officers were educated who rendered the French artillery the finest in Europe. The same improvements were made in the corps of engineers. Choiseul devoted particular attention to the West Indies. Martinique was fortified anew, and St. Domingo raised to the highest degree of prosperity. When Choiseul and Praslin left the ministry, in 1770, the loss of the fleet had been repaired in less than seven years. It consisted of sixty-four ships of the line and fifty frigates and corvettes. The magazines were filled. Choiseul also concluded the family compact, which united all the sovereigns of the house of



Bourbon, and placed the Spanish fleet at the disposal of France. Thus he recovered the respect which France had lost by her military reverses. His firmness supplied what was wanting to his country in real strength. He conquered Corsica without any open opposition from this country. Convinced of the importance of the independence of Poland for the balance of Europe, he continually thwarted the ambitious designs of Russia, and involved it in a war with Turkey, which he would have supported more vigorously, had not the king himself opposed it. French officers were sent to the Polish confederates, to the Turks, and the East Indian princes, whom he hoped to arm, as well as the American colonies, against the English. Prodigious of his own fortune, he was frugal in the public expenditure.

Louis XV. soon felt the loss of Choiseul, and exclaimed, on hearing of the division of Poland, "This would not have happened had Choiseul been here." After Louis XVI. ascended the throne, Choiseul was recalled and received in the most honourable manner, but was not again admitted into the ministry. Notwithstanding his immense debts, he continued to support an expensive style of living, and died in 1785, without children. His nephew and heir was

**CHOISEUL STAINVILLE, CLAUDE ANTOINE GABRIEL, DUKE OF.**—He was born in 1762, and emigrated in 1792, after he had assisted the flight of the king in 1791, and been arrested and released. He raised a regiment of hussars, and served against France. In the sequel he was shipwrecked on the French coast, taken, and remained four years in prison, while it was debated whether the laws against emigrants returning to France were applicable to him. The first consul released him and caused him to be transported into a neutral territory, January 1, 1800. In 1801 he gave him permission to return to France.

After the restoration Choiseul was made lieutenant-general. In the house of peers he joined the constitutional party.

**CHOISEUL-GOUFFIER, MARIE GABRIEL AUGUSTE, COUNT DE.**—This French nobleman was born in 1752, adopted the name of Gouffier after his marriage with Mlle. de Gouffier. In 1776 he travelled in Greece and Asia. His instructive journal of his travels obtained him a seat in the academy. In 1784 he was ambassador at Constantinople, and took with him several literary men and artists, in whose society he occupied himself during his leisure hours, in learned researches. In 1791 he was appointed ambassador to our court, but remained in Constantinople, and addressed all his notes to the brothers of Louis XVI., then in Germany. But, on the retreat from Champagne, this correspondence fell into the hands of the republicans, and October 22, 1792, the convention ordered his arrest. He therefore left Constantinople and repaired to Russia, where the empress granted him a pension as an academician. In February 1797 he was appointed privy-counsellor by the emperor Paul I. In 1802 he returned to France, and in the following year, as a member of the former academy, was admitted into the National Institute. He died in the summer of 1817.

**CHORIS, LOUIS,** was born of German parents on the 22nd March, 1795, at Yekaterinoslaff, in Russia. Even while at school at Kharloff, he evinced considerable taste for drawing, and his skill in portrait-painting was surprising. Thus qualified, he

was chosen to accompany the celebrated botanist Baron de Riberstein, in his journey to Mount Caucasus, in 1813. M. Choris designed the plants which illustrate the *Flora Caucasiana*. In 1814 he was elected a member of the Society of Arts of St. Petersburg, and the same year he was appointed on board the *Rurik*, a vessel fitted out at the expense of the late Count de Romanzoff, to make the tour of the world, under the command of Otto von Kotzebue, son of the celebrated author of that name. In this voyage he made drawings which gave a very exact representation of the savage inhabitants of America and the islands of the Southern Ocean. Upon his arrival in France, in 1819, after a voyage of four years, he was very warmly received by the most distinguished *savants* of the capital, proceeding to give lithographic copies of the drawings he had made, by which means none of their originality is lost.

It is well known that the feeble drawings which embellished the voyages and travels of the seventeenth century represented the savages in all their natural deformity; while, in the beautiful editions of Cook, Bougainville, and other discoverers of the eighteenth century, each inhabitant of Otaheite is painted as an Apollo, a Hercules, a Venus, or a Diana. It was the spirit of the age which induced men thus to flatter *ces aimables enfants de la nature*. No one appears to us so entirely to have destroyed this mania as M. Choris: he has happily seized the characteristic of their physiognomy. The pale face, the wild look, the frequently noble figure, with a haggard countenance and vacant eye, expressive neither of joy nor sorrow. The very flatness of the nose adds to this character, which is still more increased by that emblem of gross appetite—a large mouth and an obtuse facial angle.

In 1827 M. Choris left France with the intention of traversing the greater part of America, beginning at Mexico. After touching at various islands in the West Indies, he reached Cuba; thence he passed to New Orleans, and thus arrived on the borders of Mexico, where he was destined to become the victim of an ill-organized police. This event was communicated in a letter from Vera Cruz, which relates that two days after his arrival on the 19th of March, M. Choris, accompanied by Mr. Henderson, an English gentleman, departed for Jalapa; but, on the following day, they were attacked by robbers between Puente-Nacional and Plan del Rio. M. Choris fell under a blow from a sabre, and was mortally wounded by a bullet. Although Mr. Henderson was severely wounded in the thigh and in the chest, he succeeded in reaching Jalapa, the mayor of which place caused a search to be made, and the body of M. Choris was found concealed under some leaves. It was carried to Plan del Rio, where he was buried.

He was a member of the Geographical Society at Paris, by whom and his friends his loss was severely felt, as well as by those patrons of science who expected the most valuable observations from the ardent mind of this young artist, who, at the early age of twenty years, was selected to accompany Otto von Kotzebue in his voyage round the world.

**CHRISTIE, THOMAS,** a writer of considerable research, who was born at Montrose, in Scotland, in 1761. He came to London early in life, and first directed his attention to the study of medicine, but ultimately entered into partnership in a commercial



house in the metropolis. His principal work is entitled, "Thoughts on the Origin of Human Knowledge, and on the Antiquity of the World."

**CHRISTIAN II.**, king of Denmark. — This monarch was born at Copenhagen, in 1481, and educated with little care. While yet a youth, his violent character led him into great extravagances. King John, his father, punished him severely, but in vain. In 1507 he was called to Bergen, to suppress some seditious movements, where he conceived a violent passion for a young Dutchwoman, named Dyveke, whose mother kept an inn. Dyveke became the mistress of Christian, who allowed her, and particularly her mother, an unlimited influence over him. He was viceroy in Norway, until the declining health of his father recalled him to Copenhagen. After he had ascended the throne, he married, in 1515, Isabella, sister of Charles V. He afterwards remonstrated with Henry VIII. on account of the piracies committed by the English ships, renewed the treaties which had been made with the grand duke of Moscow, and endeavoured to deprive the Hanse towns of their commerce. The hopes which this conduct excited among his subjects were soon annihilated by the horrible scenes caused by the death of Dyveke. The relations of Torbern Oxe, governor of the castle of Copenhagen, were accused of having poisoned her. Oxe acknowledged a former passion for her, and the king ordered him to be beheaded. Several other executions spread horror through the whole kingdom. Christian hated the nobility, and protected the commons and the peasantry against their oppressions.

In 1516 a papal legate arrived in the North, in order to dispose of indulgences. Christian received him, hoping that he might be useful to him in Sweden, in obtaining the crown, at which he was then aiming. The Swedes were divided into several parties. Gustavus Trolle, archbishop of Upsal, a sworn enemy of Stenon Sture, administrator of the kingdom, had secretly united himself with Christian; but the Swedish states protected Sture, dismissed Trolle, and caused his castle to be demolished. The nuncio, who arrived during these events in Sweden, was gained over by Sture, who discovered to him the plans of Christian, and justified the Swedes to the pope against the charges of Trolle. Christian finally arrived at Stockholm in 1518, for the sake of an interview with the administrator, receiving, for his own security, six hostages from the first families. When these hostages, among whom was Gustavus Vasa, arrived at the Danish fleet, the faithless monarch treated them as prisoners, and returned to Denmark. He appeared in Sweden, in 1520, in the middle of winter, at the head of an army. The Swedes were beaten at Bogesund, and Sture was mortally wounded. The Danes pursued their advantage. Trolle presided over the assembly of the states-general at Upsal, and proposed to them to acknowledge Christian for their king. Although many were disinclined to the union, they were, nevertheless, obliged to submit to it. A general amnesty was proclaimed, and all hastened to profit by it. The capital, to which the widow of the administrator had repaired, offered some resistance. As soon as the sea was open, Christian appeared with his fleet before Stockholm, which did not surrender to him. The summer was passing away; his provisions were nearly exhausted; his troops murmured. At last

he resolved to send Swedish messengers to the inhabitants. His promises, aided by famine, effected what his arms had not been able to accomplish. The gates were opened to him. He promised to maintain the liberty of Sweden, and to forget the past.

He arrived at Stockholm near the end of October, demanded from the bishops and senators an act acknowledging him as their hereditary king, and caused himself to be crowned two days after by Trolle. He bestowed the honour of knighthood only on foreigners, and declared that he would confer this dignity on no Swedish subject, because he had conquered the country by force of arms. In spite of the general consternation he ordered public rejoicings, during which he knew how to gain the favour of the multitude. He determined to strengthen the royal authority in Sweden, and to effect his purpose by the annihilation of the first families. His advisers differed only as to the means. Finally, Slaghoek, the king's confessor, reminded him of the excommunication of the enemies of Trolle, and added that, though as a prince he might forget the past, he ought to extirpate the heretics in obedience to the commands of the pope. Accordingly, Trolle demanded the punishment of the heretics; the king appointed commissioners before whom the accused appeared. Christina, the widow of the administrator, was among them. To vindicate her husband's memory she produced the decree of the senate passed in 1517. Christian obtained possession of it, and formed from it his list of proscriptions. The accused were declared guilty, and ninety-four victims were executed in the presence of the king. These bloody scenes continued in the capital as well as in the provinces. Christian justified himself by the public declaration that they were necessary for the tranquillity of the kingdom. He then returned to Denmark. His way was marked with blood; he garrisoned all the cities, and committed the same cruelties in Denmark.

Christian soon after went to the Netherlands, to request the assistance of Charles V. against Frederic, duke of Holstein, his uncle, and against the inhabitants of Lubeck, who were always ready to assist the Swedes. On his return to Copenhagen he found all Sweden in arms. Slaghoek's tyranny had excited a general revolt. Christian gave him the archbishopric of Lund, but soon after caused him to be burnt alive, in order to appease the pope, who had sent a legate to Denmark to examine into the murder of the bishops at Stockholm. In order to reconcile the pope he altered every thing in the laws which favoured Lutheranism, for which he had previously shown much inclination. Meanwhile Gustavus Vasa escaped from prison, and raised his standard against the Danes. The states-general assembled at Wadstena declared that Christian had forfeited the Swedish crown. The garrison of Stockholm revolted on account of the want of pay. Christian, exasperated by these events, ordered the Danish governors to execute all the rebels. This measure hastened his ruin. Norby still held Stockholm, Calbar, and Abo, three places which were considered as the keys of the kingdom; but he was soon harassed by the inhabitants of Lubeck, who even made an attack upon the coasts of Denmark. Christian, to revenge himself, commenced negociations with the duke of Holstein, but they were soon interrupted by his own violence. Meanwhile, he published two codes restricting the

privileges of the clergy and extending the rights of the peasantry. They contained many wise laws, which are still in force, but mixed with others which caused general discontent. The nation complained of the debasement of the currency and the insupportable burthen of the taxes.

The bishops and senators of Jutland, perceiving the disposition of the people, formed the plan of revolting against the king. About the end of 1522 they renounced their allegiance, declared Christian to have forfeited his rights, and offered the crown to Frederic, duke of Holstein. The king, who suspected their designs, summoned the nobility of Jutland to Callundborg, in Zealand; and, as none obeyed the call, he summoned them anew in 1523 to Aarhus, in Jutland, whither he repaired himself. His arrival compelled the conspirators to hasten the execution of their plans. They assembled in Viborg, and adopted two acts, by one of which they deposed the king, and by the other invited Frederic to take possession of the throne. A civil war was on the point of breaking out, when Christian abandoned his kingdom. In April, 1523, he left Denmark, and took the queen, his children, his treasures, and the archives of the kingdom, on board the fleet. A storm dispersed his ships, threw him upon the coast of Norway, and after the greatest dangers he reached Veere, in Zealand. Charles V. contented himself with writing to forbid Frederic, the nobility of Jutland, and the city of Lubeck, to act against Christian. The latter had, meanwhile, raised an army and equipped a fleet, and landed at Opslo, in Norway, in 1531. But his troops suffered new losses. Being attacked in his camp by the Danish and Hanseatic fleet, he shut himself up in the city, and his vessels became a prey to the flames. Deprived of all resources, he proposed a treaty to the Danish generals, who finally granted him a safe conduct, permitting him to repair in the Danish fleet to Copenhagen, for the purpose of a personal interview with Frederic.

In July, 1532, he arrived before Copenhagen. But Frederic rejected the treaty, and the senate ordered the imprisonment of Christian. He was accordingly conveyed to the castle of Sonderburg, in the island of Als. He there passed twelve years, in the society at first of a dwarf and afterwards of an old invalid, in a tower the door of which was walled up. A stone table is still shown, around the edge of which is a line worn by the hand of Christian, whose sole exercise consisted in walking round it with his hand resting on the surface. He was totally abandoned. When Christian III. ascended the throne, in 1543, his condition was improved by virtue of a treaty with Charles V. He lived, from 1546, at Callundborg, with a fixed income, and died at that place, January 24, 1559.

CHRISTIAN VII., king of Denmark, born 1749, son of Frederic V. and Louisa of England, succeeded his father, January 13, 1766. In the same year he married Caroline Matilda sister of George III. of England. During his travels, in 1767—69, through Germany, Holland, England, and France, he visited the most distinguished men of learning, the academies and literary societies, was made doctor of laws in Cambridge, and every where maintained the character of an affable and enlightened prince. At first, the count J. H. G. de Bernstorff, who had enjoyed the entire confidence of Frederic V., continued to preside over the affairs of the state. But,

in 1770, Struensee, the king's physician, who had gained an unlimited influence over him, and had also insinuated himself into the favour of the imprudent young queen, obtained this post. The reforms undertaken by this minister excited the hatred of the nobility and the discontent of the military. The ambitious queen dowager (Julia Maria of Brunswick, step-mother of Christian) had in vain endeavoured to disunite Christian and his wife, in order to obtain the direction of affairs. She now formed a connection with some malcontents, and succeeded, January 16, 1772, in conjunction with them and her son, the hereditary prince Frederic (Christian's step-brother), in obtaining from the king, after a long resistance, an order for the imprisonment of his queen and Struensee, on pretence that they were conspiring the deposition of the king. From that time the guidance of affairs was in the hands of Julia and of her son Frederic. The king, whom disease had deprived of his reason, reigned only nominally. He died at Rendsburg, March 13, 1808.

CHRISTINA, queen of Sweden, was born on the 9th of December, 1626. She was the daughter of Gustavus Adolphus and the princess Maria Eleonore of Brandenburg, was distinguished for beauty and taste. Gustavus, who beheld in Christina the only support of his throne, took the greatest care of her education, which was conducted in a masculine manner, and she was instructed in all the sciences adapted to improve her mind and strengthen her character. After the death of Gustavus at Lutzen, in 1632, the states-general appointed guardians to the Queen Christina, then but six years old. These were the five highest officers of the crown, who were entrusted at the same time with the administration of the kingdom. The education of Christina was continued according to



the plan of Gustavus Adolphus. Endowed with a lively imagination, a good memory, and uncommon intelligence, she made the most rapid progress. She learned the ancient languages, history, geography, politics, and renounced the pleasures of her age in order to devote herself entirely to study. She already betrayed those peculiarities which characterized her whole life, and which were perhaps as much the consequence of her education as of her natural disposition. She did not like to appear in the female



dress, made long journeys on foot or on horseback, and delighted in the fatigues and even the dangers of the chase. She submitted reluctantly to the customs of the court, alternately treating those who surrounded her with the greatest familiarity and with haughtiness or commanding dignity. She honoured the chancellor Oxenstiern as a father, and learned from him the art of governing, and early showed in the assembly of the states a maturity of understanding which astonished her guardians. In 1642 the states-general proposed to her to take the administration into her own hands, but she excused herself on the ground of her youth. Only two years after, however, she took upon herself the entire government. A great talent for business and great firmness of purpose distinguished her first steps. She terminated the war with Denmark, begun in 1644, and obtained several provinces by the treaty concluded at Bromsebro in 1645. She then, contrary to the advice of Oxenstiern, who hoped to gain by the continuance of the war still greater advantages for Sweden, laboured to re-establish peace in Germany, in order to be able to devote herself uninterruptedly to the sciences and the arts of peace. Christina was fitted by her talents and the circumstances in which she was placed to play the most distinguished part in the north of Europe; and, for some time, seemed sensible of the charms of her lofty station. On many occasions she maintained the dignity of her crown and the honour of her country. France, Spain, Holland, and England sought her friendship, and she promoted commerce by wise legislation, and patronised the learned and literary institutions.

The nation was devoted to her, and rejoiced to see the daughter of Gustavus at the head of the government surrounded by generals and statesmen formed by that great prince. It was the universal wish that the queen should choose a husband, but her love of independence rendered her averse to such a connexion. Among the princes who sued for her hand, her cousin, Charles Gustavus of Deuxponts, was distinguished for his intelligence, noble character, and extensive knowledge. She declined his offer, but induced the states-general in 1649 to designate him for her successor. In 1650 she caused herself to be crowned with great pomp, and with the title of *king*. From that time a striking change in her conduct was perceptible. She neglected her ancient ministers, and listened to the advice of ambitious favourites. Intrigues and base passions succeeded to her former noble and useful views and the public treasure was squandered with extravagant profusion. Distinctions were conferred upon the undeserving, and jealousy produced murmurs, complaints, and factions. In this state of confusion, the queen declared her intention of abdicating the crown. The old ministers, honouring the memory of Gustavus Adolphus, remonstrated in the strongest terms, and, above all, Oxenstiern expressed himself with so much energy that the queen desisted from her resolution. She now grasped with more firmness the reins of government, and dissipated for a time the clouds which had darkened her throne. She occupied herself again with study, bought paintings, medals, manuscripts, books, maintained a correspondence with many learned men, and invited several to her court. Descartes, Grotius, Salmasius, Bochart, Huet, Chevreau, Naude, Vossius, Conring, Meibom, appeared in Stockholm, and the queen conversed

familiarly with them on literary and philosophical subjects. Among the literary amusements which she united with serious studies was the Grecian dance, which she caused to be exhibited by Meibom and Naude. But new troubles occurred; and the conspiracy of Messenius threatened not only the favourites of the queen, but the queen herself. Christina, who loved whatever was uncommon, resumed the determination to resign the crown, and in 1654, at the age of twenty-nine, she assembled the states-general at Upsal, and, in their presence, laid aside the insignia of royalty, to surrender them into the hands of Prince Charles Gustavus. She reserved to herself a certain income, entire independence, and full power over her suite and household. A few days after she left Sweden, and went through Denmark and Germany to Brussels, where she made a public entry, and remained for some time. There she made a secret profession of the Catholic religion, which she afterwards publicly confirmed in Inspruck—a step which excited great astonishment and of the causes of which nothing certain is known.

Christina went from Inspruck to Rome, which she entered on horseback in the costume of an Amazon with great pomp. When the pope Alexander VII. confirmed her, she adopted the surname of Alessandra. She visited the monuments of the city, and attentively examined every thing which could awaken historical recollections. In 1656 she visited France, and remained at Fontainebleau, at Compeigne, where the court was then held, and at Paris. Her dress and manners produced an unfavourable impression, but her talents and knowledge were generally admired. She offered to mediate between France and Spain; but Mazarin declined the offer, and succeeded in accelerating her departure from France under various pretexts. In the following year she returned. This second residence in France was remarkable by the execution of her grand equerry, Monaldeschi, who had enjoyed her entire confidence, but whom she accused of treason. This act of vengeance, though defended by Leibnitz, is a stain on the memory of Christina. The French court testified its displeasure, and two months passed before the queen showed herself publicly in Paris.

In 1658 she returned to Rome, where she received very unpleasant news from Sweden. Her revenue was not transmitted to her, and nobody would make her advances. Alexander VII. relieved her from this embarrassment by a pension of 12,000 scudi. After the death of Charles Gustavus, in 1660, the queen made a visit to Sweden under pretence of wishing to arrange her private affairs, but it was soon perceived that she had other views. As the crown prince was very young, she declared that in case of his death she should lay claim to the throne. This project was unfavourably received, and she was compelled to sign a formal act of abdication. Other unpleasant circumstances induced her to abandon Stockholm. She visited Sweden a second time in 1666, but returned to Hamburg without reaching the capital, having heard that the public exercise of her religion would not be allowed her. About this time she aspired to the Polish crown, but the Poles took no notice of her wishes. Finally, she returned to Italy, where she passed the remainder of her life at Rome, in the cultivation of arts and sciences. She founded an academy, collected valuable manuscripts,



medals, and paintings, and died after having experienced many vexations, April 19, 1689. She was interred in the church of St. Peter, and the Pope erected a monument to her memory.

CHRISTOPHE, HENRI, king of Hayti, was born on the 6th of October, 1767, in the island of Granada, as stated by some, but, as others say, in that of St. Christopher. According to the latter account, he was carried to St. Domingo at the age of twelve, sold as a slave, and employed by his new master in the business of a cook, which calling he exercised at the Cape. Others relate that, after having served in the American war, and received a wound at the siege of Savannah, he went to St. Domingo, and was employed on the plantation of Limonade in the capacity of an overseer, wherein he displayed his characteristic severity. From the commencement of the troubles amongst the blacks, he took a decided part in favour of independence, and signalized himself by his energy, boldness, and activity, in many bloody engagements. Toussaint-Louverture, the acknowledged chief of the blacks, at length gave him the commission of brigadier-general, and employed him to suppress an insurrection headed by his nephew Moyse. This object was speedily accomplished by Christophe, who made himself master of the person of Moyse, and succeeded him as governor of the province of the north. The execution of Moyse excited new troubles at the Cape, which the activity and intrepidity of Christophe completely suppressed. He commanded there in 1802, when Leclerc arrived with a French army, destined for the subjugation of the negroes. Most of them, deceived by the promises of Leclerc, at first gave way to his designs, but Dessalines and Christophe resisted from the beginning, and were declared outlaws.

The climate aided the heroic efforts of Dessalines and Christophe, and, at the close of 1803, there was no longer a French force in Hayti,—for so the island was now denominated by the insurgent chiefs. During the short-lived government of Dessalines, Christophe was general-in-chief of the Haytian army; and being the senior officer, and most distinguished among the blacks, possessed, of course, powerful claims to succeed him in authority. But the popularity of Petion in the south balanced that of Christophe in the north. In February, 1807, an assembly convened at the Cape appointed Christophe president for life of the state of Hayti, and about the same time a republic was organized at Port-au-Prince, with Petion at its head. A civil war between the two chiefs ensued, but did not prevent Christophe from taking judicious measures to establish public order in the territory which he governed. He organized the administration, the tribunals, the marine, and the army, made suitable regulations for the encouragement of agriculture, commerce, and other branches of industry among his people, and, by his energy, attained the most flattering results. Following the example of Napoleon, whom he imitated, he abolished the republican forms, March 28, 1811, and was proclaimed king of Hayti, by the name of Henri I. The dignity and title were made hereditary in his family; an hereditary nobility was created, to give lustre and strength to the new institutions, with an appropriate order of knighthood; and, to complete the imitation of feudal sovereignties, he was solemnly crowned at the Cape, June 2d, 1812, with the ceremonies customary in Europe.

He also sought to perpetuate his name by the compilation of the "Code Henri," a digest founded upon the "Code Napoléon," but not servilely copied. On the contrary, it was judiciously adapted to the situation of Hayti. In 1813 some cause of defection occurred among his subjects, which tended to exasperate the violent and suspicious temper of Christophe, and prompted him to impolitic acts of cruelty. In 1814 he and Petion suspended hostilities, not by a formal agreement, but, as it were, by tacit consent. For several years in succession, after this, the efforts of the French to regain their authority in the island gave a new turn to the policy of Christophe's government. He constantly refused to hear any proposition from the ex-colonists short of an acknowledgment of the unqualified independence of the island; and he adopted the most decided measures to counteract the attempts made by France.

Besides his military preparations for defence against aggression, he multiplied, through the agency of the press, writings calculated to render the views of the ex-colonists odious, and to maintain the spirit of independence among the emancipated blacks; and, to further the same object, he conceived, and at one period seriously set about effecting, the plan of substituting the English language in the island in place of the French, his intercourse with the English and American merchants having communicated to him a partiality for their language. This project entered into a system of general education, which he devised for the Haytians. Things continued to proceed in this way until the death of Petion in 1818, and the accession of Boyer. Discontents had increased, meanwhile, among the subjects of Christophe, who contrasted the mild and easy rule of Boyer with the iron despotism under which they groaned; and the army itself was ripe for a change. Insurrection began among the garrison of St. Marc, which mutinied in a body, killed the governor of the town, and sent a deputation to Boyer, signifying their desire to join the republic. Boyer hastily assembled a force of 15,000 men, and marched to the support of the insurgent garrison. At this time Christophe was confined by illness in his fortified palace of Sans Souci, where he commonly resided. The insurrection soon spread to the Cape, where Richard, duc de Marmalade, and one of the first dignitaries of the kingdom, proclaimed the abolition of royalty at the head of the troops. The *élite* of Christophe's army, comprising his guard of about 1500, continued faithful to him for a while, but, when marched up to oppose the insurgents from the Cape, joined with the latter in demanding the deposition of Christophe. Perceiving his case to be desperate, and resolved not to gratify the insurgents by becoming their prisoner, Christophe shot himself with a pistol, October 8th, 1820. His corpse remained exposed several days, on the highways, and his eldest son was massacred; but Boyer protected his widow and daughter from injury, and enabled them to retire to Europe in the possession of a competent fortune. A large treasure was found in Fort Henri, which Christophe had amassed from the customs on merchandise. His palace was dismantled by the populace, who seemed to take pleasure in defacing what had cost them so much toil to construct. Thus ended a reign from which the friends of the blacks anticipated much and with justice. Christophe's policy was probably better calculated than that of Petion and Boyer to ad-



vance the prosperity of Hayti. Agriculture and commerce flourished under him, and declined under the latter; but his government being purely a military despotism, in which he himself was every thing and the wishes of his people were totally disregarded, the administration degenerated into a system of tyranny which proved insupportable.

CHRYSOLOGUS, EMANUEL, a distinguished Greek, born at Constantinople about the middle of the fourteenth century. He is particularly celebrated for having been the first who, during the middle ages, transplanted Greek literature into Italy. The emperor John Palæologus sent him in 1391 to Italy and England, to ask for assistance against the Turks. Having thus become known in Italy he returned there about the year 1395, and was appointed professor of Greek literature at Florence. He remained about three years in Florence, where he collected around him a great number of scholars of all ages and ranks, and excited universal enthusiasm as much by his dignity and the grace of his elocution as by the extent of his learning. From his school proceeded Leonardo Bruno, Poggius, Francis Philolphus, and other distinguished revivers of classical studies. He afterwards taught with equal success in Milan, whence the Greek emperor Manuel, who in 1400 had come to Italy, sent for him to Pavia, Venice, and lastly to Rome. Pope Gregory XII. employed him in public affairs, and sent him, with others, to the council of Constance, where he died in 1415.

CHRYSOLOGUS, JOHN ST., a celebrated father of the church, born at Antioch in the year 344. Secundus, his father, had the command of the imperial troops in Syria. In those times eloquence was still the means of obtaining the highest honours in Greece. Chrysostom studied this art with Libanius, the most celebrated orator of his time, and soon excelled his master. After having studied philosophy with Andragathius, he devoted himself to the holy scriptures, and determined upon quitting the world, and on consecrating his life to God in the deserts of Syria. At the age of twenty, he conducted a legal case with extraordinary success, but he soon retired from public business, and, by fasting and penance, endeavoured to obtain the mastery of his passions. He was united, by the ties of an intimate friendship, with Basil, Theodore, afterwards bishop of Mopuestia, and with Maximus, subsequently bishop of Seleusa. Theodore having quitted for a time his holy vocation, Chrysostom wrote two beautiful exhortations, in order to recal him to his duty. The bishops of the provinces had determined on electing him or Basil as bishop, but Chrysostom fled and concealed himself; consequently Basil was elected, who complained, however, much of his friend's withdrawal. In 374 he retired to the Anchorites who dwelt on the mountains in the vicinity of Antioch. He describes the life which he led with them in the following words:—"They rise with the first crowing of the cock, or at midnight. After having read psalms and hymns in common, each in his separate cell is occupied in reading the holy scriptures, or in copying books. Then they proceed to church, and, after mass, return quietly to their habitations. They never speak to each other. Their nourishment is bread and salt; some add oil to it, and the invalids vegetables. After meals, they rest a few moments, and then return to their usual occupations. They till the ground, fell wood, make baskets and clothes,

and wash the feet of travellers. Their bed is a mat spread on the ground. Their dress consists of skins or cloths made of the hair of goats and camels. They go barefooted, have no property, and never pronounce the words *mine* and *thine*. Undisturbed peace dwells in their habitations, and a cheerfulness scarcely known in the world."

After four years Chrysostom quitted these hermits to seek a still greater seclusion. He dwelt in a cavern, where he remained two years without lying down. His penance and wakefulness, together with the dampness of his abode, threw him into a severe illness, which forced him to return to Antioch; and in the same year he was appointed deacon by the bishop of Antioch, and in 386 consecrated priest. He was chosen vicar by the same dignity, and commissioned to preach the word of God to the people. Till then the bishops only had instructed the people in the gospel. His eloquence attracted Jews, heathens, and heretics. He was, says Sozomenes, the ornament of his church and of the whole east, when the emperor Arcadius determined, in 397, to place him in the episcopal see of Constantinople. To prevent the inhabitants of Antioch from opposing his intentions, the emperor caused him to be secretly conveyed to Constantinople, where Theophilus, patriarch of Alexandria, ordained him. He commenced his official labours by limiting the expenses of his house, founded and supported many hospitals, improved the morals of the clergy, and converted a number of heathens and heretics; and he gave so generously to the poor that he was universally called John the alms-giver. In 399 Chrysostom held a council in Constantinople, at which several Asiatic bishops were deposed as guilty of simony. Severin, bishop of Gabala, in Syria, dared to attack Chrysostom from the pulpit, and to stir up the people against him; but his charges were rejected as calumnies.

Chrysostom had two dangerous enemies—the empress Eudoxia, whose injustice and extortions gave cause to many complaints, and Theophilus, patriarch of Alexandria, who was jealous of his influence. The latter assembled several bishops at Chalcedon, who were to investigate the complaints made against Chrysostom. But he refused to appear, alleging that they had acted against the laws of the church; and on his part assembled forty bishops at Constantinople. His enemies, however, prevailed, and his removal was determined upon and sanctioned by Arcadius, who banished him from the country. Chrysostom quitted the city secretly, that he might not be prevented by his adherents, and purposed retiring to Bithynia; but the people threatened a revolt, and in the following night an earthquake gave general alarm. In this dilemma Arcadius recalled his orders, and Eudoxia herself invited Chrysostom to return. The people accompanied him triumphantly to the city. His enemies fled, and peace was restored, but only for a short time. A feast, attended with many heathen ceremonies, for the consecration of a statue given by the empress, roused the zeal of the archbishop, who publicly exclaimed against it; and Eudoxia, violently incensed, recalled the prelates devoted to her will, and Chrysostom was condemned, although forty bishops declared themselves in his favour. Arcadius ordered the soldiers to force him from the church, which was profaned and stained with blood. Pope Innocent I. and the



emperor Honorius declared themselves in favour of Chrysostom; but Arcadius refused to assemble the council, on which the others insisted, and commanded Chrysostom peremptorily to retire to the place of his banishment. He obeyed, and was conveyed to Nice, in Bithynia, in 404.

Soon after his departure, the church and the palace where the senate used to assemble became a prey to the flames, and many valuable works of art were lost in this conflagration, which the emperor attributed to the friends of Chrysostom. Eudoxia died soon after Chrysostom's banishment. After having fixed upon the little Armenian town Cucusus, in the wilds of Taurus, for his abode, exhausted by sickness, deprivations, and the fatigues of his journey, he arrived there, and continued to exert his pious zeal. He sent missionaries to Persia and Phœnicia, and wrote seventeen letters to Olympias, all of which are moral dissertations. He likewise addressed to her his work entitled, "None can injure him who does not injure himself." All Christendom felt sorrow for the pious sufferer when the emperor, exasperated, commanded him to be conveyed to the shores of Pontus Euxinus, to the town of Pityont, situated on its most distant borders. The officers who had him in charge obliged the old man to perform this journey on foot, with his head uncovered, in the burning heat of the sun; but he fell a prey to exhaustion. In Comana, in Pontus, he was brought to the oratory of the martyr St. Basil. He put on white garments, received the eucharist, uttered a fervent prayer, which he closed, as usual, with the words "Praise be to God for all things," crossed himself, and expired. His body was interred at the side of that of St. Basil; but in 438 it was conveyed solemnly to Constantinople, and there interred in the church of the apostles, in the sepulchre of the emperor. At a later period his remains were placed in the Vatican at Rome.

The name of Chrysostom (golden-mouthed) was assigned to him after his death, to express the eloquence which he possessed in so much greater a degree than the other fathers of the church. He never repeats himself, and is always original. The vivacity and power of his imagination, the force of his logic, his power of arousing the passions, the beauty and accuracy of his comparisons, the neatness and purity of his style, his clearness and sublimity, place him on a level with the most celebrated Greek authors: the Christian church has not to boast of a more accomplished orator.

CHUBB, THOMAS, a writer in humble life, who obtained great temporary distinction as a controversialist. He was born at East Haddam, near Salisbury, and was instructed only in reading, writing, and accounts. He was apprenticed to a glover, but, at length, became journeyman to a tallow-chandler, and employed his leisure in the acquisition of knowledge, from the best English books which he could procure. In 1715 he published "The Supremacy of the Father asserted," &c., the perspicuity and argumentative skill of which obtained for it much notice. Of course a production assailing a part of the orthodox faith did not pass without reply, and a controversial warfare commenced, which lasted as long as his life. In 1730 he offered to the world his thoughts on a variety of topics, moral and theological, in thirty-four tracts, collected in a volume, of which book Pope, in a letter to Gay, speaks with great respect.

Several other publications followed. Chubb seems never to have sought to emerge from the humble condition in which fortune had placed him, although he met with some powerful patrons. He died suddenly in February, 1747.

CHURCHILL, JOHN, duke of Marlborough, a distinguished general and statesman, who was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650. He received his education at home, under a clergyman, from whom he derived little instruction, but imbibed a strong attachment for the church of England; and at the age of twelve he was taken to court, and became page to the duke of York, who presented him with a pair of colours. The first engagement at which he was present was the siege of Tangier, which appears to have decided him in his choice of a profession. On his return, he remained for some time about the court, and, being very handsome, was a great favourite with the ladies there. The king's mistress, the duchess of Cleveland, in particular, was much attached to him, and presented him with £5000, with which he purchased a life annuity. In 1672 he accompanied the duke of Monmouth, as captain of grenadiers, when the duke went with a body of auxiliaries to the continent to assist the French against the Dutch. On his return to England he was made lieutenant-colonel; also gentleman of the bed-chamber and master of the robes to the duke of York, whom in 1670 he accompanied to the Netherlands, and afterwards in 1680 to Scotland.

In 1680 Churchill had a regiment of dragoons presented to him, and married Miss Sarah Jennings, a lady of great beauty and good family, an attendant upon the princess, afterwards Queen Anne. By this union he materially strengthened his interest at court, his lady proving a valuable helpmate in all his schemes for advancement. In 1682 he was shipwrecked with the duke of York in their passage to Scotland, on which event he received a great proof of the duke's regard, who used every effort to save him, while many other persons of quality perished. In the same year, through the interest of his master, he obtained the title of baron of Eynemouth, and a colonelcy in the guards. On the accession of James II. he was sent ambassador to France, and soon after his return was created Baron Churchill of Sundridge, and the same year suppressed the rebellion of the duke of Monmouth. During the remainder of his reign, he acted with great prudence, and a strict attention to his own interest; and, on the arrival of the prince of Orange, joined him at Axminster with the duke of Grafton and some other officers. His conduct in this affair has been severely censured as ungrateful; but his own apology, and there is no reason to dispute it, was his attachment to the Protestant cause, and the dictates of his conscience.

On the accession of William and Mary, in 1689, he was rewarded for his zeal in their cause by the earldom of Marlborough, and appointed commander-in-chief of the English army in the Low Countries. The following year he served in Ireland, where he reduced Cork and other places. In 1692 he experienced a great reverse in his sudden dismissal from all his employments, followed by his committal to the Tower on the charge of high treason. He soon obtained his release, but the evidence against him was never legally produced, and the author of the accusations, then a prisoner, being convicted of perjury, he was entirely cleared. By the publication of Mr.



Macpherson's state papers, it however appears that the suspicions were not altogether without foundation, and that a correspondence probably existed between the earl of Marlborough and Lord Godolphin, having for its object the restoration of the banished king. However this may have been, during the life of Queen Mary the earl seems to have kept away from court; and, aided by his countess, exerted great influence over the princess Anne, which connexion perhaps prevented his intrigues from being strictly examined. On the death of Queen Mary, he was created a privy counsellor, and appointed governor to the young duke of Gloucester; and in 1700 was created by King William commander-in-chief of the English forces in Holland, and also ambassador plenipotentiary to the states-general. Still greater honours awaited him on the accession of Queen Anne in 1702, when he was created captain-general of all the forces at home and abroad, and sent plenipotentiary to the Hague, where he was also made captain-general by the states. In the campaign of the same year he took several strong towns, among which was Liege, for which he received the thanks of both houses of parliament, and was created duke of Marlborough, with a pension granted by the queen for his life; and, moreover, carried a motion for the augmentation of the army abroad, by taking 10,000 foreign soldiers into British pay.

The celebrated battle of Blenheim was fought on the 2nd of August, 1704, between the allied army commanded by the duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, and the French and the Bavarians headed by Marshal Tallard and the elector of Bavaria. The victory was most complete. Tallard was taken prisoner, and the electorate of Bavaria became the prize of the conquerors. The nation testified its gratitude to the duke by the gifts of the honour of Woodstock and hundred of Wotton, and erected a palace for him, one of the finest seats in the kingdom. Medals were struck in honour of the event, which Addison also celebrated in his poem of "The Campaign." After the next campaign, which was inactive, he visited the courts of Berlin, Hanover, and Venice, and his conciliating manners, great prudence, and perfect command of himself, contributed to render him as successful in his negotiations as in the field. The new emperor Joseph invested him with the title of prince of the empire, which was accompanied by a present of the principality of Mindelheim. On the victory of Ramillies, a bill was passed to settle his honours upon the male and female issue of his daughters. He next visited the German courts in the alliance, and waited upon Charles XII. of Sweden, then in Saxony. His reception was cold and reserved, yet he had sufficient penetration to perceive that the king would not interfere with the allied powers. In the campaign of 1707, his antagonist was the celebrated duke de Vendome, over whom he gained no advantage. He was also disappointed in his endeavours to rouse the confederacy into more activity. On his return to England, he found that the duchess was out of favour with the queen; and, though he was received with the usual attentions, yet it was evident his popularity at court was on the decline. In 1708, in conjunction with prince Eugene, he gained the battle of Oudenard, and pushed the victory so far that the French king entered into a negotiation for peace, which was of no effect.

In 1709 the duke defeated marshal Villars at

Malplaquet; but this action was attended with great slaughter on both sides, the allies losing 18,000 men, which loss was but ill repaid by the capture of Mons. The prevalence of the Tories in England rendered the French war unpopular, and the preaching and prosecution of Sacheverel created a sensation unfavourable to its continuance. On the next visit of the duke to England, he found that the duchess, by her great arrogance, had so disgusted the queen that a total breach had ensued; and, though he was still received with public honours, he could by no means boast of his former influence. Early in 1710 he returned to the army, and, with prince Eugene, gained another victory over Villars, and took the towns of Douay, Aire, and St. Venant. During his absence a new ministry was chosen, composed of men hostile to him and his views, and, on his return, he was consequently expected to resign; but this he would not do, and, dissembling his indignation, again repaired to the field, and signalized himself by the capture of Bouchain. Finding that he would not resign his command, it was taken from him; and a prosecution was even commenced against him for applying the public money to private purposes. Disgusted by this gross ingratitude, he repaired to the Low Countries, where he was received with the greatest honour. He returned a short time before the queen's death, and, on the accession of George I., was restored to favour, and reinstated in the supreme military command. The last public transaction in which he took a part was the defeat of the rebellion in 1715, in which his advice was taken. Retiring from all public employments, his mental faculties gradually decayed, and, falling into second childhood, he died at Windsor Lodge, in 1722, leaving four daughters, who married into families of the first distinction.

The duke's fame rests chiefly upon his military talents, of which he gave most illustrious proofs. As regards his morals, he seems to have been much guided by interest; and it does not appear that he ever ceased intriguing with the Stuart family, whose restoration seemed at one time far from improbable. Neither does his connexion with the Whigs appear to have been sincere, for, according to Macpherson, he held a correspondence with Lord Bolingbroke, hoping to be restored to power through the influence of the Tory ministry. His avarice was equally notorious with his ambition; yet it does not appear that he ever made an unjust use of his ascendancy. His political enemy, the celebrated earl of Peterborough, pronounced his eulogy in these words: "He was so great a man that I have forgotten his faults"—a sentence which, upon the whole, tolerably well conveys the judgment of posterity. His duchess has been almost equally celebrated for her boundless ambition and avarice. She died in 1744, having amassed immense riches. She presented Mr. Hooke with 5000*l.* to write a book, entitled "An Account of the Conduct of the Dowager Duchess of Marlborough," and bequeathed 500*l.* to Mallet to write the life of the duke.

CHURCHYARD, THOMAS.—This early English poet was born in Shrewsbury about the year 1520. Wood, who has given a long account of him, says he was of a genteel family, and well educated; and that at the age of seventeen his father gave him a sum of money, and sent him to court, where he lived in gaiety while his finances lasted. He does not seem, however, to have gained any thing by his attendance



at court, except his introduction to the celebrated earl of Surrey, with whom he lived some time as domestic, and by whose encouragement he produced some of his poems. He certainly had no public employment either there or in Queen Elizabeth's reign, although some have denominated him poet laureat, merely, as Malone thinks, "because he had addressed many of the noblemen of Elizabeth's court for near forty years, and is called by one of his contemporaries the old court poet." He appears, however, to have continued with the earl of Surrey until that virtuous and amiable nobleman was sacrificed to the tyrannical caprice of Henry VIII. Churchyard now became a soldier, and made several campaigns on the continent, in Ireland, and in Scotland.

Churchyard, after enduring many vicissitudes, died in London about the commencement of the seventeenth century. His principal work is "The Worthiness of Wales."

CIANCHETTINI, VERONICA ELIZABETH, sister to the celebrated piano-forte player and composer, J. L. Dussek, was born, as well as her brother, at Czeslau, in Bohemia, on the 9th of March, 1776. This lady received the rudiments of her musical education from her father in Czeslau (one of the first organists of the day), and was afterwards called to London by her brother in the year 1794, under whom she studied until his departure for the continent in 1800. After that period she had the advantage of studying with the great piano-forte player Muzio Clementi, who always mentioned her as one of his most favourite pupils. It may be proper to add that Madame Cianchettini had also the advantage of Haydn's kind advice in musical composition during his stay in London.

In the year 1799 Veronica E. Dussek was married to Signor Francesco Cianchettini of Rome, and from that period chiefly resided in the British metropolis. She excelled, not only as a pianist and composer for her instrument, but also as an instructress. She published two concertos for the piano-forte, as also various sonatas, fantasias, airs with variations, waltzes, &c., some of which have had a very great sale, particularly her "Concerto in B $\flat$ ," and her variations to the favourite Portuguese hymn, "Adeste, Fideles." Madame Cianchettini died in London, on the 22d of November, 1833, universally lamented, not only for her musical ability, but also for her amiable qualities and correct deportment in private life.

We must not omit to state that Mr. Pio Cianchettini, the son of the above distinguished lady, when only five years old, performed in public a sonata of his own composition in the Opera concert-room in London, after which he travelled with his father through Germany, Holland, and France, in each of which countries he exhibited his musical talents with great applause, and was even called the British Mozart. On his return to London he continued his studies; and at eight years old spoke perfectly well the French, English, Italian, and German languages. Immediately after this age, he commenced the composition of various instrumental pieces; among the rest a grand concerto, which he executed himself at a concert in London in 1809, receiving the greatest applause. Cianchettini attended Madame Catalini when first in England, in several of her musical tours, acting as her composer and conductor of her concerts. In the Italian songs composed for Catalini by Cianchettini, he has been very happy in adapting

his music so as to display the most brilliant powers of that singer. In the other songs which he has written he has shown great taste in selecting the most classical words in British poetry, thus attempting to embody with music the finest effusions of a Milton and a Pope. The high musical talents of young Cianchettini sufficiently mark the value of his mother's musical powers as a teacher.

CIBBER, COLLEY, a dramatic writer and actor, born in London in 1671. He served under the duke of Devonshire in the revolution which placed the prince of Orange on the throne, and then made his appearance at Drury Lane theatre. He was not at first very successful; but at length the talent which he displayed in the character of Fondlewife, in the "Old Bachelor of Congreve," brought him into notice. In 1695 appeared his first comedy, "Love's Last Shift," which met with great success. In this piece he played the part of Novelty, a fashionable fop. This character is found in most of his pieces, and in the representation of it he was likewise distinguished. His dramatic celebrity, however, is founded chiefly on the "Careless Husband," which even obtained the approbation of his declared enemy, Pope. This piece is indeed without novelty in the characters, and without invention in the plot, but it is a good picture of the manners and follies of the time. His comedy the "Nonjuror," an imitation of "Tartuffe," adapted to English manners, appeared in 1717, and was directed against the Jacobites. It was very successful, and procured him a pension from the court, but drew upon him many enemies, whose number he increased by his conduct as director of Drury Lane theatre from 1711. His appointment as poet-laureate, 1730, gave full play to the raillery of his enemies. Cibber had the good sense to join in the laugh against his own verses, and thus to disarm them. Pope, however, did not cease to ridicule him on every opportunity. In 1750 he quitted the theatre, and published the "Apology for the Life of Colley Cibber," &c., written with spirit and candour, and containing many entertaining anecdotes and judicious remarks. He died in 1757.

CIBBER, THEOPHILUS, a son of Colley Cibber, was born in 1703, and embraced the profession of an actor. With respect to personal appearance nature had not been more favourable to him than to his father; but his intelligence and vivacity in his performances compensated for his other deficiencies, and he would have been successful on the stage if his extravagance had not continually involved him in difficulties. He was engaged in 1757 to play at a Dublin theatre, but was shipwrecked on his passage and drowned. The "Biography of English and Irish Poets," which appeared under his name, was from the pen of Robert Shiels, a Scotchman, who purchased for ten guineas the right of prefixing to the work the name of Cibber, then in prison for debt.—Cibber's wife, Susanna Maria, born in 1716, was one of the best actresses on the English stage. She was sister of the celebrated Doctor Arne, who taught her music, and introduced her in one of his operas at the Haymarket theatre. In 1734 she married Theophilus Cibber, but was soon after separated from him. She subsequently made her appearance in tragedy. She died in 1766.

CICERO, MARCUS TULLIUS.—This celebrated Roman was born 106 B.C., at Arpinum. His family belonged to the order of *equites*, but had



always kept themselves aloof from public business and office. His father, who lived in retirement, devoted to science, was the friend of the first citizens of the republic, and amongst this number was the celebrated orator Crassus, who himself attended to the education of the young Cicero and his brother Quintus, selected teachers for them, and directed their studies. The perusal of the Greek authors, together with poetry, oratory, and philosophy, occupied the first years of Cicero's youth. His versification was good, but his poetical merits, on the whole, only moderate. In his youth, he made one campaign under Sylla, in the Marsic war. After his return he availed himself of the instruction of the academician Philo, and of the celebrated orator Molo, and employed several years in acquiring the knowledge requisite for an orator. He witnessed the barbarities of Marius and Cinna, and the proscriptions of Sylla, after which the exhausted blood-stained republic remained undisturbed under the yoke of its dictator. Cicero, at that time twenty-six years old, highly endowed with knowledge and genius, appeared before the tribunals at first in civil suits, afterwards in a criminal process, in which he defended Roscius Amerinus, who was accused of parricide by Chrysogonus, a freedman of Sylla. He conducted this defence with courage, confuted the accusers, and obliged the judges to acquit the accused. After this brilliant display he remained a year in Rome, and undertook another suit. His conduct, in both instances, must have displeased the dictator. But his debilitated health obliged him to travel; and he went to Athens, which was still the centre of science. Here he resided in the house of an academician, was visited by the philosophers of all the schools, and profited by the instruction of the masters of oratory. His initiation into the mysteries of Eleusis is supposed to have taken place about this time. He also undertook a journey to Asia, and remained some time at Rhodes, where he likewise visited the most distinguished orators, and partook in their exercises.

On his return to Rome, his displays of eloquence proved the value of his Grecian instruction. Among others, he defended a celebrated actor, his friend and master in the art of elocution. At last he became questor of Sicily during the prevalence of a great scarcity at Rome, and managed to convey a large quantity of corn from thence to the capital, though it was difficult for him so to do without exciting the displeasure of the Sicilians. He afterwards returned to Rome and appeared as an orator, defending the causes of private individuals, merely for the sake of fame. It was an honourable day for Cicero when the ambassadors from Sicily appeared before him, with the request that he would conduct their suit against their governor Verres. He showed himself worthy of the confidence of an oppressed people, and appeared against this powerful robber, after having himself collected proofs of his crimes in Sicily. He was opposed by the celebrated Hortensius. The crimes of Verres were painted in the liveliest colours in his immortal speeches. Seven are preserved, but only two of them were delivered. Hortensius was struck dumb by the force of truth, and Verres went into voluntary exile. After this suit Cicero was elected to the office of edile. Though possessed of only a moderate fortune, he managed, by well-timed liberality, to gain the affections of the

people whilst he held this office. But for the execution of his plans he was likewise in need of the friendship of the great, to obtain which he joined the party of Pompey, the head of the nobility and the first citizens of Rome.

Catiline at that time began to plan his conspiracy against the republic. He was accused of extortion in his government of Africa, and Cicero was on the point of undertaking his defence when they became rivals, being both candidates for the consulship. Cicero's merit prevailed over Catiline's intrigues and the envy of his enemies, and was chosen consul unanimously; and now commences the most splendid period of his political life. He succeeded in defeating the conspiracy of Catiline, and at the same time he conducted a private suit, in a masterly speech defending Murena, consul elect for the ensuing year, against the accusations of the Stoic Cato. After Catiline's fall, the Romans greeted Cicero as the father of his country. But a factious tribune would not consent to his rendering an account of his administration; and, on retiring from the consulate, Cicero was only able to pronounce the celebrated oath, "I swear that I have saved the republic." Cæsar was always his opponent, and Pompey feared a citizen who loved liberty too much to be favourable to the triumvirs. Cicero saw his credit gradually decreasing, and even his safety threatened. He therefore occupied himself more than ever with science, wrote the history of his consulate in Greek, and composed a Latin poem on the same subject in three books.

At last the storm broke out. Clodius, Cicero's enemy, caused a law to be renewed, declaring every one guilty of treason who commanded the execution of a Roman citizen before the people had condemned him. The illustrious ex-consul put on mourning, and appeared, accompanied by the *equites* and many young patricians, demanding the protection of the people; but Clodius, at the head of armed adherents, insulted them repeatedly, and ventured even to besiege the senate. Cicero, upon this, went into voluntary exile, travelled through Italy, and ultimately took refuge in Thessalonica, with Plancus. Clodius, in the mean time, procured new decrees, in consequence of which Cicero's country seats were torn down, and a temple of freedom built on the site of his house at Rome.

Whilst the accounts of these occurrences drove the unhappy man almost to despair, a change favourable to him was preparing in Rome. The audacity of Clodius became equally insupportable to all parties, and Pompey encouraged Cicero's friends to get him recalled to Rome. The senate declared that it would not attend to any business until the decree which ordered his banishment was revoked. Through the zeal of the consul Lentulus, and at the proposition of several tribunes, the decree of recall passed the assembly of the people in the following year, in spite of a bloody tumult in which Cicero's brother Quintus was dangerously wounded. In this honourable manner Cicero returned after an absence of ten months. The assembled senate received him at the gates of the city, and his entry resembled a triumph. The republic undertook the charge of rebuilding his houses. From this period a new epoch commences in Cicero's life. His republican zeal diminished in proportion as his attachment to Pompey increased, whom he declared his benefactor. Cicero, mean-

while, passed several years with little public employment, occupied with his rhetorical works, and to oblige Pompey he defended Vatinius and Gabinius, two citizens of bad character, who had shown themselves his implacable enemies. The death of the turbulent Clodius, who was slain by Milo, delivered him from his most dangerous opponent, and he defended the perpetrator of this act, who was his friend and avenger, in a beautiful speech; but the presence of Pompey's soldiers, and the tumult of the friends of Clodius, confused him whilst delivering it.

About this period the senate appointed him governor of Cilicia. Cicero conducted a war, while in this office, with good success, repulsed the Parthians, and was greeted by the soldiers with the title of *imperator*. But he was not allowed the honour of a triumph. As soon as his term of office had expired he returned to Rome, which was threatened with serious disturbances, owing to the rupture between Cæsar and Pompey. Dreading the horrors of a civil war, he endeavoured in vain to reconcile the rivals. Cæsar advanced towards Rome, and Pompey was forced to fly with the consuls and the senate. Cicero, not anticipating this sudden approach of Cæsar, was still in Italy, and Cæsar saw him at Formiæ, but was not able to gain him over; for although convinced that the party of Cæsar was likely to prevail, and although his son-in-law, Dolabella, was one of Cæsar's confidants, he was prompted by his sense of honour to return to Pompey. After the battle of Pharsalia and the flight of Pompey, he refused to take the command of some troops who had remained at Dyrrhachium, but returned to Italy, which was governed by Cæsar's representative, Antony. This return was attended with several unpleasant circumstances, until the conqueror wrote to him, and soon after received him graciously. Cicero now devoted himself entirely to literature and philosophy. He was divorced from his wife Terentia, to enable him to marry a beautiful and rich heiress, whose guardian he was. But the pecuniary considerations which induced him to take this step could never prevail on him to flatter power: on the contrary, he purposely kept aloof, and ridiculed the flatterers of Cæsar, priding himself on his panegyric of Cato. But his disaffection was overcome by the liberality of Cæsar when he pardoned Marcellus. Enraptured by this act of favour, which restored his friend to him, Cicero broke silence and delivered a celebrated oration, which contained as much instruction as panegyric for the dictator. Soon after, he spoke in defence of Ligarius, and Cæsar, relenting, gave up his purpose of condemning the accused to death. Cicero now regained a part of his former consideration, when the death of his daughter Tullia occurred, and affected him very painfully. The assassination of Cæsar opened a new career to the orator, and he hoped to regain great political influence. The conspirators shared with him the honour of an enterprise in which no part had been assigned him; and the less he had contributed to it himself, the more anxious was he to justify the deed, and pursue the advantages which it offered. But Antony took Cæsar's place. Even in this turbulent year, Cicero found leisure for literary occupations, and, among other labours, completed his work "*De Gloria*," which was lost as late as in the fourteenth century.

Shortly after he determined on going to Greece,

where he could live in safety; but he soon returned to Rome, and composed those admirable orations against Antony which are known to us by the name of *Philippics*, and which are equally distinguished for eloquence and patriotism. His implacable enmity towards Antony induced him to favour young Octavius, although the pretended moderation of the latter did not deceive him. With him originated all the energetic resolutions of the senate in favour of the war which the consuls and the young Cæsar were conducting, in the name of the republic, against Antony. Octavius having possessed himself of the consulate, and formed an alliance with Antony and Lepidus after the death of the two consuls, the power of the senate and of the orator yielded to the arms of the triumvirs. Cicero, who had always spared Octavius, and even proposed to Brutus to be reconciled with him, was at last convinced that liberty was at an end. At Tusculum, whither he had retired with his brother and nephew, he learnt that his name, at Antony's demand, had been added to the list of the proscribed. He repaired in a state of indecision to the sea-coast, and embarked. Contrary winds, however, drove him back to the shore; but at the request of his slaves he embarked a second time, but soon returned again to await his fate at his country seat near Formiæ. "I will die," exclaimed he, "in my country, which I have more than once saved." His slaves, seeing the neighbourhood already disturbed by the soldiers of the triumvirs, endeavoured to convey him away in a litter, but soon discovered the murderers at their heels. They prepared for combat; but Cicero, who felt that death was unavoidable, ordered them to make no resistance, bent his head before Popilius, the commander of the murderers, who had once been saved by his eloquence, and suffered death more courageously than he had borne misfortune. He died in his sixty-fourth year, B.C. 42. His head and hands were, by the orders of Antony, affixed to the same rostrum from which the orator, as Livy says, had poured forth eloquence unequalled by any human voice. Cicero merited the character which Augustus gave him in these words: "He was a good citizen, who loved his country sincerely." He was (particularly considering the spirit of his times) a virtuous man, for his faults were only weaknesses of character, not vices, and he always pursued good for its own sake, or (what, if a fault, is easily forgiven) for the sake of fame. His heart was open to all noble impressions, to all great and fine feelings, to patriotism, friendship, gratitude, and love of science. Cicero's eloquence has always remained a model. After the revival of learning he was the most admired of the ancient writers; and the purity and elegance of his style will always place him in the first rank of Roman classics. The style of his philosophical writings, without oratorical ostentation, breathes that pure Attic elegance which some of his contemporaries wished also to see in his orations. The orator is seen, however, in his prolix and comparatively unanimated dialogues. His philosophical works, the principal part of the contents of which is taken from the Greek, and which combine academic and Stoic doctrines and principles, possess very unequal degrees of interest.

CIGNANI, CARLO, a celebrated painter, who was born at Bologna in 1628. He frequently commenced new works, but was seldom sufficiently



satisfied with his productions to consider them as finished. He knew how to compose, like the Caracci, and to distribute his figures in such a way that his paintings appear larger than they really are. His finest fresco paintings are at St. Michael in *Bosco*, at Bologna, in ovals supported by angels, and in the saloon of the Farnese palace, where he represented Francis I. of France touching for the king's-evil. At Parma, in the ducal garden, he painted several pictures expressive of the power of love, which lose nothing at the side of the paintings of Augustino Caracci. In his painting of the *Assumption*, at Forli, he has imitated the beautiful *Michael* of Guido in the cupola at Ravenna, and other fine conceptions of this painter; but in his other works he made Corregio his model. He does not so often introduce fore-shortenings as the Lombards; and, in his outlines and drapery, he possesses a finish peculiar to himself. Being commissioned to paint the cupola of the church of Madonna del Fuoco, at Forli, he repaired to Forli with his numerous pupils, where he died in 1719. His paintings have been engraved by various artists. Of his pupils the most distinguished were Crispi, Franceschini, Quaini, Count Felix Cignani, his son, and Count Paul Cignani, his nephew.

CID, DON RODRIGO RUY DIAS, count of Binar, surnamed the Cid.—This model of the heroic virtues of his age, and the flower of Spanish chivalry, styled by his enemies “el mio Cid, or my lord,” and by his king and countrymen “Campeador,” or hero without an equal, was born in 1026. We are made acquainted with the history of his life by the play of the great Corneille. Rodrigo loved and was beloved by Ximene, daughter of Lozano, count of Gormaz, who, with Diego, the father of Rodrigo, excelled all the knights at the court of Ferdinand I. of Castile. The envy of Gormaz at Diego's superior estimation at court produced a dispute between the two, which led to a duel. Gormaz vanquished the old Diego, and, insult being added to this disgrace, Diego demanded from his son the blood of the offender. In the contest between honour and love, the former prevailed in the breast of the youth, and Gormaz fell. Ximene, unfortunate as a daughter and a mistress, could no longer listen to the voice of love. It became necessary for her to demand vengeance on the object of her affections, and Rodrigo would willingly have rushed to the combat if, by so doing, he could have alleviated the torments of a lacerated heart. But no champion was found to meet the young hero; and nothing but the discharge of the important duties which devolved upon him could preserve him from sinking under his despair. Five Moorish kings appeared in Castile, and devastation and death accompanied their progress. Rodrigo, who was not yet twenty years of age, threw himself upon his noble horse Babieca, and at the head of his vassals went to meet the enemy, who soon ceased to be the terror of the country. The young hero sent the five captive kings to Ferdinand, who, as a reward for his bravery, gave him Ximene, and united those whom the decrees of fate seemed to have separated for ever.

Ferdinand afterwards added Galicia, Leon, and Oviedo, to Castile, and posterity calls him the “Great;” but it was Rodrigo who gained him the name. A quarrel having arisen between Ferdinand

and King Ramiro of Arragon concerning the possession of Calahorra, the latter challenged him to a single combat, and appointed for his substitute the knight Martin Gonzalez. Ferdinand chose the Cid for his champion, and by his means obtained Calahorra. Ferdinand, in his will, divided his dominions among his sons: to Sancho he gave Castile, to Alfonso he gave Leon and Oviedo, and to Garcia Galicia, together with the conquered part of Portugal. This division caused a war between the brothers, in which Sancho was victorious. This success was owing to the Cid, to whom he had given the command of his forces. Alfonso was taken prisoner, Garcia brought ruin upon himself by his own imprudence, and it remained only to overcome the obstinate resistance of Zamora, where Sancho's sister Urraca ruled. Before the walls of this city Sancho was assassinated, and Alfonso, who, eight months before, was vanquished by the Cid, was called to the throne. It is related in the ballads that the Cid read the oath of purification, in the name of the states of Castile, before the new king, on account of the murder of Sancho, with such impressive solemnity that Alfonso shuddered; but it is certain that he spared nothing to gain over the Cid. The story of this warrior requires a critical examination, especially what relates to his marriage; for, according to history, Alfonso married him to donna Ximene, his niece, in 1074, and consequently it seems we must consider him twice married. John von Müller, the German historian, supposes that the daughter of the proud Gormaz may have been his first Ximene. However that may be, it is certain that the Cid, notwithstanding the important services which he rendered to his king, often experienced the inconstancy of royal favour. A man like him, of strict integrity and virtue, of an inflexible and lofty spirit, who despised an effeminate life, was not fitted for courts. His true friend and brother in arms, Alvaro Hanez Minaya, his wife and child, were his world. The gravity of his countenance excited respect and reverence; his retired life afforded room for the slanders of the courtiers; and he was exposed to frequent reproaches. But in times of necessity his assistance was again sought, and he was too generous to remember past offences.

The king finally took from him all that had been given him, wife and treasures; but, from shame or fear, he afterwards restored Ximene. Disgraced, plundered, forced to depend on himself alone, Rodrigo was now happier and greater than before. Ever true to his country and his religion, he raised an army by the reputation of his name alone to subdue the Moors in Valencia. In the midst of his career of conquest, he hastened to the assistance of his king, who was hard pressed by Joseph, the founder of Morocco; but the only return for this generosity was new ingratitude. He therefore departed by night with his most trusty followers, and, forsaken and ill provided, fled from the king. He, however, remained true to himself, and fortune to him. His magnanimity again overcame the king; and permission was given to all to join the forces of the Cid, who still maintained the cause of Spain, and always with distinguished success. Alfonso declared aloud, in the presence of the envious courtiers, “This Cid serves me much better than you,” and could no longer be prevented from visiting him. From this time he was never estranged from him. Two bro-

thers, counts of Carrion, had resolved, by a marriage with the daughters of the Cid, to obtain possession of his wealth. The king himself promoted their suit, and the Cid yielded to his wishes. With donna Elvira and donna Sol, they received likewise the great treasures which the arms of the Cid had won. But scarcely had they dismissed their attendants when, in a wild mountainous desert, they stripped the garments from the persons of the ladies, bound and beat them till pain choked their cries, and departed with the money. A trusty servant, whom the Cid had sent after them, delivered the ladies from their wretched situation, and the vile deed was brought to light. The Cid demanded justice; and Alfonso summoned all the vassals of Leon and Castile to a high court of justice at the city of Toledo. The Cid demanded the restoration of his treasures, and opportunity to take vengeance for the insult, by a combat between the counts of Carrion and the champions whom he should name. They sought to avoid the combat, but the king insisted on it. They are said to have with ill-concealed fear rode to the lists, and that the knights of the Cid overcame both them and their uncle. The last exploit of the Cid was the capture of Saguntum (Murviedro), after which he died at Valencia, in the seventy-fourth year of his age. What this hero won, and for many years defended, the united power of Leon and Castile was scarcely able to preserve against the encroachments of the infidels. His widow, therefore, went with the dead body of the hero to Castile. He was buried at the convent of St. Peter of Cardena, in a tomb which was honoured by emperors and kings. There also rests the noble Ximene, and under the trees before the convent lies the faithful horse Babieca. The adventures of the Cid, particularly his banishment and return, are the subjects of the oldest Castilian poem.

**CIMABUE, JOHN.**—This celebrated reviver of painting in Italy was born at Florence in 1240. He was descended from a noble family, and was sent to school to study the belles lettres; but he generally betrayed his natural bias by drawing figures upon paper, or on his books. The fine arts having been extinct in Italy since the irruption of the barbarians, the senate of Florence had sent at that time for painters out of Greece. Cimabue was their first disciple, and used to elope from school and pass whole days in viewing their work. His father, therefore, agreed with these Greeks to take him under their care, and he soon surpassed them both in design and colouring. Though he wanted the art of managing his lights and shadows, was but little acquainted with the rules of perspective, and in other particulars but indifferently accomplished, yet the foundation which he laid for future improvement entitled him to the name of the "father of the first age, or infancy, of modern painting."

Cimabue painted, according to the custom of those times, in fresco and in distemper, the art of painting in oil being not then discovered. He painted a great many pictures at Florence, some of which are yet remaining; but, as his fame increased, he was sent for to many remote places, and among the rest to Asceci, a city of Umbria, and the birth-place of St. Francis. There in the lower church, in company with the Greek painters, he painted some of the ceiling and the sides of the church with the lives of our Saviour and St. Francis. Having returned to

Florence, he painted for the church of Sancta Maria Novella, where he first went to school, a piece of our Lady, which was a very large picture, and is still in good preservation. Cimabue died about 1300.

**CIMAROSA, DOMENICO**, an eminent musical composer, who was born in 1754. On the occupation of Italy by the French, Cimarosa displayed so strong an attachment to the new order of things that after their secession he fell into great disgrace with the Austrian court. He was for some time the inmate of a prison, and the treatment which he received during his confinement is said to have accelerated his death. His operas, which are twenty-six in number, are principally comic. His "*Italiana in Londra*" is considered the best of his productions. He died in 1801.

**CIMON**, an Athenian hero, who acted a most important part in the history of his country. The virtues of Cimon brought him into notice at an earlier period of life than any other of the Athenian chiefs. In his very early youth he was addicted to intemperate and riotous pleasure; but the distresses of his father struck home upon the heart of the son, and awakened that energy of spirit and comprehensiveness of mind for which he was afterwards so eminent amongst his countrymen. He may be said to have been of royal extraction, for his father Miltiades had been the sovereign of the Delonces, and his mother was Hegesipyla, the daughter of Olorus, king of Thrace. Although we first hear of him at the period when the ungrateful and unjust Athenians suffered him to remain in prison for his father's debt, being freed by the magnanimity and affection of his half-sister and wife Elpinice, he quickly showed that his patriotism was not deteriorated by the injustice of his country. On the second Persian invasion, while yet the principal citizens of Athens remained unmoved by the arguments and remonstrances of Themistocles, who urged them to repair to their fleet as the only means of preserving their liberty, Cimon, then a very young man, convinced of the wisdom of the measure, repaired to the temple, and offered a bridle on the altar of the tutelary goddess of Athens, Minerva, to profess his belief that horses and horsemen were no longer of service in her cause. He then proceeded to remove the portable goods of his family on board the fleet, and induced many of the Athenians to follow his example, until at length they all preferred a homeless liberty to a contemptible though tranquil slavery under the Persians.

It was from the energy he displayed in this circumstance that Cimon first attracted the attention of Aristides. The spirited wisdom and patriotism of so young a man pleased and surprised the philosophic statesman, and henceforth Aristides took the son of Miltiades under his own immediate tuition and protection. He appears to have discovered in him the early traces of that candour and honesty which he hoped might one day prove a useful counterbalance against the crafty and devious courses of Themistocles, whose popularity now threatened serious mischief to the state. The hopes and foresight of Aristides were justified in the life and service of Cimon; even when he became the object of jealousy to the turbulent and envious amongst the Athenians and their demagogues, his integrity was unimpeached by the noblest and wisest of the citizens, and his courage and his talents were held in as high estimation as his honour.



As this noble youth had been bred up in the army, under the experienced eye of his father, he was known to be possessed of considerable military skill, and, in the Athenian fleet which achieved the victory of Salamis, he sustained a considerable command. We next find his name associated with that of his distinguished friend Aristides in the direction of that important expedition of the confederated Greeks against the Persians in which the Lacedæmonians lost their ascendancy among the allied forces and the Athenians obtained it.

We have already shown in what manner the virtues of Aristides contributed to win this honour for his countrymen, and we must not here forget that Cimon in no small degree aided the plans of his contemporary, by his candour, his generosity, and his courage. Although Aristides, as the older officer and commander-in-chief of the Athenian force, was the person to whom the irritated and discontented Greeks first officially addressed themselves, it is clear that they considered Cimon, the second in command, as of no little consequence in the furtherance of their object, and Aristides himself was content to share the honour with so noble an assistant in arms and in policy. Returning home in triumph to Athens, the discontent and intrigues of Themistocles against his rival Aristides disturbed the peace of the city, and ended in his own banishment. In this affair the whole influence of Cimon, which now began to be considerable, was exerted in the cause of his friend, believing it to be that of his country; he equally condemned the mere popular cry, and the sinister means by which Themistocles had so often attained the popular favour. With these views, Cimon was the person who of all others most steadily required that the whole force of the law should be exerted against his selfish policy; the treachery of Themistocles to Athens he considered to be clearly proved, and his connexion with Pausanias he deemed worthy of death.

On the decision of this case, Athens was left comparatively in peace. She had attained a rank amongst the confederate states to which she was doubtless entitled by the superior talents of the chieftains she had sent to the common war, by the magnitude of the force she had risked, and by the greater severity of her sufferings. It now became the chief duty of her chiefs to support her liberties and her supremacy from encroachment at home, no less than to defend her territories from outrage or insult abroad. Themistocles was an outlaw, and Aristides, perplexed with a long life of toil, chose rather to promote the increasing power of Cimon, his friend and disciple, than, by again wielding it himself, to risk the well-earned but precarious honours he had acquired. Thus every thing seemed to prepare the path of Cimon to the highest distinction; and, soon after the banishment of Themistocles, we find him in a most important command.

Cimon shortly afterwards defeated the Persians in a series of engagements, and brought home to Athens vast wealth. The citizens were reminded of the magnificence of Pisistratus in his manner of living, although his motives were universally allowed to be free from the ambitious views of that tyrant. He dismissed the keepers, threw down the walls, and levelled the enclosures of his parks and gardens, permitting every citizen of Athens indiscriminately to partake of their productions. His noble table

was open even to the poorest classes; for it was a constant custom with Cimon to invite all those citizens to his suppers whom he saw at the forum unbidden to any other. In his walks through the city he is said to have been attended by young men bearing purses of money for the relief of the indigent, and who were themselves constantly well dressed for the purpose of changing their clothes with the destitute: sometimes he was even known to give away his own mantle on the spot to particular objects of charity.

These generousities were administered with a delicacy that always adapted them to the occasion; he would often take an opportunity to convey money privately into the pockets of individuals, or exchange his own robe by way of friendship with that of another. It has been well remarked that by this conduct he at once evinced that he gained his money well, as he knew how to use it well, and that he so used it, in fact, as to acquire the power of gaining more. His popularity does not appear, however, to have diminished his independence in point of principle. Brought up in the school of aristocracy, he rigidly adhered to his first principles as a statesman, now convinced by more experience of their truth; and, amidst all his kindness and profuseness to the people, he disdained to flatter their vices, and was ever foremost to repress their power. He thought the democracy of the Athenian constitution already far too powerful, and was ever on the watch lest, in still further encroaching on the privileges of the nobles, it should finally overwhelm the real liberties of his country. Disciples of the same school, the conduct and characters of Aristides and Cimon wore a similar rigidity on these points, although the circumstances under which they enforced them were widely different. The elder statesman, by his voluntary poverty, showed a haughty superiority over money, and Cimon, in the midst of unbounded riches, at once preserved his integrity and exhibited his contempt for them from an opposite principle.

It was at this time, and by these means, that Cimon attained the summit of power in Athens. His last expedition had brought such a mass of wealth into the city that all the corruptions of indulgence and luxury followed, and he himself of all the Athenians appeared the only exception to their influence. With luxury, however, came power, which the people now felt so conscious of possessing that they suffered no indignity from other states to pass unatoned for or unrevenged.

The Athenians now carried on war in two different places, and with two different nations. The contest with Ægina, a powerful state, which ill brooked the new domination of the Athenians, was renewed; and the war with Persia continued with unabated rancour in Egypt, which had revolted from the Persian yoke, and solicited help from Athens. These important affairs abroad did not, however, so completely occupy their attention but that their domestic disputes ran occasionally as high as ever. Cimon, succeeding to the honours and to the duties of Aristides, was the leader of the aristocracy of Athens, and even gloried in their cause, whilst Pericles, and Ephialtes, both men of powerful talents, were at the head of the democratic party, continually endeavouring to thwart his plans and to increase their own power. The leaders of this party saw at last no expedient so desirable as that of disburdening themselves altogether of him whose vir-



tues no less than his political sentiments were the most formidable barriers to their schemes. To the ultimate banishment therefore of Cimon every effort was directed. A specious charge was devised against him, and the despotic and heedless judgment of the ostracism again resorted to to expel her noblest son from Athens. He was accused of treason to the state, in having received money or presents from the Macedonians, in consequence of which he had declined to push his success as far as he might otherwise have done, after his obtaining possession of the gold mines of Thasos in Thrace. The defence of Cimon was noble and simple. He showed how devotedly he had fought the battles of his country, and that his wealth, at all times honestly obtained, had been devoted to its benefit. Cimon's defence availed but little, as he was afterwards banished, and returning at the end of five years again enlisted in the cause of liberty. He ultimately terminated his honourable career while besieging Citium and Cyprus, leaving behind him a name which, from the happy union of splendid talents with the amiable and generous qualities of the heart, has ever been a favourite one among the illustrious characters of Greece. Cimon was the first who established public schools at Athens, as Pythagoras had done in Italy.

**CINCINNATUS, LUCIUS QUINTUS.**—This celebrated Roman left behind him the most spotless character of any of the members of that republic in its brightest days. He does not appear to have taken any prominent part in the affairs of the state until he had passed the meridian of life. We do not find him mentioned in the repeated disputes respecting the Agrarian laws, to which Cassius had first given occasion, and which were not extinguished by the violent death to which they brought their author. Equally passive does he appear to have been during the violent contests respecting the conduct of the consuls to Volero, and the law for substituting the comitia tributa for the comitia curiata, in the choice of popular officers, proposed by that spirited plebeian. During all the earlier struggles between the senate and the people, he seems to have declined taking a decided part, although known to favour the patricians. From the nature of his influence, when afterwards called to active exertion in the service of his country, it appears that his daily life and deportment were distinguished by excellences which all parties agreed in revering.

While the consuls were absent from Rome on an expedition against the Æqui and Volsci, whom they completely overthrew, a most important proposal was made by Terentillus, one of the tribunes: he complained, in the assemblies of the people, that the rights of individuals were protected by no certain laws, as, with the exception of a few sacred books, to which none but the patricians had access, no written regulations existed, but all depended on the judgment of the consuls. He, therefore, demanded that five men, the most worthy of the office, should be chosen to frame a code, in pursuance of which the magistrates should be compelled to administer justice. The senate, feeling that the adoption of this measure would greatly limit the powers they at present exercised, vehemently opposed it; and, by the address of Quintus Fabius, the tribunes were prevailed on to defer its discussion till the return of the consuls. When, however, Lucretius and Veturius had enjoyed their triumph, and their successors, Volunnianus and

Sulpicius, had entered on the discharge of their duties, the tribunes unanimously pressed for the speedy compilation of settled laws, and required that ten of the most venerable citizens should be deputed to frame them. The patricians seem to have resorted to superstition in order to terrify the people from their design, as strange prodigies are said to have intervened; and, when these failed of success, they pretended that the Æqui and Volsci were about to invade the territories of Rome, at which the tribunes did not conceal their derision.

About this period the well-known virtues of Cincinnatus caused him to be taken from the plough to be consul, and a second time to be dictator, 458 B.C., when the army of the consul, Marcus Minutius, was on the point of being forced in its entrenchments by the Æqui and Volsci. Cincinnatus conquered these enemies, made them pass under the yoke; and, having triumphed, returned to his plough. He was created dictator a second time when eighty years of age, vanquished the Prænestians, and abdicated twenty-one days after. The time of his death is not known. From the leading trait in his history, a society was formed in America at the close of the revolutionary war in 1783, called the Order of the Cincinnati, but it met with some opposition, although it still subsists, principally in the form of a charitable institution.

**CIPRIANI, JOHN BAPTIST.**—This eminent artist was born at Pistola, in 1727. He received his first instructions from an English artist of the name of Heckford (who had settled in that city), and afterwards went under the tuition of Gabbiani, by the study of whose works he became a clever designer. Italy possesses few of his pictures; but Lanzi mentions two, painted for the abbey of St. Michele, in Pelago, in the neighbourhood of Pistola; the one of St. Tesauro, the other of Gregory VII. In 1750 he went to Rome, where he had much employment, but chiefly in drawing; and in August 1755 came to England with Mr. Wilton and Sir William Chambers, who were then returning from the continent. His reputation having preceded him, he was patronized by lord Tilney and the late duke of Richmond, and other noblemen. When, in 1758, the duke of Richmond opened the gallery at his house in Privy-Garden as a school of art, Wilton and Cipriani were appointed to visit the students, the former giving them instructions in sculpture and the latter in painting; but this scheme was soon discontinued. At the foundation of the Royal Academy, Cipriani was chosen one of the council, and was also employed to make the design for the diploma which is given to the academicians and associates at their admission. For this work, which he executed with great taste and elegance, the president and council presented him with a silver cup, "as an acknowledgment for the assistance the academy received from his great abilities in his profession." Cipriani died at Chelsea in 1785.

**CLAIRAUT, ALEXIS CLAUDE**, an eminent French mathematician, who was born in 1713. His father, a teacher of the mathematics at Paris, who was his sole instructor, taught him even the letters of the alphabet on the figures of "Euclid's Elements," by which he was able to read and write at four years of age, and by a singular stratagem calculations were rendered familiar to him. At nine years of age he put into his hands Guisnée's "Application of Al-



gebra to Geometry;" at ten he studied l'Hopital's "Conic Sections;" and between twelve and thirteen he read a memoir to the academy of sciences concerning four new geometrical curves of his own invention. About the same time he laid the first foundation of his work upon curves that have a double curvature, which he finished in 1729, at sixteen years of age. He was named adjoint-mechanician to the academy in 1731, at the age of eighteen, associate in 1733, and pensioner in 1738. During his connexion with the academy he sent a great multitude of learned and ingenious communications to their Memoirs, from 1727, almost every year, to 1762, and wrote several other works which he published separately. The principal of these is a treatise on "Curves of a Double Curvature," "Elements of Geometry," "Theory of the Figure of the Earth," "Elements of Algebra." Clairault died at Paris in 1765.

**CLAIRON, CLAIRE-JOSEPH-hippolyte-LEGRIS DE LA TUDE**, a celebrated French actress. She evinced, when very young, a predilection for the stage, and, adopting the theatrical profession, soon became the first tragic performer of her age and country. Garrick, when he visited Paris, became acquainted with her, and afterwards testified the highest admiration of her talents. She long remained without a rival, and, having retired from the stage, died at an advanced age in 1803. She published "*Mémoires et Réflexions sur la Déclamation Théâtrale*."

**CLAP, THOMAS**.—This learned American was born at Scituate, Massachusetts, in June, 1703. He graduated at Harvard College in 1722, and afterwards commenced the study of divinity. For his acquisitions in this and in various other branches of knowledge, particularly mathematics, astronomy, natural and moral philosophy, history, the civil and canon law, he was much distinguished, and possessed also a competent knowledge of Greek, Latin, and Hebrew. He prosecuted his ecclesiastical labours at Windham, Connecticut, from 1726 to 1739, when he succeeded the reverend Elisha Williams in the presidency of Yale College. He was an impressive and powerful preacher, and a man of exemplary piety and singular industry. He constructed the first orrery or planetarium made in America, and published "*A History of Yale College*," "*A Brief History and Vindication of the Doctrines received and established in the Churches of New England*," several sermons, and "*Conjectures upon the Nature and Motion of Meteors which are above the Atmosphere*." He had prepared also materials for a history of Connecticut, but his manuscripts were carried off in the expedition against New Haven under General Tryon. He died on the 7th of January, 1767, having resigned his station as president the year previous.

**CLAPPERTON, HUGH**.—This well-known African traveller was born in Annan, Dumfriesshire, in 1788. After some elementary instruction in practical mathematics, he was bound apprentice, at the age of thirteen, to the owner of a vessel trading between Liverpool and North America, in which he made several voyages. He was then impressed into his Britannic majesty's service, was soon after made a midshipman, served on the American lakes in 1815, and, in 1816, received the commission of lieutenant. Having retired to Scotland, he became acquainted with Dr. Oudney, who was about to embark

for Africa, and requested permission to accompany him. Lieutenant, afterwards colonel, Denham having volunteered his services, and it being intended that researches should be made to the east and west, from Bornou, where Dr. Oudney was to reside as British consul, his name was added to the expedition by Lord Bathurst. In the "*Discoveries in Africa* made in 1823 and 1824, by Major Denham, Captain Clapperton, and Dr. Oudney," we have accounts of an excursion from Mourzouk to Ghraat, a town of the Tuarics, by Dr. Oudney, of a journey across the desert to Bornou, of various expeditions to the southward and eastward, by Major Denham, and of an excursion through Soudan to the capital of the Fellatahs, by Captain Clapperton. The expedition set out from Mourzouk in November, 1822, and arrived at lake Tchad, in the kingdom of Bornou, on the 4th of February, after a journey of 800 miles. Six days after they entered the capital Clapperton, in company with Dr. Oudney, who died on the way, set out on an expedition to Soccato, the capital of Houssa, more than 700 miles east of Kouka, which he reached in ninety days. He was not permitted to pursue his journey to the west, and returned to Kouka, and thence to England in 1825.

The information which the travellers collected, in regard to the habits and commerce of the people of Central Africa, was important, as showing the existence in that quarter of a larger population of a peaceable disposition, and possessed of a considerable degree of civilization. The geographical information collected was not without its value, although it left undecided the disputed questions of the course and termination of the Niger. They determined the position of the kingdoms of Mandara, Bornou, and Houssa, their extent, and the position of their principal cities. On his return to England, Lieutenant Clapperton received the rank of captain, and was immediately engaged by Lord Bathurst for a second expedition, to start from the Bight of Benin. Leaving Badagry in December, 1825, he pursued a north-easterly direction, with the intention of reaching Soccato and Bornou. Two of his companions, Captain Pearce and Doctor Morrison, perished a short time after leaving the coast, and Clapperton pursued his way, accompanied by his faithful servant Lander. At Katunga he was within thirty miles of the Quorra or Niger, but was not permitted to visit it. Continuing his journey north, he reached Kano, and then proceeded westward to Soccato, the residence of his old friend Bello. Bello refused to allow him to proceed to Bornou, and detained him a long time in his capital. This conduct appears to have arisen from the war then existing between Bello and the sheik of Bornou, and to the intrigues of the pacha of Tripoli, who had insinuated that the English meditated the conquest of Africa, as they had already conquered India. This disappointment preyed upon Clapperton's mind, and he died April 13, 1827, at Chungary, a village four miles from Soccato, of a dysentery.

**CLARE, JOHN**, generally called the peasant of Northamptonshire.—This ingenious poet was born in July, 1793, at Helpstone, near Peterborough, in Northamptonshire. He was obliged, when very young, to maintain his father, a day-labourer, who had become crippled, and his helpless family, by manual labour. The sufferings of the most abject poverty he has described with heart-rending truth in his poem,



"Address to Plenty in Winter." The scanty assistance which the father received from the parish lightened the burden of supporting the family, and his son succeeded in saving money, by means of extra labour, to enable him to learn to read. He now read by night Robinson Crusoe, and other books that were lent him. Thomson's Seasons excited Clare's poetic talents in his thirteenth year, and suggested to him his first poem, "The Morning Walk," to which he soon added "The Evening Walk." John Turnhill, of Helpstone, whose notice this attempt had attracted, now adopted the boy, and taught him writing and arithmetic. Clare made rapid progress, and succeeded, moreover, in acquiring considerable skill on the violin, though he was obliged to devote the whole day to labour, and had no instruction except some advice from a village musician. This accomplishment he afterwards used as a means of support. He continued to write poetry for thirteen years, with no other encouragement than the pleasure which he derived from it, and sung of God and the beauties of nature while he laboured with the hoe and spade. In December, 1818, one of his sonnets fell into the hands of Edward Drury, a bookseller at Hamford. The poem was upon the setting sun. Encouraged by Drury, Clare prepared a collection of his poems, which soon excited public interest. These "Poems, Descriptive of Rural Life and Scenery," by John Clare, a Northamptonshire Peasant," consist of sonnets, songs, ballads, and miscellaneous pieces, which describe rural life: they are simple, interesting by their truth and feeling, and full of original images, but somewhat disfigured by provincialisms. A new collection of Clare's poems appeared in 1821, under the title of "The Village Minstrel, and other Poems," &c., two volumes, with the author's portrait. Clare acquired considerable property by his poetic productions, enough at least to ensure independence, but continued attached to his village and rural pursuits.

**CLARENDON, EDWARD HYDE.**—This able statesman was earl of Clarendon and lord high chancellor of England. He was born at Dinton, in Wiltshire, and afterwards studied law under his uncle, Nicholas Hyde, chief justice of the King's Bench. He was a member of parliament under Charles I., and the purity of his intentions, his attachment to the laws of his country, and the talents which he displayed, gained him the confidence of that body.

Upon the breaking out of the civil war, he attached himself to the king's party, became chancellor of the exchequer and member of the privy council, and followed Prince Charles (afterwards Charles II.) to Jersey. Here he remained for two years, while the prince was in France, and during that time began his "History of the Rebellion." He likewise composed at Jersey the various writings which appeared in the king's name, as answers to the manifestoes of the parliament. After Charles I. was beheaded, the new king called him to France, and sent him to Madrid, to see if any assistance could be obtained from the Spanish court. From thence he went to Paris to reconcile the queen mother with the duke of York, and afterwards to the Hague, where Charles II. appointed him lord chancellor of England, in 1657.

After Cromwell's death, Edward Hyde contributed more than any other man to the happy termination of the measures which placed Charles II. on the

throne. He subsequently possessed the entire confidence of the king, who loaded him with favours. In 1660 he was elected chancellor of the university of Oxford; in 1661 he was made peer, and Baron Hyde,



Viscount Cornbury, and earl of Clarendon. Many events occurred to disquiet him in the licentious court of Charles II.; among these was the marriage of the duke of York, the king's brother, to his daughter. The duke, while at Breda, the residence of his sister, the princess of Orange, became acquainted with Anne Hyde, Clarendon's eldest daughter, maid of honour to the princess, and married her, November, 1659, without the knowledge of the king or the chancellor. Anne's pregnancy occasioned the disclosure of this union after Charles's restoration. As soon as the king had ascertained the validity of the marriage, he acknowledged Anne Hyde as duchess of York, commanded his brother to continue to love her, and at the same time declared that this event had not changed his sentiments towards the chancellor. Two daughters, Anne and Mary, were the fruit of this marriage, both of whom ascended the English throne.

In 1663 Lord Bristol made an attack upon the chancellor in the parliament. That body, however, disregarded his accusations. Attempts were also made to injure him in public opinion, while, on the other hand, his influence with the king was declining, as Charles had now less regard for an able minister than for the instruments of his prodigality. The duke of Buckingham, moreover, was continually labouring to make the chancellor ridiculous in the eyes of the king, and his station as prime minister made the nation regard him as answerable for all the faults of the administration. The ill success of the war against Holland, the sale of Dunkirk, and other events, excited public indignation. The king's displeasure was changed into hatred when he saw his plan of repudiating his wife, and marrying the beautiful lady Stuart, defeated by Clarendon, who effected a marriage between this lady and the duke of Richmond. The king deprived him of his offices, and an impeachment for high treason was commenced against him. Clarendon fled, and sent his apology from Calais to the House of Lords. Both houses



ordered this writing to be burnt by the common hangman, and Clarendon was banished for ever. The hatred of the nation pursued him even to the continent. At Evreux he was attacked by some English sailors, dangerously wounded, and with difficulty rescued from their hands. He lived six years at Montpellier, Moulins, and Rouen, at which latter place he died, December, 1674. His remains were afterwards brought over to this country, and buried in Westminster Abbey.

Lord Clarendon, as long as he was minister, was the friend and supporter of the king against the factious, and the defender of his country's freedom against the abuse of the royal power. Ingratitude and prejudice the more easily ruined him as his stern and proud character prevented his gaining the affection of the people. Among his many writings, the most important is the "History of the Rebellion, from 1641 down to the Restoration of Charles II." It is a very able work, although not free from prejudices. To this was afterwards added his life and a continuation of his history.

CLARKE, ADAM.—This eminent divine was born in 1760, at Magherafelt, in Ireland. He early in life became a pupil at a Wesleyan seminary near Bristol, where he laid the foundation for his oriental knowledge. He was the author of a great number of bibliographical and historical works; but his greatest and most laborious undertaking was commenced in 1810, and occupied more than sixteen years. It is entitled "The Holy Scriptures, with Marginal Readings, a Collection of Parallel Texts, and Copious Summaries to each Chapter; with a Commentary and Critical Notes: designed as a Help to the Better Understanding of the Sacred Writings." Dr. Clarke died of Cholera Morbus, while on a visit at Bayswater, in 1832.

CLARKE, EDWARD, DANIEL, a celebrated modern traveller, who was born in 1767. He received his education at Jesus College, Cambridge, of which society he became a fellow, having taken the degree of A. M. in 1794. Soon after, he accompanied Lord Berwick to Italy, and, in 1799, set out with Mr. Cripps on an extensive and laborious tour through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Finland, Russia, Tartary, Circassia, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Greece, and Turkey, returning, in 1802, through Germany and France. On his return he obtained, from the university to which he belonged, the honorary degree of LL. D., as a distinguished mark of its approbation, and in consideration of the services rendered to its public libraries and institutions by his liberal contributions, among which the greatest perhaps in value is the celebrated manuscript of Plato's works, with nearly 100 others, and a colossal statue of the Eleusinian Ceres. To him also the British nation is indebted for the acquisition of the famous sarcophagus of Alexander the Great, which he discovered in the possession of the French troops in Egypt, and was the means of its being surrendered to the English army.

In 1806 he commenced a course of lectures on mineralogy, having brought a splendid collection of specimens to Europe; and in 1808, a professorship being founded purposely for the encouragement of that branch of knowledge, he was elevated to the chair. A valuable collection of plants and medals proved also at once the correctness of his taste and the extent of his industry; while a curious

model of Mount Vesuvius, constructed by him, with the assistance of an Italian artist, from the materials of the mountain it represents, attests his great ingenuity. This work of art is now in the possession of Lord Berwick. Doctor Clarke published "Testimony of Different Authors respecting the Colossal Statue of Ceres, placed in the Vestibule of the Public Library at Cambridge, with an Account of its Removal from Eleusis," "The Tomb of Alexander, a Dissertation on the Sarcophagus brought from Alexandria, and now in the British Museum," "A Description of the Greek Marbles brought from the shores of the Euxine, Archipelago, and Mediterranean, and deposited in the Vestibule of the University Library



Cambridge," "Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa, Part I. containing Russia, Tartary, and Turkey, Part II. containing Greece, Egypt, and the Holy Land," and several other valuable works. Doctor Clarke died on the 9th of March 1821. After his death a volume was published containing his travels through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Norway, Finland, and Russia.

CLARKE, SAMUEL, D. D., a celebrated theological and philosophical writer, who was born at Norwich, in the year 1675, of which city his father was an alderman. He was educated at Caius College, Cambridge. Whilst at the university, he diligently cultivated a knowledge of the scriptures in the original languages, and, before the age of twenty-one, had largely contributed to diffuse the Newtonian system of philosophy. Being of opinion that the vehicle of an established work, like that of Rohault, would be most convenient for the gradual introduction of true philosophy, he translated that author's *Physics* for the use of young students, whom he thus familiarized with the language and reasonings of Newton. On entering into orders, he became chaplain to Moore, bishop of Norwich, and first became an author in his own profession in 1699, when he published "Three Practical Essays upon Baptism, Confirmation, and Repentance." This work was followed by reflections on a book called "Amyntor," by Toland, relating to the authenticity of writings not received into the canon of scripture. In 1701 he published his "Paraphrase on the Four Gospels,"



and, about the same time, received two small livings in and near Norwich. In 1704 he was appointed to preach the sermon at Boyle's lecture, when he chose for his subject the "Being and Attributes of God," and gave so much satisfaction that he was appointed to the same office the following year, when he delivered a course of Sermons on the "Evidences of Natural and Revealed Religion." These sermons raised the author's reputation as a close and acute reasoner, although his argument *à priori* for the existence of a God was, by Pope and others, deemed too subtle and metaphysical. He, however, employed it only in opposition to Hobbes, Spinoza, and similar reasoners, who could be no other way opposed. In 1706 he published a letter to Mr. Dodwell on the "Immortality of the Soul," and, during the same year, gave an elegant Latin version of "Sir Isaac Newton's Optics," for which that great man presented him with 500*l*. Doctor Clarke's reputation as a classical scholar is chiefly founded on this performance, which is held in high esteem. His friend Bishop Moore now introduced him to Queen Anne, who appointed him her chaplain, and presented him with the rectory of St. James's, Westminster, the highest preferment he ever obtained. On this occasion, he took his degree as D. D.

In 1712 he appeared as a philologist, by editing a fine edition of "Cæsar's Commentaries," which he dedicated to the great duke of Marlborough, and, in the same year, published a work which involved him in endless controversy, entitled, "The Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity." In this production, that mysterious tenet is, on critical principles, examined as deducible from the words of scripture; but the result of the author's reasonings was so different from the opinion of the church of England that it became a subject of complaint in the Lower House of Convocation. [Several controversial pieces were written on this occasion, the chief champion of orthodoxy being Doctor Waterland. In 1715 and 1716 a disputation was carried on between Doctor Clarke and the celebrated Leibnitz, respecting the principles of natural philosophy and religion, the papers of which were collected and addressed to the princess of Wales, afterwards Queen Caroline. In 1717 he published "Remarks upon Collins's Enquiry concerning Human Liberty," and, soon after, gave much offence by altering the doxology of the singing psalms at St. James's, on which occasion the bishop of London sent a circular to the clergy forbidding the use of them. On the death of Sir Isaac Newton, in 1727, he was offered the place of master of the mint. This office he declined accepting, as inconsistent with his profession, preferment in which had, however, now become hopeless. He had all his life enjoyed sound health; but, on Sunday, May 11, 1729, when going to preach before the judges at Serjeants' Inn, he was seized with a pleuritic complaint, which carried him off, after a few days' illness, in his fifty-fourth year.]

CLARKE, GEORGE ROGERS.—This American was a colonel in the service of Virginia against the Indians in the revolutionary war, and distinguished himself greatly in that post, being considered for some time as the protector of the people of the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania from the inroads of the savages. In 1778 he was appointed to command a regiment of infantry, and one troop of cavalry, raised for the defence of the country of

Illinois, in which was comprehended the country claimed by Virginia that had been conquered by Colonel Clarke. The families which went with him to the falls of the Ohio were the first settlers at that place. At first, their situation was very dangerous, in consequence of the proximity of several tribes of Indians, and some British posts; but, by the exertions of Clarke, it was soon rendered secure, and, in 1779, they were enabled to remove into Kentucky, where emigrants quickly flocked in great numbers. In the same year Colonel Clarke descended the Ohio, and built fort Jefferson, on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and in 1781 received a general's commission.—The following anecdote is related of Clarke, in a work published not very long since, called "Notes of an Old Officer."—"The Indians came into the treaty at Fort Washington in the most friendly manner, except the Shawahanees, the most conceited and warlike of the aborigines, the first in at a battle, the last at a treaty. 300 of their finest warriors set off in all their paint and feathers, and filed into the council-house. Their number and demeanour, so unusual at an occasion of this sort, were altogether unexpected and suspicious. The United States' stockade mustered seventy men. In the centre of the hall, at a little table, sat the commissary-general Clarke, the indefatigable scourge of these very marauders, General Richard Butler, and Mr. Parsons. There was also present a Captain Denny, who, I believe, is still alive, and can attest this story. On the part of the Indians, an old council-sachem and a war-chief took the lead. The latter, a tall raw-boned fellow, with an impudent and villainous look, made a boisterous and threatening speech, which operated effectually on the passions of the Indians, who set up a prodigious whoop at every pause. He concluded by presenting a black and white wampum, to signify they were prepared for either event, peace or war. Clarke exhibited the same unaltered and careless countenance he had shown during the whole scene, his head leaning on his left hand, and his elbow resting on the table. He raised his little cane, and pushed the sacred wampum off the table, with very little ceremony. Every Indian at the same time started from his seat with one of those sudden, simultaneous, and peculiarly savage sounds, which startle and disconcert the stoutest heart, and can neither be described nor forgotten. At this juncture, Clarke rose. The scrutinizing eye covered at his glance. He stamped his foot on the prostrate and insulted symbol, and ordered them to leave the hall. They did so, apparently involuntarily. They were heard all that night debating in the bushes near the fort. The raw-boned chief was for war, the old sachem for peace. The latter prevailed, and the next morning they came back and sued for peace."—General Clarke died on the 13th of February, 1817, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, at his seat near Louisville.

CLAUDE, JOHN, an eminent French Protestant divine, who was born at La Saanvetat. After completing his education he became minister in Nismes, and in 1678 held a controversy with the celebrated Bossuet, in which, as usual, both claimed the victory. After the revocation of the edict of Nantes, Claude retired to Holland, where the prince of Orange bestowed on him a considerable pension, which he however enjoyed but a short time, as he died suddenly in January, 1687.



**CLAUDE, LORRAINE.**—This celebrated landscape painter was born of poor parents in the Castle of Champagne in Lorraine, from which he received his name. His early education was much neglected, and at the age of twelve he entered the service of Agostino Tassi, as colour-grinder and kitchen-boy. He afterwards went to Naples to study with the celebrated landscape-painter Godferly Valt. His success was so great that he was soon considered one of the first landscape-painters of his time, particularly after he had studied in Lombardy the paintings of Giorgione and Titian, whereby his colouring and *chiaro scuro* were greatly improved.

After making a journey into his native country he settled in 1627 in Rome, where his works were greatly sought for, so that he was enabled to live much at his ease, until 1682, when he died of the gout. The principal galleries of Italy, France, England, Spain, and Germany are adorned with his productions. His best work, and the one on which he himself set the greatest value, is the painting of a small wood belonging to the villa Madama in Rome. Clement XI. offered to purchase it for as many pieces of gold as would cover its surface, but the artist would not part with it, since he used it as a study. Claude possessed the greatest power of invention, by which he gave an inexhaustible variety to his paintings, united with an ardent and persevering study of nature. The truth with which he portrays the effect of the sun in every part of the day, soft breezes playing through the tops of the trees, and all the delicate beauties of nature, is surprising; and no artist but Caspar Dughet comes near him in this particular. But all his rivals fell far short of equalling the dewy humidity which he threw over dark shadowy places. His figures are poor, and he used to say—"I sell my landscapes, and give my figures into the bargain." In a great part of his paintings, the figures are the work of Lauri and Francesco Allegrini. Claude most frequently chooses agreeable views without fixed limits, in which the eye loses itself. He often introduces grand architectural structures, and makes his landscapes the scenes of mythological and historical events. As other artists frequently gave his name to their own productions, he made drawings of all his paintings, and called the books in which they were contained "*Libri di Verità*." There are some fine works by this master in the National Gallery.

**CLAUDIANUS**, a celebrated Latin poet, who was a native of Alexandria, lived under the emperor Theodosius and his sons, and was an experienced warrior, as well as a writer of merit. His poems gained him such renown that, at the desire of the senate, the emperors Arcadius and Honorius erected a statue to his honour in the forum of Trajan, with the inscription that he combined the genius of Virgil with that of Homer. Besides several panegyric poems on Honorius, Stilicho, and others, we possess two of his epic poems, the Rape of Proserpine and an unfinished Gigantomachia, eclogues, epigrams, and occasional poems. He exhibits a brilliant fancy, rich colouring, great variety and precision in his descriptions, but he is often deficient in taste and gracefulness of thought. The best editions of his works are those of Gesner, Leipsic, 1759, and of Burmann, published at Amsterdam in 1760.

**CLAUDIUS, TIBERIUS DRUSUS CÆSAR**, a Roman emperor, the youngest son of the elder

Claudius Drusus Nero and Antonia the younger, the daughter of Augustus's sister. He was born at Lyons, and grew up without education. For many years he lived as a private man, and occupied himself with literature. Among other works, he wrote a Roman history, embracing the period from the death of Cæsar to his own time, in forty-three small volumes, and also his own life. After the murder of Caligula, the body-guard, who were ransacking the palace, discovered him secreted in a corner, dragged him out, and proclaimed him emperor. The senate, who had determined on the restoration of the republic, were forced to confirm the appointment. Claudius, suddenly transferred from retirement and oppression to uncontrolled power, distinguished the beginning of his reign by some praiseworthy acts. He recalled the exiles, and restored their estates to them, embellished Rome, and erected several large buildings for the public good. He made Mauritania a Roman province. His armies fought successfully against the Germans, and kept possession of several strong places in Britain. But he soon sunk into debauchery and voluptuousness, and his wives, particularly the infamous Messalina, together with his freedmen, administered the government, sold offices and places of honour, and committed the greatest atrocities unpunished. He died of poison administered by his second wife, Agrippina, mother of Nero, at the age of sixty-three, A. D. 54. His deification was the cause of Seneca's pasquinade entitled "*Apokolokyntosis*."

**CLAVIGERO, FRANCESCO SAVERIO**, a Spanish historian, who was a native of Vera Cruz, in Mexico. He was educated as an ecclesiastic, and resided nearly forty years in the provinces of New Spain, where he acquired the languages of the Mexicans and other indigenous nations, collected many of their traditions, and studied their historical paintings and other monuments of antiquity. The first of his researches was "*A History of Mexico*," written in Italian, of which there is an English translation. This is a most comprehensive work, affording a great deal of information relative to the natural and civil history, antiquities, and religion of Mexico, but it displays more industry than judgment on the part of the author.

**CLAVIJO Y FLAXARDO, DON JOSEPH**, a Spaniard, who fell a sacrifice to a quarrel with Beaumarchais. He lived in Madrid, where he had the reputation of an intelligent scholar, and published a journal, "*El Pensador*," and other useful works. For more than twenty years, he superintended the publication of the "*Mercurio Historico y Politico de Madrid*," with which he had been entrusted as early as 1773. He likewise translated Buffon's Natural History into Spanish. He was vice-director of the Cabinet of Natural History, and director of the Theatre de los Sitios, when he died in 1806.

**CLEGHORN, GEORGE.**—This eminent physician was born in 1716, near Edinburgh, and received his education in that city. In 1736 he left the university and went to the island of Minorca, where he resided for thirteen years. After his return he published a treatise on the "*Diseases of Minorca*." This work has always been considered an excellent model of what may be styled medical topography. In 1751 Dr. Cleghorn settled in Dublin, and died there in 1789.

**CLEMENCE ISAURE**, daughter of Ludovico Isaure, was born in 1464, near Toulouse, and lost her



brave father when she was only five years old. She was educated in solitude, and grew up endowed by nature with great beauty and talents. Near to her garden dwelt a young troubadour named Raoul, who became enamoured of her, and communicated his passion in songs, in which her name and his were united. The maiden replied, not with words, but with flowers, agreeably to the petition of her lover—

*Vous avez inspire mes vers,  
Qu'une fleur soit ma recompense—*

and Raoul could well interpret their meaning. He was the natural son of Count Raymond of Toulouse, and followed his father to the war against the emperor Maximilian. In the battle of Guigenaste, both were slain, and Isaure resolved to take the veil. Before doing so, however, she renewed the poetic festival which had been established by the gay company of the seven troubadours, but had been, for a long time, forgotten, gave it the name of *Jeux Floraux*, and assigned, as prizes for the victors in the poetical contests, the five different flowers which had served her as means for replying to her lover's passion. these flowers were wrought in gold and silver, Clemence Isaure appropriated all her fortune to the support of this institution. She was versed herself in the gay science, and, having fixed upon the 1st of May as the day for the distribution of the prizes, she composed an ode on spring, which acquired for her the surname of the Sappho of Toulouse.

CLAYTON, ROBERT, an Irish divine of considerable eminence, who was born in 1695. In 1729 he obtained his doctor's degree, and shortly after was appointed to the sees of Killala, Cork, and Clogher. He was the author of several controversial works, in one of which, entitled "A Vindication of the Old and New Testament," he deviated so widely from orthodoxy that measures were adopted to deprive him of his preferment. This result had such an effect upon the bishop's spirits that he died in a state of nervous agitation, before the day appointed for the commencement of proceedings against him, in February, 1758.

CLEMENT.—Several of the most distinguished ecclesiastics, who have at various periods filled the papal chair, have borne the name of Clement; we therefore give the principal in detail.

CLEMENT I. of Rome flourished according to the most probable computation from the year 91 to 100. is placed among the apostolic fathers of the church, because St. Paul, in his epistle to the Philippians, mentions a Clement as a co-labourer with him; and St. Peter is said to have given him the spiritual consecration. He wrote two letters to the Corinthians, of which the first is extant almost entire, but disfigured with some corruptions and interpolations; of the second only a fragment exists. There is a work pretending to be the autobiography of Clement, containing an account of his life and his travels with the apostle Peter, which however can be proved to have been written at the end of the second or the beginning of the third century. It exists in three different forms: the first and most complete is in a Latin translation by Rufinus, under the title "Recognitions," because Clement, after a number of the strangest adventures, finds the members of his family, who had been long separated from him: the second is in Greek, and divided into homilies, under the title "Clementina:" the third is a short epitome relating the acts, journeys, and preaching of St. Peter. There is equally little reason for con-

sidering Clement the author of the body of apostolic constitutions and canons which are ascribed to him, though some of them may belong to him, or at least to his age.

CLEMENT II. was placed in the papal see by the emperor Henry III., in the room of the unworthy Benedict IX. He crowned this emperor, and held a synod for the suppression of simony. His death took place in 1047. He was probably poisoned by Benedict IX.

CLEMENT III. was chosen pope in 1080, with the view of supplanting Gregory VII., and placed by violence in the Roman see in 1084, and maintained his situation as anti-pope, even after Gregory's death, against Victor III., who was chosen by Gregory's adherents, and against Urban II., with various degrees of success, till 1089. He was expelled by the Romans, and compelled to swear to renounce all claims to the papal authority; but in 1091 he returned to Rome with Henry's army. Being again compelled to quit the city in 1094 he sought refuge at Henry's court, submitted in 1099 to Urban's successor, Paschal II., and died at Ravenna in 1100. He exercised the papal authority only in those provinces of Germany and Italy which were under the dominion of the emperor, and is not numbered among the legal popes; consequently the cardinal-bishop Paulus of Palestine, a Roman, chosen pope in 1187, was denominated "Clement III." His government was rendered remarkable by a compact with the Romans, which put an end to the disputes that had previously been constantly occurring between them and their pontiffs, and strengthened his authority. He promoted the crusades, and supported Tancred in getting possession of the Sicilian crown. This pope died in 1191.

CLEMENT IV.—This ecclesiastic was originally counsellor to the king of France, and a lawyer. He was also the father of two daughters. When a widower, he became archbishop of Narbonne, cardinal-bishop of Sabina, and legate in England. He was chosen pope in 1265 by the party of Charles of Anjou, and conferred on that prince the crown of both the Sicilies, then possessed by Manfred. Clement assisted Charles against Manfred by instigating a crusade against the latter, and did not obtain possession of Rome himself until 1268, after a residence of two years in France, and subsequently at Viterbo, and after the last prince of the Hohenstaufen stock, Conradin, had been beheaded at Naples. Not satisfied with having caused the fall of the house of Hohenstaufen in Italy, he wished to decide the dispute between Richard of England and Alphonso of Spain, respecting the imperial throne of Germany, but died without having accomplished his object, at Viterbo, on the 29th of November, 1269. He was distinguished, as a ruler of the church, by his power and resolution, as an excellent preacher, strict ascetic, and enemy to nepotism.

CLEMENT V. was named Bertrand d'Agout, and previous to his election was archbishop of Bordeaux and an adherent to Boniface VIII., who was the most inveterate enemy of Philip, king of France; but, on the death of Boniface VIII., Philip gained him over by promising to promote his election, and obtained from him a secret agreement to conform entirely to his wishes. He was indebted for his election, which took place in Perugia, 1303, to the artifices of Philip's agents, who outwitted the Italian cardinals. He remained in France on account of the



civil wars in Italy, was crowned at Lyons, and then travelled about the country at the expense of the king and the French clergy, until in 1309 he finally fixed upon Avignon as the constant residence of the papal court. With him, therefore, the series of French popes, or those who resided in Avignon, commences.

In consideration of his agreement above-mentioned, he released the king and his servants from the excommunication which Boniface had pronounced against them, declared the penal bulls of this pope against France invalid, made cardinals of the king's favourites, and resigned to the king the tithes of France for five years. He, however, defeated Philip's plan of placing his brother Charles of Valois on the throne of Germany, and against Philip's desire acquitted Boniface, after a tedious process, and long after his death, of the charge of heresy, at the council of Vienne. The holding of this council, which sat seven months, in 1311 and 1312, was the principal act of his reign. At this same council, in obedience to the wishes of Philip, he abolished the order of the Templars, and made salutary laws for the reform of the clergy and the monastic discipline, which, in honour of him, were denominated "Clementines." He endeavoured to confirm his power in Italy by a close connexion with King Robert of Naples, his vassal; and, with his assistance, he humbled Venice, on which he had imposed the interdict, in 1308, to punish this state for having taken possession of Ferrara, and in 1309 issued a new act of excommunication, by which he pronounced the Venetians infamous and outlawed, abolished all the offices of their government, released the people from obedience, and annulled the laws. By a crusade against Venice, in which his legate subdued Ferrara, and by the confiscation of Venetian vessels and goods, he reduced the republic to complete subjection, and put an end to the war in 1313. Robert rendered him still greater service by restraining the power of the German emperor, and that of the Ghibeline party in Italy. The emperor Henry VII., although chosen by his influence, and bound to him by an oath of allegiance, knew well how to distinguish his rights in Italy from his obligations to the pope. On his march to Rome, in 1311, he found the whole of Lombardy in a state of revolt; and Clement refused him assistance, and even forbade his coronation, which Henry, however, extorted from the cardinals in Rome in 1312. Henry, having engaged in a dispute with King Robert respecting the government of Naples, put him under the ban of the empire, and refused the pope's offer of mediation between him and his antagonist, upon which Clement issued bulls for the protection of his vassal, and excommunicated all the emperor's allies.

Upon the emperor's death Clement appointed Robert, in 1314, Roman senator and regent in Italy; but, in the midst of his plans for the complete subjection of that country, he died April 20, 1314, at Roquemaure, in Languedoc. He left behind him an inglorious name. Constant embarrassments, extravagance, and nepotism made him covetous, and led him to practise the most unlimited simony. He did great injury to the church by grants of valuable benefices to laymen, allowed his nephews to waste the money collected for the crusades and Avignon to become the seat of every description of vice during his reign, the impurity of his own morals compelling him to overlook the faults of others. His establishment, at

the council of Vienne, of chairs for instruction in the oriental languages at the universities, his encouraging the studies of the monks, and restricting in some degree the crying injustice of the inquisition, cannot compensate for the flagrant faults in his administration of the papal see.

CLEMENT VI. was a ruler not unlike the foregoing. He was born of a noble family in 1292, at Maumont, near Limoges, and was at first a Benedictine monk and abbot of Fecamp. He afterwards became bishop of Arras and counsellor of king Philip. He was also archbishop of Sens and Rouen, in 1338 cardinal, and in 1342 pope at Avignon. By the distribution of numberless abbeys and bishoprics to his favourites, by the sale of church offices, and by ordering the jubilee to be celebrated every fiftieth year instead of every hundredth, he soon gave proofs of his avarice. The emperor Louis of Bavaria he treated with the greatest severity, following the footsteps of his predecessor; and his bulls of excommunication even surpassed those of the preceding pontiff in the violence of their anathemas and their obloquy. The son of the king of Bohemia, Charles of Luxemburg, who had formerly been his pupil at Paris, and was entirely devoted to him, was, by his influence, chosen king of the Romans, in 1346, by a part of the German members of the empire; but Clement was not able to get him universally acknowledged. After the death of Louis, in 1347, he was forced to grant to his adherents unconditional absolution; and, in order to gain the members of the empire after the renunciation of the rival candidate Günther, of Schwarzburg, he was obliged to consent to the re-election of Charles IV. in 1349, without being able to obtain the fulfilment of the conditions on which he had procured him the crown. Clement was more fortunate in Italy, where the revolt in Rome, under Rienzi, in 1346, was soon quelled, and this remarkable man fell into his power. The assassination of Andrew, king of Naples, afforded him an opportunity of inducing his widow Joanna, who was suspected of being an accomplice in the murder, to sell Avignon to the papal see in 1348, in consideration of which she received absolution and was left in possession of her realm. He died unregretted in 1352. He was mild and liberal, in fact too much so towards his relations, fond of women, and not even externally devout.

During the great schism two popes bore the name of Clement, who were not considered legitimate popes by the church. Robert, count of Geneva, bishop of Cambray, and cardinal, was elected pope at Fondi, in 1478, by the French cardinals, who had abandoned pope Urban VI. He adopted the name of *Clement VII.* With him the great schism commenced, France, and at a later period Scotland, Lorraine, Savoy, and Spain, having joined him. He resided at Avignon, where he derived his support from annates and from the sale of benefices, and offered to allow the schism to be decided by a council of the church, but made no dispositions to bring this about. In Italy he had no power, and was unable to protect the house of Anjou, in Naples. He died without reputation in September, 1394. Still less power had the successor of the schismatic Benedict XIII., Ægidius Muñoz, from Barcelona, who was elected pope by three cardinals at Peniscola, in 1424, and called *Clement VIII.* He was supported by king Alphonso of Aragon, and resided at Peniscola until 1429, when he



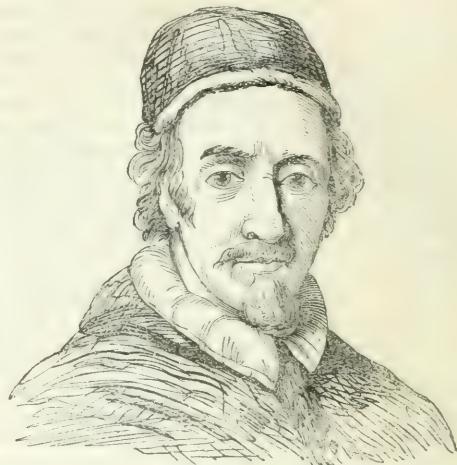
was induced, by receiving the bishopric of the Balears, to give up his claims.

**CLEMENT VII.**—This pope was a natural son of Julius of Medici. He was legitimated by his uncle Leo X., made archbishop of Florence, cardinal, and chancellor, and finally raised to the papal see in 1523. His connexion with Francis I., king of France, involved him in a war with Charles V., to which he was by no means equal; and the consequence was that the imperial army conquered and sacked Rome in 1527, imprisoned Clement for the space of seven months in the castle of St. Angelo, and forced him to surrender all the strong places, and to pay a ransom of 40,000 ducats. Notwithstanding his flight to Orvieto, in which he was assisted by the French marshal Lautrec, he was compelled to perform this condition, and to appoint cardinals and prelates for money, to enable him ultimately to conclude peace with the emperor in 1529. He crowned Charles at Bologna in 1530, and obtained of him the re-establishment of the family of Medici in the duchy of Florence. He was not able to prevent the progress of the reformation in Germany, and in England he even accelerated it, by issuing a bill against the divorce of Henry VIII., which instigated that monarch to a total rupture with the pope. France received from him a pernicious present in the person of his niece, Catharine of Medici, whom he married at Marseilles, in 1533, to the duke of Orleans, second son of King Francis I. He was intent on new schemes against Charles V., when he died, at the age of fifty-six, on the 25th of September, 1534. His morals have been commended; but as a ruler he was weak, faithless, irresolute, unwise, and in his enterprises unfortunate. His main object was the elevation of the house of Medici, and his reign brought no advantage to the church.

**CLEMENT VIII.** ascended the papal throne, by the influence of Spain, on the 30th of January, 1591. His refusal to acknowledge the French king Henry IV., whom he did not absolve till 1595, occasioned the limitation of his power in France; nor was he able to accomplish his wish of rendering Venice dependent on the papal see: on the other hand he obtained sufficient political influence to maintain possession, without opposition, of the duchy of Ferrara, taken by force from the house of Este in 1596, to mediate a peace between France and Spain, at Vervins, in 1598; and having passed over in silence the edict of Nantes, and given his consent to the divorce of Henry IV. from Margaret, he was able to prevent another war between the same powers in 1600. By favouring the Dominicans at the commencement of the dispute *de auxiliis gratia*, and by denying canonization to Loyola, he brought on a rupture with the Jesuits, whose intrigues he counteracted in this country. They were therefore suspected of having occasioned his death, which took place in March, 1605. Clement, in 1592, caused a second edition of the "Vulgate of Pope Sixtus V." to be prepared, with material alterations. His credulity was abused by an impostor, who pretended to bring an offer of submission to the papal see from the patriarch of Alexandria; and he was unsuccessful in an attempt to unite the Christians of St. Thomas, in the East Indies, with the Roman Catholic church.

**CLEMENT IX.**—This celebrated ecclesiastic was born at Pistoia in 1600, and was, for eleven years, nuncio to Spain, in the service of the papal court,

and cardinal and secretary of state under Alexander VII. He was elected pope in June and 1667, distinguished himself by his wisdom and mild and benevolent spirit amongst the popes of his century. He endeavoured to improve the finances of the Roman government, secularized the possessions of several ecclesiastical orders and convents, to procure means to enable the Venetians to equip themselves against the Turks, and even assisted them with troops and galleys; he also contributed to bring about the peace



of Aix-la-Chapelle, and put an end to the disputes with the Jansenists by a compromise, in 1668, which, in honour of him, was called the *Clementine peace*; and likewise terminated the differences between Portugal and the papal chair, which had lasted many years, by confirming the bishops nominated by King Pedro. He banished the Jews from Rome, with few exceptions, and prohibited the missionaries from carrying on trade. He died in December 1669, of grief at the taking of Candia by the Turks. His court was splendid; his character noble, mild, and rich in princely virtues, which ensured him universal love.

**CLEMENT X.** was born in 1589, of a patrician family of Rome, was admitted into the college of cardinals in 1669, at the age of eighty, and came to the papal throne on the 29th of April 1670. The first use which he made of his authority was to patronise his relations, one of whom, Cardinal Paluzzi Alfieri, completely governed him. He endeavoured to diminish the taxes, and allowed the nobility to carry on wholesale trade; but was obliged to recall a decree which exempted the foreign ambassadors, in Rome, from the payment of duties. He had little influence in foreign countries. But his reign was rendered remarkable by the commencement of the dispute with the king of France concerning the right to dispose of benefices and church lands, which was claimed by that monarch, and had serious consequences under Innocent XI. The festivities of the jubilee, which he celebrated in 1675, were increased by the presence of Queen Christina of Sweden. He refused to countenance a league of Russia and other Christian monarchs against Turkey. His death, which took place July 22, 1676, was regretted only by his relations.

**CLEMENT XI.** was born at Urbino, July 23, 1649, became cardinal in 1690, and was distinguished



by his knowledge of business and enterprising spirit—qualities peculiarly valuable in a ruler during a period of great political perplexity, 'occasioned by the disputed succession in Spain. He was accordingly elected pope by one party to the dispute on the 23rd of November 1700. Rome had cause to rejoice that he showed himself an enemy to nepotism, and succeeded in his severe regulations against the privileges claimed by foreign ambassadors for the quarter of the city in which they resided, on the ground that it ought to be considered as foreign territory. In the government of the church, and in the management of foreign affairs, he evinced more passionate violence than actual courage; and, with a striking want of political tact, more obstinacy and prejudice than decision of character. He resisted in vain the creation of the royal dignity in Prussia, and his partiality to the Bourbons, in the Spanish war of succession, proved injurious to him, particularly as he gave the imperial court other causes of dissatisfaction. He not only refused the request of the emperor Joseph to acknowledge his brother Charles in Spain, but likewise protested against the imperial right of the first bull, viz. the right claimed by the emperors, on their accession to the throne, of presenting candidates on the first vacancies which occurred in the ecclesiastical establishments of Germany, called *Stifter*. Neither threats of excommunication nor preparations for war prevented the imperial troops from entering the States of the Church and garrisoning Comacchio; and Clement was compelled, in 1709, to cede Comacchio to the emperor, to dismiss 5000 of his troops, to grant to the imperial troops a free passage to Naples, and to acknowledge Charles III. as king of Spain. He was thus completely separated from Philip V. of Spain, who, for some years, gave up all connexion with Rome. He effected nothing by his protestation against the peace of Altranstadt and the election of King Stanislaus, and his nuncio was not admitted to the deliberations which ended in the peace of Utrecht.

Ingratitude and vexation were his rewards from the Jesuits as well as from the Bourbons. Whilst in China the Jesuits bade defiance to his prohibition of introducing heathen forms into Christian worship, ill-treated his envoys, and finally compelled him to comply with their wishes: they led him, from a spirit of revenge towards the Jansenists in France, into measures injurious to the church and the papal authority. Clement entered into a contest, in 1713, respecting the rights of the crown of Sicily in church affairs, which neither his abolishment of the privilege nor his excommunication of Sicily could terminate, and he was at last compelled to yield, on account of the burdensome obligation of supporting the many priests and monks who had fled from Sicily and looked to him for aid as martyrs in his cause. None but the exiled house of Stuart, whom he supported in Rome from the year 1717, and the king of Portugal, for whom he established a patriarchate in Lisbon, were sincerely devoted to him. In the government of the States of the Church, he proved himself well disposed. He enriched the library of the Vatican with oriental manuscripts, and by the addition of his private library. In Bologna, he founded an academy of the fine arts, and was a general friend and patron of science. He died of an illness occasioned by excessive indulgence in confectionary, March 19, 1721. This pope lived at a time when

the decline of the papal authority was becoming evident.

CLEMENT XII.—This pope was a native of Florence, and was born in April, 1652, and created pope July 12, 1730. His relations with the Catholic powers were attended with as much trouble and vexation as those of his predecessor. He was forced to bestow on the infant of Spain, only eight years of age, the cardinal's hat and the archbishopric of Toledo, to submit to the levying of troops by the Spaniards in the States of the Church, and, after a commotion thereby created, to admit a Spanish garrison into his dominions, and to allow Parma, long a papal fief, to pass first to an infant and then to the German emperor, without gaining any thing by his submission but some advantageous reservations in the *concordat* made with Spain in 1737. He had a dispute with Venice respecting the privilege claimed by the ambassadors of having their quarter of the city exempt from the jurisdiction of the Roman government, and at last submitted. Nor was his opposition to the royal right of patronage over the ecclesiastical benefices in Savoy more effectual, notwithstanding his threat of excommunicating the king. He did not even succeed in obtaining the little republic St. Marino. Convinced that he could gain nothing from the Catholics, Clement bent his thoughts seriously to the conversion of heretics, and therefore omitted the annual proclamation of the bull "In Cœna Domini." Another bull in which, unacquainted with the particular circumstances of the case, he promised the Protestants in Saxony to leave them the property of the church, which had been secularized during the reformation, if they would become Catholics like their elector, only exposed him to ridicule. His preachers of repentance in Silesia made no impression on the Protestants. The submission of the patriarch in Constantinople was prevented by the Greeks, and the gratification of the sanguine hopes of the pope was limited to the conversion of a prince of Morocco, whom he then had to maintain, and of a Swedish count, Bielke, whom he made a Roman senator. He provided for future conversions by instituting an ecclesiastical seminary for young Greeks in Calabria, which was named the "Corsinian Seminary." He improved the police of Rome by abolishing the asylums and by prohibiting articles of luxury, erected a foundling-hospital and buildings for the embellishment of Rome, collected statues in the capitol and oriental manuscripts in the Vatican (where at that time Syriac manuscripts were published), and promoted learning in general. Notwithstanding a state lottery of which he received the chief profits, and also three jubilees held during his reign which yielded large sums, his nepotism, his love of splendour, and his luxurious habits, greatly exceeded his means, and he died in debt on the 6th of February, 1740.

CLEMENT XIII. was born in 1693 at Venice, and made pope July 6, 1758, by the influence of the empress Maria Theresa and the Jesuits. In acknowledgment of the aid of the former he conferred on her the title of apostolic majesty, and promoted the interests of the latter at the expense of his honour and peace. During his government they were expelled from Portugal, Spain, France, Naples, Sicily, and Parma, and took refuge with him. Though these fugitives were a great burden to him, he still favoured their order in a particular bull in 1765, with-



out, however, being able to prevent its decline. The persecution of his favourites happened at a time when he was engaged in disputes respecting the privileges of the church in Parma, and by his arrogance towards the Bourbons had lost Avignon, Venaissin, and Benevento, when his reservation of benefices in Spain was rejected, the tribute of Naples refused, and Germany was instructed by Justus Febronius respecting the limits of the papal authority. During this period, too, Rome twice suffered from famine, viz. in 1764 and 1766. He is said to have been governed entirely by his secretary of state, Torreggiano, and the general of the Jesuits, Ricci, and even ventured in 1768, by repeating the bull "In Cœna Domini" in a threatening brief to Parma, to irritate all the Catholic courts, and died in the midst of contentions on the 2d of February, 1769. He was a weak desponding old man, whose untimely zeal gained the appearance of energy only by the violent measures of his two counsellors.

CLEMENT XIV. was born in 1705. His father was a physician named Ganganelli, residing at St. Arcangelo, near Rimini. He entered the order of Minorites in his eighteenth year, studied philosophy and theology, soon became a teacher himself, and gained the affection and esteem of his pupils. He instilled into them exalted sentiments and feelings, and endeavoured to free them from all monkish habits and narrow-minded ideas. The keen-sighted Benedict XIV., we are told, once laid his hand on Ganganelli's head, and said to the general of his order, "Take good care of this brother; I recommend him particularly to your charge." During the government of this pope, Ganganelli obtained the important station of counsellor of the holy see. Benedict, who beheld in him German phlegm joined to Italian vivacity, often consulted him. "He unites," he said, "solid judgment to deep knowledge, and is a thousand times more modest than an ignorant man, and as cheerful as if he had never lived in retirement." Clement XIII. bestowed the cardinal's hat upon Ganganelli; but, great as were his virtues and talents, there was not the most distant prospect of seeing him in the chair of St. Peter. The freedom with which he expressed himself on the necessity of submitting wisely to the will of monarchs seemed little calculated to gain the favour of the rest of the cardinals. In the congregations of cardinals held under the eye of the pope, relating to the duchies of Parma and Piacenza and to the affairs of the Jesuits, he gave his opinion so directly in opposition to the pope and the secretary of state that his advice was no longer asked. "If the Roman court is not to be precipitated from its exalted station," he often exclaimed, "it is necessary to preserve the favour of monarchs; for their arms extend beyond the bounds of their dominions, and their power reaches over the Alps and the Pyrenees." These sentiments were displeasing at Rome, but ensured him powerful supporters on the occasion of a vacancy in the papal chair. Clement XIII. died; the conclave was violent and disunited until the eloquence of the cardinal Bernis prevailed, and Ganganelli was proclaimed, May 19, 1769, head of the church, although he was not a bishop.

No pope, perhaps, had ever been elected under more difficult circumstances. Portugal, which was on ill terms with the holy see, wished to put itself under the government of a patriarch; the manner in

which the duke of Parma had been treated had displeased the kings of France, Spain, and Naples; Venice was determined to reform the ecclesiastical orders without the pope's interposition; Poland was endeavouring to reduce the papal authority; even the Romans murmured. Clement began his reign with labouring to reconcile the monarchs, sent a nuncio to Lisbon, suppressed the bull "In Cœna Domini," which had incensed the potentates, and negotiated with Spain and France. When called on to abolish the order of the Jesuits, he wrote, "I am the father of all believers, and particularly of ecclesiastics. I dare not dissolve a distinguished order without reasons to justify the act before God and posterity." Finally, after several years of negotiation, he issued the celebrated brief, dated July 21st, 1773, termed "Dominus ac Redemptor noster," which abolished the order. But from that time he led a life of anxiety, fear, and repentance; his strength declined. "I am going into eternity," he said, "and I know the cause." He died September 22, 1774. The words of the pope gave rise to suspicions of his having been poisoned, which were the more readily admitted as the pope himself countenanced them by taking antidotes. But these suspicions are negatived by the opinion of physicians, and it is believed that his saying above quoted refers to the grief he felt for having yielded to the wishes of the sovereigns in abolishing the Jesuits without being convinced of the necessity of the measure. Carlo Giorgi, one of his officers, honoured the memory of his benefactor by erecting a marble monument to him in the church of the apostles in Rome, which Canova executed according to a plan of Volpato. Since Sixtus V. no pope has sat in the chair of St. Peter who has governed with more wisdom and independence. Clement was distinguished for his enlightened spirit, political sagacity, and erudition, excellence of character, firmness, and activity. He was a patron of the arts and sciences, and the founder of the "Museo Clementino," a great ornament of the Vatican.

CLEMENT, JACQUES.—This individual was the assassin of Henry III., king of France. He was born at the village of Sorbon, in the archbishopric of Rheims, and had been but a short time a member of the order of Dominicans when the party-spirit of the League instigated the weak-headed enthusiast to assassinate the king. His prior, Bourgoin, in particular, to whom he confided his project, encouraged him and exhorted him to pray and fast, that the will of God might be made known to him. It is said that a nocturnal voice, which he was made to hear, called upon him to free his country from the tyrant. The duchess of Montpensier, sister of the Guises, is accused of having confirmed him in his determination, and of having encouraged him by the assurance that, if he escaped, he should be raised to the cardinalship by the pope, and if he perished he should be placed amongst the saints.

In consequence of this encouragement the enthusiast repaired in July, 1589, from Paris to St. Cloud, where the king resided. The *procureur général*, to whom he was conducted, suspected him, and caused him to be watched at night, when he was discovered fast asleep, with the place treating of the murder of Holofernes by Judith lying open in the breviary before him. The following morning he was brought before the king, and pretended to be the bearer of important despatches from Paris; but, whilst the



king was reading the letter handed to him by the traitor, Clement stabbed him, and left the knife in the wound. Two courtiers, Lognac and Guesle, who entered upon hearing the king's cries, instantly stabbed the assassin. Clement's corpse was placed on a hurdle and drawn to the place of execution, where it was torn asunder by four horses and burnt. The wild madness of party-spirit, of which he was made the instrument, considered him as a martyr. His mother, some time after, appearing at Paris, the monks exhorted the people to go to meet the holy mother of the saint. His image was placed on the altars, and the earth which had drunk his blood at St. Cloud was collected. Even the pope Sixtus V. pronounced the eulogy of the assassin in the assembly of the cardinals, and compared him to Judith and Eleazar.

**CLEMENTI, MUZIO.**—This distinguished performer and composer for the piano-forte was born in Rome in 1752. His father, a silversmith, was himself fond of music, and had his son instructed as well as his means allowed, and, young Clementi showing great talent and inclination for this art, in his seventh year an organist, named Cordicelli, instructed him in thorough bass, and in his ninth year he passed an examination as an organist. He then received instruction from the celebrated singer Cantarelli, and from Carpini the celebrated contrapuntist. At this time, in his twelfth year, he wrote a mass for four voices, which was received with great applause. He had made such progress in his performance on the piano-forte that Mr. Beckford, who was then residing on the continent, was anxious to take him to England. The father at length consented, and young Clementi studied at the country-seat of Mr. Beckford, in Dorsetshire, and soon made himself master of the English language. In his eighteenth year he far excelled all his contemporaries in skill and expression, and published his "Opus II.," which formed a new epoch in this species of composition. It has furnished the basis of all modern sonatas for the piano-forte, and its simplicity and novelty have attracted the admiration of all connoisseurs and amateurs. After leaving Dorsetshire, he was engaged as director of the orchestra of the opera in London. In the year 1780 he went to Paris, where he was received with enthusiasm. From thence he proceeded, in the summer of 1781, to Vienna, where he became acquainted with Mozart and Haydn, and played before the emperor Joseph II. with the former. He likewise published several compositions. In 1784 he repeated his visit to Paris, but after that remained in this country till 1802.

The loss which he sustained from the failure of a large commercial establishment induced him to give lessons in music for a time, and in his leisure hours he occupied himself with playing on the piano-forte and the improvement of that instrument. He had previously published his celebrated "Introduction to the Art of Piano-Forte Playing." In the year 1802 he went to Paris, for the third time, with his scholar Field; from thence to Vienna and St. Petersburg, where Field remained. From St. Petersburg the piano-forte player Zeuner followed him to Berlin and Dresden. From Dresden he was accompanied by Klengel the organist, who was anxious to improve under his care. At Berlin Clementi married his second wife, whom he took with him into Italy, but lost on his return to Berlin. He then went anew to

St. Petersburg, with the distinguished piano-forte performer and instructor Berger, and afterwards returned again to Vienna. In the summer of 1810 he ventured, notwithstanding the closure of the continental ports, to return to England, where he arrived safely and married his third wife. In the mean time he continued to compose, and wrote some grand symphonies for the Philharmonic Society. One of his most valuable works is his "Gradus ad Parnassum," which occupied him a long time. He likewise superintended the construction of instruments, and this business proved very lucrative to him. His death took place at his country-seat, Elm Lodge, near Evesham, Worcestershire, March the 10th, 1832.

**CLEOMENES**, the name of three kings of Sparta, the most distinguished of whom is Cleomenes III., son of Leonidas. He intended to reform Sparta, and to restore the institutions of Lycurgus, after the example of Agis, his brother, who had lost his life in a similar attempt. Cleomenes distinguished himself in a war against the Achæans, commanded by Aratus. Returning to Sparta with a part of the army he put to death the Ephori, made a new division of lands, and introduced again the old Spartan system of education, made his brother his colleague, and provided that in future two kings should always sit on the throne of Sparta. He lived very simply, and was just and kind towards everybody. He showed himself an able general in a war against the Macedonians and Achæans united, but at last lost the important battle of Sellasia. Cleomenes fled to Egypt, where he was supported by Ptolemy Euergetes, but his son Ptolemy Philopator kept Cleomenes in confinement, upon which he and twelve fellow-prisoners killed each other. With Cleomenes expired the race of the Heraclide which had sat on the throne of Sparta.

**CLEOPATRA**—Amongst several Egyptian princesses of this name the most renowned was the eldest daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, wife to his eldest son Ptolemy, with whom she shared the throne of Egypt. Both were minors at the death of their father, and were placed under the guardianship of Pothinus and Achilles, who deprived Cleopatra of her share in the government. She was forming plans for obtaining her rights by force when Cæsar came to Alexandria, and, captivated with her youthful charms, seconded her claims; and, though the people of Alexandria were excited to a revolt by the arts of her brother, Cæsar succeeded in pacifying them, and procured Cleopatra her share of the throne. But Pothinus created a second revolt, upon which the Alexandrian war commenced, in which the other Ptolemy losing his life, Cæsar proclaimed Cleopatra queen of Egypt; but she was compelled to take her brother, the younger Ptolemy, who was only eleven years old, as her husband and colleague on the throne. Cæsar continued some time at Cleopatra's court, and had a son by her named Cæsarion.

She subsequently made a journey to Rome, where Cæsar received her magnificently, and erected a statue to her, next to the statue of Venus, in the temple consecrated to that deity. This act, however, excited the displeasure of the people, and Cleopatra soon returned to her own dominions. When her brother, at the age of fourteen, demanded his share in the government, Cleopatra poisoned him and remained sole possessor of the regal power. During the civil

war in Rome she took the part of the triumvirs, and after the battle of Philippi she sailed to join Antony at Tarsus. She was then twenty-five years old, and combined with extraordinary beauty great wit and the highest elegance of manners. She appeared in a magnificently decorated ship, under a golden canopy, arrayed as Venus, surrounded by beautiful boys and girls, who represented Cupids and Graces. Her meeting with Antony was attended by the most splendid festivals. After having accompanied him to Tyre she returned to Egypt, where Antony followed her and gave himself up to the most extravagant pleasures. She accompanied him on his march against the Parthians, and when he parted from her on the Euphrates he bestowed Cyrene, Cyprus, Cælesyria, Phœnicia, Cilicia, and Crete on her, to which he added part of Judea and Arabia at her request. After this Antony conquered Armenia, returned triumphantly to Egypt, and made his three sons by Cleopatra, and also Cæsarian, kings. Now commenced the war between Octavius and Antony; but, instead of acting promptly against his adversary, Antony lost a whole year in festivals and amusements with Cleopatra at Ephesus, Samos, and Athens, and at last determined to decide the contest by a naval battle. At Actium the fleets met. Cleopatra, who had brought Antony a reinforcement of sixty vessels, suddenly took to flight, and thus caused the defeat of her party; for Antony, as if under the influence of frenzy, immediately followed her. They fled to Egypt, and declared to Octavius that if Egypt were left to Cleopatra's children they would thenceforth live in retirement. But Octavius demanded Antony's death, and advanced towards Alexandria, which Antony hastened to defend. Cleopatra determined to burn herself with all her treasures, but Octavius pacified her by private messages. These communications, however, did not remain concealed from Antony, who, supposing Cleopatra treacherous, hastened to her to avenge himself by her death. She, however, escaped and took refuge in the monument destined for her sepulchre, which she had erected near the temple of Isis, and caused the report of her suicide to be circulated. Antony now threw himself upon his sword, but before he expired was informed that Cleopatra was still living, upon which he caused himself to be carried into her presence, and breathed his last in her arms. Octavius succeeded in getting Cleopatra into his power, who still hoped to subdue him by her charms; but her arts were unavailing, and, becoming aware that her life was spared only that she might grace the conqueror's triumph, she determined to escape this ignominy by a voluntary death. She ordered a splendid feast to be prepared, desired her attendants to leave her, and put an asp, which a faithful servant had brought her concealed amongst flowers, on her arm, the bite of which caused her death almost immediately. Octavius, in his triumphal procession, had a portrait of the queen with a serpent on her arm carried before him. Her body was interred near that of Antony. At the time of her death she was thirty-nine years old, and had reigned twenty-two years.

CLERFAYT, COUNT OF, an Austrian general, born in 1733 in the castle of Bruille, near Binche, in Hainault. He distinguished himself in the seven years' war, particularly in the battles of Prague, Lissa, Hochkirchen, and Liegnitz, and was among the first who received the order of Maria Theresa in

1757. During the insurrection in the Netherlands, in 1787, he rejected every proposal to betray the cause of Joseph II. In 1788 and 1789 he fought against the Turks as lieutenant-general field-marshal, and received the appointment of general of the artillery and the grand cross of the order of Maria Theresa in 1790. In 1792 he commanded an army of 10,000 men in the Netherlands, and lost the celebrated battle of Jemappes, no less honourable to the vanquished than to the victor. His subsequent retreat towards the Rhine with a handful of followers, closely pursued by the enemy, added much to his reputation. In 1794 he was opposed to Pichegru in West Flanders, and yielded to superior force only after seven well-contested combats. In 1795 he received the baton of field-marshal, and the supreme command of the imperial troops on the Rhine. He afterwards resigned his command to the archduke Charles, became a member of the Austrian council of war, and died at Vienna in 1798, where a superb monument was erected to him by the city. Clerfayt united with the talents of a general all the qualities of a good citizen and of an excellent man. His tenantry found in him the mildest of masters. His purse was always open to those of his dependents who needed and deserved his assistance, and all the obligations which they had given him for repayment he burned on the day before his death. He was simple in his dress, but when engaged against the enemy he was never seen otherwise than in his full uniform, and with the badges of the orders to which he belonged. "The day of battle," he said, "is the day of honour to the warrior."

CLERK, JOHN, of Eldin, the inventor of the modern British system of naval tactics, which is the more remarkable as he was a country gentleman, not acquainted with navigation. In 1779 he imparted to his friends his new system of breaking through the line of the enemy. Lord Rodney first made use of it in his victory of April 12, 1782, over the French, under De Grasse, between Dominica and Les Saintes. Since then Clerk's principles have been applied by all the English admirals, and lords Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan, and Nelson owe to them their most signal victories.

CLIFFORD, GEORGE, the third earl of Cumberland of that family, eminent both for his literary and military abilities, was born in Westmoreland in 1558. He studied at Peterhouse in Cambridge. His attention at this period was principally directed to mathematics and navigation, in both which he became a great proficient. In 1586 he took part in the trial of Queen Mary Stuart; and, in the course of the same year, sailed to the coast of South America, having under his command a small squadron, which sensibly annoyed the Portuguese trade in that part of the world. Two years afterwards he commanded a ship in the ever-memorable action with the "invincible armada;" and subsequently fitted out, at his own expense, no fewer than nine expeditions to the Western Islands and the Spanish Main, in one of which he succeeded in capturing a valuable plate-ship. His skill in martial exercises and knightly accomplishments on shore was no less distinguished than his naval tactics; and Queen Elizabeth, with whom he was in great favour, not only appointed him her champion in the court tournaments, but employed him in the more serious task of reducing the headstrong Essex to obedience. He was made a



knight of the garter in 1591, and he died in October, 1605.

CLIFFORD, ANNE, a spirited English lady, the only daughter of the above, was born in 1589. Her first husband was Richard, Lord Buckhurst, afterwards earl of Dorset, by whom she had three sons, who died young, and two daughters. Her second husband was the eccentric Philip, earl of Pembroke, by whom she had no issue. This lady wrote memoirs of her first husband, as also sundry memorials of herself and progenitors, all of which remain in manuscript. In the course of her life she built two hospitals, and erected or repaired seven churches. She also erected monuments to the poets Spenser and Daniels, the latter of whom was her tutor. She is, however, more celebrated for a high-spirited reply to Sir Joseph Williamson, secretary of state after the restoration, who had presumed to nominate a candidate for her borough of Appleby: "I have been bullied," she writes, "by a usurper, I have been neglected by a court, but I will not be dictated to by a subject; your man sha'n't stand."

CLIFTON, WILLIAM.—This American poet was the son of a wealthy mechanic of Philadelphia, and was born in that city in 1772. He early discovered great vivacity and intelligence and a fondness for literature, but he was brought up in the manners and principles of the stricter order of Quakers, his parents being of that sect. The rupture of a blood-vessel, at the age of nineteen, debilitated his naturally feeble constitution so much that he was incapacitated for business, and was thus enabled to devote himself more particularly to the literary pursuits of which he was fond. His first effusions, both in prose and verse, appeared in the newspapers, and other fugitive publications. He afterwards commenced a poem entitled "The Chimeriad," which he did not finish. In this the genius of false philosophy is personified with much spirit and boldness of imagination, under the character of the witch Chimera. But the best of his productions is perhaps the epistle to Mr. Gifford, published anonymously in the first American edition of Mr. Gifford's poems. It exhibits the author's poetical thought and power of versification to great advantage. But the hopes of future excellence which these productions afforded were not to be gratified. The pulmonary complaints of the author assumed a more decided character, and he died in December, 1799, in the twenty-seventh year of his age.

CLINTON, SIR HENRY, an English general, who served in the Hanoverian war, and was sent to America in 1775, with the rank of major-general, where he distinguished himself in the battle of Bunker's Hill. He was soon after sent against New York and Charleston, but without success. In a second attempt on New York, he entered the city, after having defeated the Americans on Long Island. Being appointed to the command of that station for the purpose of favouring the movements of General Burgoyne, his attempts were rendered ineffectual by the surrender of that general at Saratoga. In 1778 he succeeded Howe in the command at Philadelphia, which Washington obliged him to evacuate. In 1779 he obtained possession of Charleston. His connexion with Arnold, his attempt to seduce the American troops by the offer of making up their arrears of pay, and his boast that there were more American loyalists in the pay of the British king than there were soldiers

in the army of Washington, illustrate the system of bribery then adopted by the British generals in America. In 1782 Clinton returned to England, having been superseded by General Carleton. He died in 1795. His narrative of his conduct in America was answered by Lord Cornwallis, to whom Clinton replied in observations on Lord Cornwallis's answer. He was also the author of "Observations on Stedman's History of the American War."

CLINTON, JAMES, the fourth son of Colonel Charles Clinton, was born August 9, 1736, at the residence of his father, in Ulster county, New York. He received an excellent education, and acquired much proficiency in the exact sciences; but his ruling inclination was for a military life. He was appointed an ensign in the second regiment of the militia of Ulster county, by Sir Charles Hardy, the governor, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the same regiment, before the commencement of the revolution. During the war of 1756, between the English and French, he displayed much courage, and particularly distinguished himself at the capture of Fort Frontenac, where he was a captain under Colonel Bradstreet, and rendered essential service by taking a sloop of war on Lake Ontario, which obstructed the advance of the army. The confidence which was reposed in his character may be estimated by his appointment as captain-commandant of the four regiments levied for the protection of the western frontiers of the counties of Ulster and Orange, a post of great responsibility and danger, by which he was entrusted with the safety of a line of settlements of at least fifty miles in extent, which were continually threatened by the savages. After the French war, Mr. Clinton married Miss Mary de Witt, and retired from the army to private life. But he did not very long enjoy repose. On the 30th of June, 1775, he was appointed by the continental congress colonel of the third regiment of New York forces, the American revolution being then on the eve of commencement. In the same year he marched with Montgomery to Quebec; and, in 1777, having been previously promoted to the rank of brigadier-general in the army of the United States, commanded at Fort Clinton, when it was attacked by Sir Henry Clinton, in order to create a diversion in favour of General Burgoyne. After a gallant defence, Fort Clinton, as well as Fort Montgomery, of both of which his brother George, the governor, was commander-in-chief, were carried by storm. General Clinton was the last man to leave the works; but he escaped with a severe wound, and reached his house covered with blood.

An expedition soon after having been planned to chastise the Iroquois on the frontier settlements, on account of some atrocities of which they had been guilty, the chief command was given to General Sullivan, who was ordered to proceed up the Susquehanna, while General Clinton was to join him by the way of the Mohawk. The junction was successfully accomplished, and after one engagement, in which the Indians were defeated with great loss, all resistance ceased on their part, and, desolation being brought into their settlements, they fled to the British fortress of Niagara, where they died in great numbers, in consequence of living on salt provisions, to which they were unaccustomed. During a considerable part of the war, General Clinton was stationed at Albany, where he commanded. He was at the

siege of Yorktown, and here his conduct was marked by his usual intrepidity. He made his last appearance in arms on the evacuation of the city of New York by the British, when he bade an affectionate farewell to the commander-in-chief, and retired to his ample estates. He did not, however, enjoy uninterrupted repose, but was often called by his fellow citizens to perform civic duties, such as those of a commissioner to adjust the boundary line between Pennsylvania and New York, of a member of the legislature and of the convention which adopted the present constitution of the United States, and of a senator, all of which offices he filled with credit to himself and usefulness to his country. General Clinton was of a mild and affectionate disposition, but, when greatly provoked, displayed extraordinary energy. In battle he was calm and collected. He died on the 22nd of December, 1812.

CLINTON, GEORGE, the youngest son of Colonel Charles Clinton, was born July 15, 1739, in Orange, then Ulster, county, New York. His education was superintended by his father, a gentleman of a highly-cultivated mind, assisted by a minister of the gospel, who had been educated at the university of Aberdeen, Scotland. He evinced, at an early age, that spirit of activity and enterprise which marked his after-life. During what was called the *French war* he left his father's house, and entered on board a privateer, which sailed from the port of New York; and, after encountering great hardships and perils, returned home, and immediately accepted a lieutenancy in a company commanded by his brother James. He was present at the capture of Fort Frontenac, now Kingston, where the company to which he belonged behaved with great gallantry. After the usual time of study he was admitted to the bar, and practised with much success in his native county, until his election to the colonial assembly, where he became the head of the Whig party, or minority, and uniformly opposed the arbitrary course of the government. On the 22nd of April, 1775, he was chosen a delegate to the continental congress; and in 1776 he was also appointed brigadier-general of the militia of Ulster county. At the first election under the constitution of the state, which was adopted at New York in 1777, he was chosen both governor and lieutenant-governor. Having accepted the former office, the latter was filled by Pierre van Cortlandt. He continued in the chief magistracy of the state during six terms, or eighteen years, when he declined a re-election.

In consequence of the great number of Tories who resided in the state of New York, and its distracted condition, the situation of Governor Clinton was more arduous and important than any other in the Union, save that of the commander-in-chief. He, however, behaved with the greatest energy and intrepidity, not only as chief magistrate, but as actual head of the militia; and, for a long time, resisted the attacks of the whole British army, commanded by Sir Henry Clinton. By a vigorous exertion of authority in the impressment of flour on an important occasion, he preserved the army from dissolution. His conduct at the storming of forts Montgomery and Clinton, in October 1777, was particularly praiseworthy, and he was instrumental in crushing the insurrection under Shays, which took place in Massachusetts in 1787. Governor Clinton was unanimously chosen president of the convention which assembled at

Poughkeepsie, June 17, 1788, to deliberate on the new federal constitution.

After remaining five years in private life, he was elected a member of the state legislature, at a time when the country was in an agitated and critical condition, and it is affirmed that his influence was the principal cause of the great political revolution which took place in 1801. At that period he was also induced to accept again the station of governor, and, after continuing in that capacity for three years, he was elevated to the vice-presidency of the United States, a dignity which he retained until his demise at Washington, April 20, 1812. He married Cornelia Tappan, of Kingston, Ulster county, by whom he had one son and five daughters, of whom but two daughters are still living. The following anecdotes are related of his energy and decision:—At the conclusion of the revolutionary war, when violence against the Tories was the order of the day, a British officer was placed on a cart in the city of New York, to be tarred and feathered. This was the signal of violence and assassination. Governor Clinton at this moment rushed in among the mob with a drawn sword, and rescued the victim at the risk of his life. Some years afterwards, a furious assemblage of people collected, called the *doctors' mob*, and raged through New York with the intention of killing the physicians of that city, and pulling down their houses, on account of their having dug up bodies for dissection. The violence of the mob intimidated the local magistracy. Governor Clinton fortunately appeared in person, called out the militia, and restored peace to the city. He discharged the functions of vice-president with great dignity. It was by his casting vote, whilst in that station, that the renewal of the bank charter was negated. In private life he was kind and amiable, and warm in his friendships; as a public man he is entitled to respectful remembrance.

CLINTON, DE WITT, was born on the second of March, 1769, at Little Britain, in Orange county, America. He was of English origin. His father served with great distinction during the revolutionary war, and became a major-general in the army of the United States. He commenced reading law with the late honourable Samuel Jones, and, in due time, was admitted to the bar. But, before he was able to acquire any practice of importance, he was appointed private secretary to his uncle, George Clinton, and continued in that office until the end of his relative's administration, in 1785. In the interim, he had been chosen secretary to the board of regents of the university, and to the board of fortifications of New York. In 1797 Mr. Clinton was elected a member of the legislature of New York, at the time when the two great parties which have since divided the country were organized, and embraced the republican or democratic side. In 1800 he was chosen by the council of appointment, of which body he was a member, to support their cause in a controversy between them and Governor Jay.

In 1817 he was elected almost unanimously governor of the state, the two great parties having combined for the purpose of raising him to that dignity—so high was the general sense of his talents and services. This harmony continued until the distribution of offices, when, of course, discontent was excited, and at that time commenced a systematic opposition to his administration. He was re-



elected, however, in 1820, notwithstanding the great exertions of the opposite party. After his reelection, great resistance was made to his measures, but, fortunately, the canal scheme, of which Mr. Clinton was one of the prime movers and most efficient advocates, had been so firmly established that it was secure from attack. Having nothing to fear for his favourite object, he proceeded in his plans of public improvement, notwithstanding the violence with which he was assailed; but in 1822 he declined offering himself again as a candidate, and retired into private life.

In 1810 Mr. Clinton had been appointed by the senate of his state one of the board of canal commissioners, but the displeasure of his political opponents, who were at that time greatly predominant in the legislature, was excited by the enthusiasm evinced in his favour at the canal celebration, in October 1823, at Albany, and they deprived him of his office. This act, however, for which no reason could be assigned, occasioned a complete reaction of the public feeling towards him. His friends did not suffer the opportunity to escape, but again brought him forward as a candidate for the office of governor, and carried him, by a most triumphant majority, over Colonel Young. In 1826 he was again elected, by a large majority, over Judge Rochester; but he died before his term was completed. His decease was in consequence of a catarrhal affection of the throat and chest, which, being neglected, occasioned a fatal disease of the heart. He expired almost instantaneously, whilst sitting in his library, after dinner, February 11, 1828. His son was writing near him, and, on being informed by him of a sense of oppression and stricture across his breast, immediately called in medical aid, but, before the physician could arrive, his father was no more.

CLITUS, son of Dropis, and brother of Hellanice, the nurse of Alexander the Great. He was one of the generals of Philip and Alexander, and saved the life of the latter in the battle of Granicus, by cutting off the hand of Rhosaces, who had just lifted his arm to kill Alexander. Notwithstanding this service, however, Alexander slew him in a fit of intoxication, on account of some irritating words. After the act was performed, he was penetrated with the bitterest remorse.

CLIVE, CATHARINE, a celebrated comic actress, was the daughter of a gentleman named Raftod, and was born in the north of Ireland in 1711. When young, she was married to Mr. Richard Clive, a barrister, but the union was unfortunate, and, a separation taking place, she adopted the theatrical profession, in which she attained a distinguished rank. She filled and adorned a variety of comic parts; and, whether she exhibited the woman of good sense, of real fine breeding, the humorous, the fantastic, the affected, the rude, the awkward, or the ridiculous female, in any rank of society, she was sure to fascinate the audience, though her talents were peculiarly adapted to scenes of low life. Her lively playful humour is exemplified by the following theatrical anecdote:—She performed at Drury Lane Theatre under the management of Garrick. One night, while playing the lady in "Lethe," Mrs. Clive, in turning her head towards the stage-box, chanced to encounter the eye of Charles Townshend. That political wit pointed instantly to an old belle on his left, a very caricature of the ridiculous dame she was

portraying on the stage. The actress paused for a moment, and burst into laughter. The galleries caught the jest, and joined boisterously in the mirth, clapping loudly with their hands at the same time. Mrs. Clive at length retired from the stage, of which she had been long a distinguished ornament, and passed the latter part of her life at Little Strawberry Hill, near the Gothic villa of Horace Walpole, who, as well as many other persons of rank and eminence, courted her society, attracted by the wit and drollery with which she enlivened her domestic circle. Her death occurred in 1785.

CLIVE, ROBERT, Lord Clive and baron of Plassey, was born in 1725 in Shropshire. He was sent to several schools, but to little purpose, and was said, by all his masters, to be the most unlucky boy in their schools. His father obtained for him the place of a writer in the East India Company's service, and, in his nineteenth year, he went in that capacity to Madras. In 1747 he quitted the civil employment, and entered into the military service, for which nature had so peculiarly fitted him. During two years, public events gave him little opportunity to distinguish himself, but, when the English thought proper to engage as auxiliaries, in favour of a competitor to the reigning rajah of Tanjore, it was resolved to attack one of his forts named Devi Cotah, in which service Clive acted with great bravery, and was, soon after, appointed commissary to the British troops. About this time M. Dupleix, taking part with a candidate for the subahship of the Carnatic, succeeded in placing him on the throne, on condition of raising Chundasaheb to the nabobship of Arcot. By this proceeding, he gained a large grant of territory for the French, and the collection of all the revenues of that quarter of the Hindoo empire. The ostentation and insolence with which they afterwards conducted themselves roused the indignation of the English, a body of whom, under the command of Clive, made an attack upon the city of Arcot, the boldness of which measure caused it to succeed, and, after a most complete victory, he returned to Madras, and, in 1753, sailed to England for the recovery of his health. A diamond-hilted sword was voted to him by the East India Company, which he only accepted on condition that Colonel Laurence, who had similarly distinguished himself in the action, should receive a like present. He was also presented with the government of St. David's, with the right of succession to that of Madras, and a lieutenant-colonel's commission in the king's service.

After a successful attack on the pirate Angria, in conjunction with admirals Pocock and Watson, he repaired to St. David's, but was soon called to Madras, to command the succours sent to Bengal, where the nabob Surajah Dowlah had attacked the English, destroyed their factories, taken Calcutta, and suffocated several of his prisoners in the black-hole. Colonel Clive proceeded to Calcutta, and, driving out the enemy, took possession of the city, and, with a very inferior number of men, entered the nabob's camp, and seized his cannon, which alarmed him so much that he offered terms which were adjusted much to the advantage of the company. The state of things rendering it impossible for this peace to last long, Colonel Clive formed the project of de-throning the nabob, the execution of which was confided to Mr. Watts and himself, and one of the nabob's officers, named Meer Jaffer, joined them on

condition of succeeding to his master's dignity. A Gentoo merchant, named Omichund, was engaged to carry on the correspondence between Jaffier and the East India Company, but, demanding a high sum for his services, a double treaty was drawn up, in one of which his demand was inserted, and both were signed; and the first only shown to Omichund, who, trusting to the faith of the English, performed his part. The nabob, suspecting what was going forward, commanded Meer Jaffier to swear fidelity and join his army; and the famous battle of Plassey ensued, in which, by comparatively a small body of troops, the nabob and his army were put to flight, and the company's success decided. To the deep disgrace of Colonel Clive, on the affair being decided, Omichund was informed that "the red paper was a trick, and he was to have nothing." The disappointment drove him mad, and a year and a half after he died in a state of idiocy. It should also be noticed that the signature of Admiral Watson, who was too honest to sign the paper, was a forgery.

The new nabob, Meer Jaffier, who had come over at the close of the action, and had presented Clive with 210,000*l.*, now wished to govern without the interference of the company; but, three rebellions rising against him, he was obliged to solicit their aid, and Colonel Clive suppressed two, but made a compromise with the third competitor, who he thought would be a check upon the nabob's becoming too powerful. He was next appointed governor of Calcutta; and soon after a large force arrived at Bengal, on pretence of being sent to reinforce the garrisons belonging to the Dutch company. Suspecting that they were invited by the nabob, to destroy the English power, he attacked them both by sea and land, with great success, capturing all their forces, and drawing up a treaty, signed by the Dutch, who agreed to pay all expenses, on the restitution of their property. For these services, he was created, by the great Mogul, an omrah of the empire, and received a grant of a revenue, amounting to 28,000*l.* per annum, from Meer Jaffier. He then again returned to England, where his success was much applauded; and, in 1761, he was raised to the Irish peerage, by the title of *Lord Clive, baron of Plassey*. He had not, however, been long in this country before a disagreement took place between Meer Jaffier and Mr. Holwell, who then officiated as governor, which ended in transferring the nabobship from the former to his son-in-law Cossim-Ally-Khan; but, in consequence of the monopolies of the English traders, the new nabob declared the trade of the country free for all. It was, in consequence, resolved to depose him, and restore Meer Jaffier; and, after a temporary success, he was obliged to take refuge with the nabob of Oude. On the news of these commotions reaching England, the company appointed Lord Clive president of Bengal, with the command of the troops there; and in July, 1764, he returned to India, being first created a knight of the bath. Before his arrival, Major Adams had defeated the nabob of Oude, Sujah-ul-Dowlah, and obliged him to sue for peace; so that Lord Clive had only to settle terms of agreement with the country powers, which he did to the great advantage of the company, who acquired the disposal of all the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. In 1767 he finally returned to England, being the chief contributor to the immense possessions of the East India Company.

In 1773 a motion, supported by the minister, was made in the House of Commons, "that, in the acquisition of his wealth, Lord Clive had abused the powers with which he was entrusted." The charges brought forward in support of this motion had a very serious aspect, but, with the assistance of Mr. Wedderburne, he made such a defence that it was rejected, and a resolution passed, "that Lord Clive had rendered great and meritorious services to his country." From that time his broken health, and probably his injured peace of mind, rendered him a prey to the most gloomy depression of spirits, under the morbid influence of which he put an end to his life and sufferings, at the age of fifty, in November, 1774. A physiognomist would scarcely have been favourable to Lord Clive, who possessed a remarkably heavy brow, which gave a close and sullen expression to his features; and he was indeed of a reserved temper, and very silent; but nevertheless, among his intimate friends, could be lively and pleasant. He was always self-directed, and secret in his decisions, but inspired those under his command with the utmost confidence, owing to his great bravery and presence of mind. Lord Chatham characterized him as a "heaven-born general, who without experience, surpassed all the officers of his time." His talents, in fact, were as great as his political morality was disputable; and, as in the case of Warren Hastings, the services done to his country paralyzed the disposition to investigate too nicely into the character of them. He was member of parliament from 1760 to his death, but seldom spoke, though, when roused, he could display great eloquence. In private life he was kind and exceedingly liberal. He married the sister of the late astronomer-royal, Doctor Maskelyne, by whom he had two sons and three daughters.

CLOOTS, JOHN BAPTIST, a Prussian baron, better known, during the revolutionary scenes in France, under the appellation of Anacharsis Cloots. He was born at Cleves in 1755, and became possessed of a considerable fortune, which he partly dissipated through misconduct. The example of his uncle, Cornelius Pauw, who published several popular works, inspired him with a desire to become an author. He travelled in different parts of Europe, and formed an acquaintance with many eminent individuals, among whom was the celebrated Edmund Burke; but the politics of that statesman did not suit the irregular and ardent disposition of Cloots, to whom the French revolution at length opened a career which he thought worthy of his ambition. The first scene in which he distinguished himself was the ridiculous masquerade called the embassy of the human race, partly contrived by the duke de Liancourt.

On the 19th of June, 1790, Cloots presented himself at the bar of the national assembly, followed by a considerable number of the porters of the French metropolis, in foreign dresses, to represent the deputies of all nations. He described himself as the orator of the human race, and demanded the right of confederation, which was granted him. At the bar of the assembly, April 21, 1792, he made a strange speech, in which he recommended a declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, proposed that the assembly should form itself into a diet during a year, and finished by offering a patriotic gift of 12,000 *livres*. On the 12th of August he went to congratulate the legislative assembly on the



occurrences of the preceding 10th, and offered to raise a Prussian legion, to be called the Vandal legion. The 27th of the same month, he advised the assembly to set a price on the heads of the king of Prussia and the duke of Brunswick, praised the action of John J. Ankarström, the assassin of the king of Sweden, and, among other absurd expressions, he said, "My heart is French, and my soul is *sans-culotte*." He displayed no less hatred to Christianity than to royalty, declaring himself the "personal enemy of the Saviour." In September, 1792, he was nominated deputy from the department of the Oise to the national convention, in which he voted for the death of Louis XVI., "in the name of the human race." This madman, becoming an object of suspicion to Robespierre and his party, was arrested, and condemned to death, March 24, 1794. He suffered with several others, and, on his way to the guillotine, he discoursed to his companions on materialism and contempt of death. On the scaffold, he begged the executioner to decapitate him the last, that he might have an opportunity for making some observations essential to the establishment of certain principles while the heads of the others were falling.

**CLOTILDE DE VALLON CHALIS, MARGUERITE ELEONORE**—This celebrated lady was born at Vallon, a castle on the Ardeche, in Languedoc, in the year 1405. At the age of eleven, she translated a poem of Petrarch into verse. Fortunate circumstances, particularly her acquaintance with several distinguished female poets of her time, unfolded her poetical talents. In 1421 she married Berenger de Surville, a young knight, who was soon obliged to follow the dauphin, afterwards Charles VII., to Puy-en-Velay. On the occasion of this separation, she composed a beautiful poem, which takes the first rank amongst her works. After being married seven years, she lost her husband, who fell before the city of Orleans. After this she occupied her time with the education of young females possessed of poetical talent. Amongst these were Sophie de Lyonna and Juliette de Vivarez. She accidentally became acquainted with Margaret of Scotland, wife of the dauphin Louis, who, in consequence of a poem which she composed in praise of Duke Philip the Good, Margaret sent her a crown of artificial laurel, with silver leaves, and interwoven with twelve golden flowers; but Clotilde would not listen to the pressing invitations which she received to appear at court. In 1495 she commemorated, in a poem, the triumphs of Charles VIII. Her poems, which are distinguished for delicacy and grace, appear to have been lost, when one of her descendants, Joseph Etienne de Surville (who in 1798 was shot as a secretly returned emigrant), a man himself possessed of a talent for poetry, on searching the archives of his family, discovered, in 1782, the hand-writing of Clotilde. With difficulty he deciphered the writing, studied the language, and soon found his pains richly rewarded. The genuineness of these poems is not to be doubted, although it is apparent that, in some instances, M. de Surville has ventured to make alterations.

**CLOVIS**, king of the Franks. This celebrated monarch was born in 465, and succeeded his father, Childeric, in 481, as chief of the warlike tribe of Salian Franks, who inhabited a barren country between the sea and the Scheldt. This tribe, at a former period,

had made incursions into the neighbouring territories, but were driven back into their forests and morasses. Clovis, therefore, united with Ragnacaire, king of Cambrai, and declared war upon Syagrius the son of Aëtius, the Roman governor at Soissons. The Romans were entirely routed near Soissons in 486. Syagrius fled to Toulouse, to the court of Alaric, king of the Goths, whose cowardly counsellors delivered him up to Clovis, by whom he was put to death. Soissons now became the capital of the new kingdom of the Salian Franks. Clovis governed his new subjects with wisdom and moderation, and was particularly desirous to obtain the good-will of the clergy. In order to obtain assistance in withstanding the powerful Visigoths in Gaul, Clovis married Clotilda, niece of Gundebald, king of Burgundy. And this princess, who had been educated in the Catholic faith, was desirous that her husband, also, should embrace it. Her efforts were fruitless, till on an occasion when he was hard pressed in a battle against the Allemanni, near Zülpich, Clovis called on the God of Clotilda and the Christians. Victory declared in his favour; and the part of the territory of the Allemanni lying on the Upper Rhine submitted to the king of the Franks. The victor's conversion was now an easy matter for the eloquent St. Remigius, archbishop of Rheims. And Clovis was solemnly baptized at Rheims, December 25, 496, with several thousand Franks, men and women. The cities of Armorica (Bretagne) then submitted to his sceptre, and there then remained in Gaul only two independent powers besides the Franks, namely, the Burgundians and Visigoths. The former had two kings, Godegisele and Gundebald. Clovis made an attack upon the latter, whose territories extended from the Vosges to the Alps and the sea-coast of Marseilles. Gundebald, deserted by the faithless Godegisele, was routed near Dijon, compelled to surrender Lyons and Vienne to the victorious Clovis, and to flee to Avignon, where he concluded a peace. Clovis returned home loaded with spoils. Gundebald afterwards violated the treaty; but Clovis, fearing the Goths, entered into a new alliance with him.

Hostilities soon broke out between Alaric, king of the Goths, and Clovis. And in a well-fought battle near Poitiers, between the rivers Vonne and Clouère, the latter gained a complete victory, slaying his enemy with his own hand, and conquered Aquitania. After this conquest, Clovis received the honour of the consulship from the emperor Anastasius. The king of the Franks, having his head adorned with a diadem, appeared in the church of St. Martin of Tours, clad in the tunic and purple robe, and was saluted by the people as consul and Augustus. This monarch, who tarnished his glory by many acts of cruelty, died in 511, after having reigned thirty years. His four sons divided his dominions between them. In the last year of his reign, Clovis had called a council at Orleans, from which are dated the peculiar privileges claimed by the kings of France in opposition to the pope.

**CLUTTERBUCK, ROBERT**, a celebrated antiquary and topographer, who was born in 1772. He was educated at Harrow School and afterwards removed to the university of Oxford. After his marriage he resided at the seat of his father-in-law in Glamorganshire for many years, but eventually removed to his family-seat at Watford and became magistrate for the county of Herts. During his in-

tervals of leisure he collected materials for a new edition of "Chauncy's History of Hertfordshire." He subsequently altered his intention and prepared an entirely new history of his native county, the first volume of which appeared in 1816, the second in 1821, and the third in 1827. The plates which illustrate this work have seldom been surpassed by any similar publication. Mr. Clutterbuck died at his seat near Watford on the 25th of May 1831.

**CHEVERIUS, PHILIP**, a scholar of considerable eminence, who was born at the city of Dantzic and was sent by his father to Leyden for his education, where he devoted himself to the study of geography. He afterwards entered the imperial army and served for two years in the wars of Bohemia and Hungary. He afterwards settled at Leyden, where he died in 1623, aged forty-three. His principal works are "Germania Antiqua," and "Italia Antiqua."

**COBBETT, WILLIAM**.—This celebrated political writer was born in 1766 in the county of Surrey. He was the son of a small farmer, from whom he received the rudiments of his education. In 1783 he left the plough for London, where he became "an under-strapping quill-driver," as he calls himself, to an attorney in Gray's Inn. This employment not suiting his restless disposition, he enlisted as a common soldier in 1784, and remained in England a year, spending his leisure hours in reading and study, particularly in the study of grammar. He wrote out the whole of Lowth's grammar two or three times, got it by heart, and repeated it every morning and evening. He then sailed to join his regiment in America, and remained there, in Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, till 1791, when the regiment was relieved and sent home. Serjeant-major Cobbett here left the service, and terminated his military career.



In 1792 he first visited the United States of America, after a short visit to France. He began his ca-

reer in Philadelphia, as a writer of political pamphlets, under the well-known name of Peter Porcupine; soon after engaged in the business of a bookseller in that city, and published, at the same time, a daily newspaper, called "The Porcupine." The French interest, which then prevailed in the United States, he opposed with great violence, mingling the coarsest personal abuse with the severest political invective. Having been convicted for a libel on Doctor Rush, he left the country, and returned to England in 1800. Here he published the works of Peter Porcupine, containing a faithful picture of the United States, &c., consisting of selections from "The Porcupine," with remarks illustrating them, and of his other personal and political writings, previously published in America. This work was dedicated "to a declared enemy of republicans and levellers." In it, Doctor Priestley, Doctor Rush, Doctor Franklin, &c., were unsparingly abused. He soon after established the "Weekly Political Register," a work conducted with considerable talent, but great bitterness. In 1810 he was convicted of a libel with intention to excite a mutiny, and condemned to confinement in Newgate, and to pay a fine of 1000*l*. Although the fine was paid by a subscription among his friends, he addressed a letter to the king in 1828, praying his majesty to restore him the sum.

In 1815 Cobbett became the champion of Napoleon, whom he had previously assailed with the utmost vehemence. In 1817 he again visited America; but we soon after find him in London, where, in 1819, he published his "Year's Residence in America."

Mr. Cobbett died in 1835, and arrangements are making for the erection of a monument to perpetuate his memory. A contemporary writer furnishes the following masterly sketch of his character as a party-writer. "There is one great merit in Mr. Cobbett—and one only—which is perhaps peculiar to him among the party-writers of the day. There is not a page of his that has ever come under our notice wherein there does not breathe throughout, amid all his absurdities of violence and inconsistency, the strongest feeling for the welfare of the people. The feeling is in nine cases in ten totally misdirected; but there it is, a living and vigorous sympathy with the interests and hopes of the mass of mankind. Many persons will be ready to maintain, because he has shown himself at various times as not very scrupulous for truth, that he has no real and sincere good quality whatsoever, and that he merely writes what is calculated to be popular. But we confess we are inclined to think, from the tone and spirit of his works, that he commonly persuades himself he believes what he is saying, and feels deeply at the moment what he expresses strongly. It is obvious to us that, while he puts forth against his opponents the most unmeasured malignity, there is a true and hearty kindness in all that he writes about, or to, the people. He seems to us to speak of the poorer classes as if he still felt about him the atmosphere of the cottage,—not as if he were robed in ermine or lawn, or in the sable gown of a professor,—but in the smock-frock of the peasant. And it would be useful, therefore, to peers and bishops, parliamentary orators and university dogmatists, if they would now and then read the books they always rail at. They would find in them a portrait thrilling with all the pulses of animation, with the thoughts



and desires of a class, the largest and therefore the most important in society, among whom that which is universal and eternal in our nature displays itself under a totally different aspect from that which it wears among us. Mr. Cobbett's personal consciousness of all which is concealed from our eyes by gray jackets and clouted shoes, has kept alive his sympathy with the majority of mankind; and this is indeed a merit which can be attributed to but few political writers. And, far more than this, it is a merit which belongs to no one we remember but himself and Burns, among all the persons that have raised themselves from the lowest condition of life into eminence. Take, for an instance, the late Mr. Gifford, and see with what persevering dislike he opposed the interests and hopes of the portion of society to which he himself originally belonged. He seems to have felt the necessity of vindicating his new position by contempt for his former associates, to have proved the sincerity of his apostasy from plebeianism by tenfold hostility to all but the aristocracy, and to have made use of his elevation only to trample upon those with whom he was formerly on a level. Now we do not think that Mr. Cobbett has taken the right way to advance the well-being of the people; but we certainly do believe, and we think that but for prepossession every body would incline to think, from the character of his writings, that he does really and earnestly desire to promote the happiness of the labouring classes."

**COCHRANE, ARCHIBALD**, earl of Dundonald.—This nobleman was born on the 1st of January 1749. In 1764 he obtained a cornet's commission in a regiment of dragoons, but he soon changed into the navy, in which he had risen to the rank of lieutenant when his father died, and he succeeded to the earldom of Dundonald. He then determined to devote himself entirely to scientific pursuits, principally with the intention of making improvements in the commerce and manufactures of the country. In the prosecution of these objects he engaged in a variety of schemes, some of which were beneficial to the public, but it does not appear that any of them were ultimately advantageous to the projector.

He died in 1831, and was succeeded in the title by his son the celebrated Lord Cochrane.

**COCKER, EDWARD**, an arithmetician who was born in 1631. His principal work is entitled, "Vulgar Arithmetic," which was not published until after his death, which took place in 1677. This work went through forty editions. He was also author of a work on Decimal Arithmetic, which was not so successful.

**COCCEII, HENRY**, born in 1644, at Bremen. He was, in 1672, made professor of law at Heidelberg, and in 1690 regular professor of laws at Frankfurt on the Oder; he repaired to the Hague in 1702, without giving up his office, on occasion of the disputes as to the hereditary succession of the house of Orange; received for his services, in 1713, the rank of baron of the empire, and as a lawyer he was the oracle of many courts, and his system of German public law was almost a universal academical textbook of this science. Cocceii did not owe his profound juridical learning so much to skilful teachers, for he had only heard lectures on the institutes, but to his great industry, which he carried to such an extent that he allowed but a few hours each night

to sleep, lived with the utmost temperance, and even abstained several years from taking dinner. He was mild, obliging, and of an exemplary honesty and disinterestedness. He died in 1719.

**COCLES, PUBLIUS HORATIUS**.—This distinguished Roman was descended from one of the three Horatii. When Rome was besieged by Porsena, king of the Etruscans, the Romans were driven from the Janiculum and pursued over the wooden bridge across the Tiber, which joined that suburb to the city. Three brave Romans sustained the attack of the Etruscans on the bridge, while the rest got safe over, but at length two retired, leaving Cocles alone. He maintained his post for a considerable time, and at length when the bridge was destroyed swam across the Tiber in his armour.

**COCHIN, CHARLES NICOLAS**, an engraver, born in Paris in 1688. He practised painting till his twenty-third year which was of considerable advantage to him in the art of engraving, to which he afterwards devoted himself. In 1731 he became a member of the Academy of Paris, and died in 1754. His son, of the same name, devoted himself to etching rather than to engraving. His productions are superior to those of his father. The collection of his works contains more than 1500 pieces, among which there are 112 likenesses, in the form of medals, of the most distinguished French scholars and artists of his time, who were almost all his friends. We have, besides his essays in the "Memoirs of the Academy," several printed works of his, which contain interesting observations on different subjects of art, for instance, on Herculaneum. His frontispieces and vignettes are remarkable for neatness and taste: indeed his compositions in general are rich, delicate and pleasing.

**COGAN, THOMAS**, a clever physician and writer, who was born at Rowall in Northamptonshire. On completing his studies he became minister of a congregation at Amsterdam, but having married a lady of fortune he resigned his situation and went to Leyden to study medicine, in which faculty he took his doctor's degree in 1767. He afterwards returned to London, where he was connected with Doctor Hawes in the foundation of the Royal Humane Society. Doctor Cogan died in 1818, when he was in the eighty-second year of his age. His principal work is entitled a "Philosophical Treatise on the Passions."

**COKE, SIR EDWARD**.—This eminent English lawyer was the son of Robert Coke, esquire, of Norfolk, and was born in 1550. He received his early education at the free-school of Norwich, whence he was removed to Trinity College, Cambridge. From the university he came to London, and entered the Inner Temple. He pleaded his first cause in 1578, and was appointed reader of Lyon's Inn, where his lectures were much frequented. His reputation and practice rapidly increased, and he was placed in a situation of great respectability and affluence by a marriage with a co-heiress of the Paston family. He was chosen recorder of the cities of Norwich and of Coventry, was engaged in all the great causes at Westminster Hall, and, in the thirty-fifth year of Elizabeth, chosen knight of the shire for his county, and speaker of the house of commons. In 1592 he became solicitor-general, and soon after attorney-general; and the death of his wife, who brought him ten children, gave him another opportunity of increasing his influence, by a marriage with Lady Hatton, sister to the minister Burleigh. He acted the

usual part of a crown lawyer in all state prosecutions ; and one of the most important that fell under his management as attorney-general was that of the unfortunate earl of Essex, which he conducted with great asperity. Soon after the accession of James I., he was knighted. The celebrated trial of Sir Walter Raleigh followed, in which Coke displayed a degree of arrogance to the court, and of rancour towards the prisoner, which was universally condemned at the time, and has been deemed one of the greatest stains upon his character by all posterity. On the discovery of the gunpowder plot, he obtained great credit by the clearness and sagacity with which he stated the evidence ; and in 1606 he became chief justice of the Common Pleas.



In 1613 he succeeded to the important office of chief justice of the Court of King's Bench, but was in much less favour with James than his rival, Lord Bacon. He was, in fact, too wary and stanch a lawyer to commit himself on the subject of prerogative ; and as his temper was rough, and his attachment to law truly professional, he could scarcely forbear involving himself with a court so notorious for arbitrary principles as was the English during the reign of James. The honourable zeal which he displayed in the execrable affair of Sir Thomas Overbury, and in the prosecution of the king's wretched minions, Somerset and his countess, for that atrocious murder, made him enemies ; and advantage was taken of a dispute, in which he erroneously engaged with the Court of Chancery, to remove him in 1616 both from the council and his post of chief justice. His real offence, however, was a refusal to favour the new favourite Villiers in some pecuniary matter. Coke, however, made up this breach by marrying his youngest daughter, with a large fortune, to the elder brother of Villiers, and was, in consequence, reinstated in the council in 1617. and actively engaged in prosecutions for corruption in office, and other crimes of a nature to recruit an exhausted treasury by the infliction of exorbitant fines. He, however, supported the privileges of the commons with great tenacity, for which, after the prorogation of parliament, in 1621 he was committed to the Tower. He was, however, quickly liberated ; but

was again expelled the privy council, with peculiar marks of displeasure on the part of James. On the accession of Charles I., he was nominated sheriff of Buckinghamshire, in order to prevent his being chosen member for the county, which, however, he represented in the parliament which met in 1628.

The remainder of his career was highly popular ; he greatly distinguished himself by his speeches for redress of grievances, vindicated the right of the commons to proceed against any individual, however exalted, openly named Buckingham as the cause of the misfortunes of the kingdom, and, finally, sealed his services to the popular part of the constitution by proposing and framing the celebrated "Petition of Rights," the most explicit declaration of English liberty which had then appeared. This was the last of his public acts. The dissolution of parliament, which soon followed, sent him into retirement at Stoke Pogis, in Buckinghamshire, where he spent the remainder of his life in tranquillity. He died in September, 1635, in the eighty-fifth year of his age, leaving behind him a numerous posterity and a large fortune. Sir Edward Coke was a great lawyer, but a great lawyer only. In mere legal learning he has perhaps never been excelled ; but he was essentially defective in the merits of systematic arrangement and regard to general principles, without which law is a mere collection of arbitrary rules, undeserving the name of a science. It must be admitted, however, that his writings, and especially his "Commentary on Littleton's Treatise on Tenures," form a vast repository of legal erudition. In short, he was a man of immense professional research, and great sagacity and perseverance in a chosen pursuit ; and, as usual, more philosophical and general powers were sacrificed to its exclusiveness.

COKE, THOMAS, a missionary, who was born in 1747, at Brecon, in South Wales. In 1775 he took his degree of LL. D. at Oxford, and soon after became acquainted with the celebrated John Wesley, who soon converted him to his own opinions, and, in 1780, appointed him to superintend the London district : he also made him one of the trustees, on his execution of the deed of declaration as to all his chapels. In 1784 Wesley is said to have consecrated him as a bishop, for the purpose of superintending the Methodist societies in America. The doctor now, therefore, made several voyages to the United States and the West Indies, establishing meeting-houses, organizing congregations, and ordaining ministers. He subsequently returned to England, where he had some misunderstanding with Mr. Wesley, who, as the founder of a sect, expected more submission than Doctor Coke was inclined to bestow. He accordingly determined on visiting Nova Scotia ; but, in consequence of a storm, the ship in which he embarked took refuge in the harbour of Antigua, which led him to preach there, and to visit several other islands ; and he examined the state of religion generally, both in the West Indies and America, before he again returned to England. He made altogether nine voyages to that quarter of the globe on the same business, and met with great success as a missionary. He was the author of a "Commentary on the Bible," undertaken at the request of the Methodists, "A History of the West Indies," and several other works, among which was a "Life of Wesley," written in conjunction with Henry More. In 1814 he sailed for the East Indies,



but died on the voyage. He was of a zealous, but also of an amiable character.

COLBERT, JEAN BAPTISTE, a celebrated French minister of finances, who was born in 1619, at Rheims. He was the son of a draper and wine-merchant, and entered, in 1648, the service of Le Tellier, secretary of state, by whom he was made known to Cardinal Mazarin, who discovered his talents, and made him his intendant, and availed himself of his assistance in the financial administration of the kingdom. Mazarin rewarded him in 1654 with the office of secretary to the queen, and recommended him, at his death, to the king. Louis XIV. made Colbert intendant of the finances. Colbert and Le Tellier now joined to effect the fall of Fouquet, for which purpose they had united, the former from ambition, the latter from envy. After effecting this object, Colbert, with the title of a *contrôleur-général*, assumed the direction of the finances. He had a laborious task to remedy the evils which the feeble and stormy reign of Louis XIII., the splendid but arbitrary measures of Richelieu, the troubles of the Fronde, and the confused state of the finances under Mazarin, had occasioned. He found fraud, disorder, and corruption prevailing every where. The royal domains were alienated. Burdens, privileges, and exemptions were multiplied without measure; the state was the prey of the farmers-general, and, at the same time, maintained only by their aid. The people were obliged to pay 90,000,000 of taxes, of which the king received scarcely 35,000,000; the revenues were anticipated for two years, and the treasury empty. Colbert had to proceed from the same point as Sully; but the jealous and impetuous Louvois, the wars, the luxury and the prodigality of Louis XIV., increased his difficulties, and he was forced, in the latter half of his career, to retrace the steps which he had taken in the former. He began with establishing a council of finances and a chamber of justice, the first that he might have an oversight of the whole, the other that he might watch the embezzlements of the farmers-general and liquidate the debts of the state. For the purpose of alleviating the public burdens, he endeavoured to lower the interest of the public debt; and, in order to mitigate the odium of this measure, he consented to a considerable diminution of the taxes, and to the remission of all arrears up to 1656. He abolished many useless offices, retracted burdensome privileges, diminished salaries, put a stop to the infamous trade in offices, and the no less injurious custom of making the courtiers interested, as farmers-general, in the produce of the public revenue; he exposed the arts and abuses, and limited the immense gain, of the collectors, established a loan-bank, diminished the interest of money, re-established the king in the possession of his domains, and appropriated suitable funds for each expenditure. A better distribution and collection of the taxes enabled him to reduce them almost one half. The happiest success crowned his wise and courageously-executed measures. Notwithstanding the expenses of nearly ten years' war, notwithstanding the prodigality of a luxurious king, Colbert succeeded, in twenty-two years, in adding to the revenues more than 28,000,000, and making an equal diminution in the public burdens; and at his death, in 1683, the revenue actually received amounted to 116,000,000.

In 1664 Colbert was superintendent of buildings, of arts and manufactures, and, in 1669, minister of

the marine. To his talents, activity, and enlarged views, France owes the universal development and the rapid progress of her industry and commerce. France was not only freed from the taxes which its luxury had hitherto paid to foreign countries, but it partook also of the advantages of that industry which had previously distinguished England, Holland, Venice, Genoa, the Levant, and some cities of Flanders and Germany. Manufactures were established and flourished; the public roads were improved, and new roads laid out. Colbert built the canal of Languedoc, formed the plan of that of Burgundy, declared Marseilles and Dunkirk free ports, granted premiums on goods exported and imported, regulated the tolls, established insurance offices, made uniform laws for the regulation of commerce, laboured to render the pursuit of it honourable, and invited the nobility to engage in it. In 1664 two commercial companies were instituted to trade with the East and West Indies, to which the king advanced considerable sums. The colonies in Canada, Martinique, and particularly in St. Domingo, received new life from their union with the crown, and began to flourish. New colonies were established in Cayenne and Madagascar. For the purpose of maintaining these distant possessions a considerable naval force was required. Colbert created this also. When he entered the ministry of the marine, the navy consisted of a few old vessels, which Mazarin had permitted to rot in the harbours. Colbert at first purchased vessels in foreign countries, but soon had them built in France. The ports of Brest, Toulon, and Rochefort were repaired; those of Dunkirk and Havre were fortified. Naval schools were established, and order was introduced into all branches of the marine.

By the advice of Colbert, Louis XIV. caused the civil and criminal legislation to be improved, and the arts and sciences encouraged. Under the protection and in the house of the minister, the Academy of Inscriptions was founded. Three years afterwards, he founded the Academy of Sciences, and, in 1671, the Academy of Architecture. The Academy of Painting received a new organization. The French Academy in Rome was established. He enlarged the Royal Library, and the Garden of Plants, and built an Observatory in which he employed Huygens and Cassini. He began the mensurations of the meridian in France, and sent men of science to Cayenne. Paris was indebted to him for numerous embellishments, and many learned men in Europe received his patronage.

But, notwithstanding all this, many objections have been made to this great minister. The most important is that he promoted manufactures at the expense of agriculture, and left the peasantry without resources. With more justice he is charged with having introduced an excess of minute and vexatious regulations into all branches of the administration. But Colbert must be judged with regard to the circumstances under which he acted. He did all that was possible; not every thing he wished. He had not such an influence on the undertakings, resolutions, and inclinations of his prince as was enjoyed by Sully. Sully gave the law to his master; Colbert received it from his. The former might be called the minister of the nation; the latter only of the king. Henry IV. and Louis XIV. had both great aims; but the one for France, the other for

himself; and this difference produced the most important results in their administration. Sully, ever independent and sure of approbation, enriched the state by a wise economy, which was promoted by Henry, who considered the people as his family: Colbert, always dependent and thwarted in his plans, maintained the state notwithstanding the prodigality of the king, and rendered it flourishing notwithstanding the burdens of numerous armies and expensive wars. He was forced to have recourse to measures which he desired to see abolished for ever; and he predicted to the president, who recommended a loan, "You open a wound which our grandchildren will not see healed." As soon as peace permitted him to breathe more freely, he returned to his own principles, and corrected the consequences of measures which he had adopted against his own will so rapidly that the end of his administration was the most splendid epoch of the reign of Louis XIV. Colbert was ambitious, but honest; and, living in a continual struggle with intrigue and jealousy, enjoyed no tranquillity. He died in 1683, at the age of sixty-four years, exhausted by incessant labour, worn out with anxiety and grief, remedying, with difficulty, the present embarrassments, and looking with apprehension to the future. The people of Paris, embittered by new taxes on provisions, disturbed his funeral, and threatened violence to his remains; but the misfortunes which soon afterwards afflicted the state opened the eyes of his enemies, and obliged them to respect the memory of him whom they had unjustly persecuted.

**COLDEN, CADWALLADER**, was the son of the reverend Alexander Colden, of Dunse, in Scotland, and was born February 17, 1688. After studying at the University of Edinburgh, he devoted himself to medicine and mathematics, in which he made great proficiency. In 1708 he emigrated to Pennsylvania, and practised physic for some years, when he returned to this country, and there acquired considerable reputation by a work on "Animal Secretions." From London he went to Scotland, and repaired again to America in 1716. He settled a second time in Pennsylvania, but, in 1718, removed to New York. After a residence of a year in that city, he was appointed the first surveyor-general of the lands of the colony, and, at the same time, master in chancery. In 1720 he obtained a seat in the king's council, under Governor Burnet. For some time previous to this he had resided on a tract of land about nine miles from Newburgh, on Hudson River, for which he had received a patent, where he was exposed, at every moment, to the attacks of the Indians, the tract being situated on the frontier. In 1761 he was chosen lieutenant-governor of New York, and occupied this station during the remainder of his life, being placed repeatedly at the head of affairs by the absence or death of several governors. During one of those periods, the paper intended to be distributed in New York, under the British stamp-act, arrived, and was put under his care, in the fortification called *Fort George*. The people assembled in multitudes, under several leaders, and determined to cause the paper to be delivered up and destroyed. But, though the fort was declared untenable by the engineers, and the people threatened to massacre him, Colden defended his trust, and finally succeeded in securing it on board of a British man-of-war then lying in the port. The populace burned him in

effigy, and destroyed his carriage, in his sight. After the return of Governor Tyrone, in 1775, he retired to a seat on Long Island, where he died, September, 1776, in the eighty-ninth year of his age, a few hours before nearly one-fourth part of the city of New York was reduced to ashes.—Mr. Colden's productions were numerous, consisting of botanical and medical essays. Among them is a treatise showing the causes, and pointing out the remedies, of the yellow fever, which, about the year 1743, desolated New York. He also wrote an account of the "Prevalent Diseases of the Climate," and a "History of the Five Indian Nations." But the work which cost him most time and labour was one published, at first, under the title of the "Cause of Gravitation," but which, being afterwards much enlarged, appeared in 1751, with the title of the "Principles of Action in Matter," to which is annexed a "Treatise on Fluxions."

**COLE, WILLIAM**.—This celebrated individual was born in Cambridgeshire in 1714, and received his education at Eton, where he obtained his degree of M.A. He was presented to several livings, all of which he resigned in a short period of time. He finally settled at Milton, near Cambridge, where he died in 1782. Mr. Cole left a voluminous collection of MSS., which he bequeathed to the British Museum.

**COLERIDGE, SAMUEL TAYLOR**.—This highly-gifted poet was a native of Devonshire. He was born on the 20th of October, 1772, at St. Mary Ottery, where his father, the Rev. John Coleridge, was for many years vicar. When but ten years old young Coleridge was placed in Christ's Hospital, London, and soon distinguished himself as a boy of promising talents, but eccentric habits. He remained at Christ's Hospital till he was nineteen, having outstripped all his school-fellows, and become head Grecian or captain of the school, which entitled him to an exhibition to the university; and on the 7th of September, 1791, he removed from London to Jesus College, Cambridge. He remained at college until October, 1794, when he quitted it for ever without cause assigned and without taking his degree. Many causes have been suggested with reference to this act, but the true one appears to have been pecuniary difficulties, and a heavy disappointment in love. These combined induced him to proceed to London with a party of collegians, where he shortly after enlisted in the 15th Dragoons, but was soon discharged from respect to his friends and previous station in life. In 1794 Coleridge published a volume of poems, which were highly praised by the critics of the day. Shortly after he delivered a course of lectures at Bristol on the French Revolution, which were well received and highly applauded; and about the same time he wrote a drama, in conjunction with Southey, entitled the "Fall of Robespierre." In 1795 Coleridge married and settled at Nether Stowey, where he first became acquainted with Wordsworth. During his residence at Stowey, he preached every Sunday at the Unitarian Chapel at Taunton; and it was during this period that he first became acquainted with Hazlett. The annuity granted to Coleridge by his friends Josiah and Thomas Wedgewood enabled him in the autumn of 1798 to visit Germany, where he remained till 1800, when he went to reside at Keswick in Cumberland, his friends, Southey and Wordsworth, having previously settled



there. The next step of importance in the life of Coleridge was to undertake the political and literary department of the "Morning Post," a task which employed many years of his life. In 1808 he delivered at the Royal Institution a course of lectures on poetry and the fine arts, for which he received 100 guineas. His next undertaking was a periodical called the "Friend," but it stopped at the twenty-eighth number. In 1816 he published "Christabel," in addition to which he also produced several other works in the three following years. In 1825 appeared his celebrated work, entitled "Aids to Reflection, in the Formation of a Manly Character, on the several grounds of Prudence, Morality, and Religion; illustrated by select Passages from the older Divines, especially from Archbishop Leighton." In 1830 appeared his work "On the Constitution of the Church and State according to the Idea of each, with Aids towards a Right Judgment on the late Catholic Bill." He was also the author of the "Biographia Literaria." Besides these and several other works of great merit, which have been for some years before the public, Coleridge left at his death several valuable MSS. ready for the press.

The "Ancient Mariner" is one of Coleridge's most celebrated poems, and the style is so peculiar and forcible that we cannot do better than furnish a specimen:—

"The western wave was all in a flame,  
The day was well nigh done!  
Almost upon the western wave  
Rested the broad bright sun;  
When that strange shape drove suddenly  
Betwixt us and the sun.

And straight the sun was flecked with bars  
(Heaven's mother send us grace!)  
As if through a dungeon's grate he peered,  
With broad and burning face.

Alas! (thought I, and my heart beat loud)  
How fast she neres and neres!  
Are those *her* sails that glance in the sun  
Like restless gossameres?

Are those *her* ribs, through which the sun  
Did peer, as through a grate?  
And are those two all, all *her* crew,  
That woman, and *her* mate?

His bones were black with many a crack,  
All black and bare, I ween;  
Jet black and bare, save where with rust  
Of mouldy damps and charnel crust.  
They were patched with purple and green.

*Her* lips were red, *her* looks were free,  
*Her* locks were yellow as gold;  
*Her* skin was as white as leprosy,  
And she was far liker death than he;  
*Her* flesh made the still air cold.

Alone, alone, all all alone,  
Alone on the wide wide sea,  
And Christ would take no pity on  
My soul in agony.

The many men so beautiful  
And they all dead did lie!  
And a million million slimy things  
Lived on—and so did I."

For the last nineteen years of his life he lived with his kind friends Mr. and Mrs. Gillman, of Highgate Grove, occasionally lecturing at various public institutions, and now and then writing a poem, formed his principal employment. For many years previous to his death, which took place rather suddenly, he had been afflicted with great bodily weakness and pain till a few days before his death, when his pains became constant and extreme, but they did not disturb the tranquillity of his mind or the kind-

ness of his temper, and he quietly breathed his last on the morning of the 25th of July, 1834. Shortly before his death he composed the following epitaph to himself:—

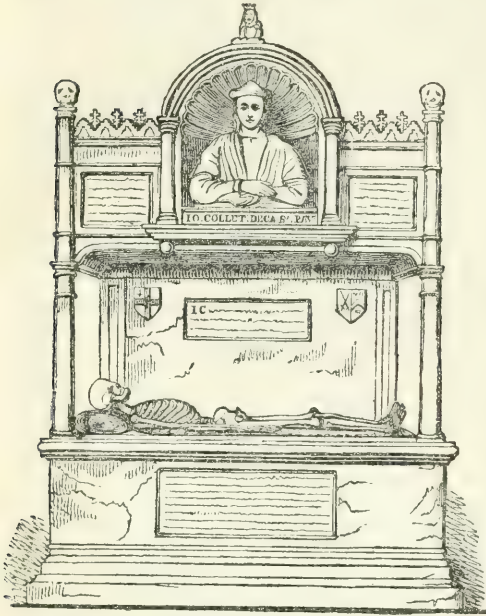
"Stop, Christian passer-by; stop, child of God,  
And read, with gentle breast. Beneath this sod  
A poet lies, or that which once seemed he—  
O, lift a prayer in thought for S. T. C!  
That he who many a year with toil of breath,  
Found death in life, may here find life in death!  
Mercy for praise—to be forgiven, for fame  
He asked, and hoped through Christ. Do thou the same.

He was interred in the new church at Highgate, and a handsome marble tablet has been erected to his memory in that church.

COLET, DR. JOHN.—This eminent divine is well known as the founder of St. Paul's School. He was born in 1466, and in 1483 was sent to Magdalene College, Oxford. After receiving several valuable benefices he was made a prebendary of York, and canon of St. Martin's Le Grand, London.

He read public lectures on St. Paul's epistles at Oxford, without stipend or reward, which, being a new thing, drew a vast crowd of hearers, who admired him greatly. And here he strengthened his memorable friendship with Erasmus, who came to Oxford in 1497, which remained unshaken and inviolable to the day of their deaths. He continued these lectures three years; and in 1501 was admitted to proceed in divinity, or to the reading of the sentences. In 1502 he became prebendary of Durnesford in the church of Sarum. In May, 1505, he was instituted to the prebend of Mora in St. Paul's, London. The same year and month he was made dean of that church, without the least application of his own; and being raised to this high station he began to reform the decayed discipline of his cathedral. He introduced a new practice of preaching himself upon Sundays and great festivals, and called to his assistance other learned persons, such as Grocyn, and Sowle, whom he appointed to read divinity-lectures. These lectures raised in the nation a spirit of enquiry after the holy scriptures, which had long been laid aside for the school divinity, and eventually prepared for the reformation, which soon after ensued. Colet was unquestionably in some measure instrumental towards it, though he did not live to see it effected; for he expressed a great contempt of religious houses, exposed the abuses that prevailed in them, and set forth the danger of imposing celibacy on the clergy. This way of thinking, together with his free and public manner of communicating his thoughts, which were then looked upon as impious and heretical, made him obnoxious to the clergy, and exposed him to persecution from the bishop of London, Dr. Fitz-james; who, being a rigid bigot, could not bear to have the corruptions in his church spoken against, and therefore accused him to Archbishop Warham as a dangerous man, preferring at the same time some articles against him. But Warham, well knowing the worth and integrity of Colet, dismissed him without giving him the trouble of putting in any formal answer. The bishop, however, not satisfied with that fruitless attempt, endeavoured afterwards to stir up the king and the court against him; indeed, we are told in Bishop Latimer's sermons that he was not only in trouble, "but would have been burnt, if God had not turned the king's heart to the contrary."

Disgusted with the world, he now determined to retire from all his public duties, and to devote the whole of his vast fortune to the foundation of a large school. This was effected in 1512, and he appointed William Lily the first master. Dr. Colet died in 1519, and was buried in St. Paul's choir. The accompanying monument was erected to his memory by the Company of Mercers, but it was destroyed by the great fire of London.



**COLIGNY, GASPARD DE.**—This distinguished French admiral was born in 1516 at Chatillon-sur-Loin, and distinguished himself under Francis I., in the battle of Cerisoles, and under Henry II., who made him colonel-general of the French infantry, and, in 1552, admiral of France. He was distinguished for valour in battle, for strict discipline, and for his conquests over the Spaniards, in particular for his defence of St. Quentin. When St. Quentin was taken by storm, the admiral was made prisoner. After the death of Henry II. the intrigues of Catharine de Medici induced him to place himself at the head of the Calvinists against the Guises, and he formed so powerful a party that the Catholic religion in France seemed to be in danger. Condé was more ambitious, enterprising, active, Coligny more considerate, prudent, and more fit to be the leader of a party, equally unfortunate in war with Condé, but skilled in remedying even what appeared irretrievable losses, and more to be feared after a defeat than his enemies after a victory. He was, besides, endowed with great virtues, which he practised as far as party spirit and the violence of the times permitted him. The first battle between the Huguenots and Catholics was lost by the admiral, but he saved his army. When the duke of Guise was murdered at the siege of Orleans, he was accused of being the author of the murder, but he cleared himself by an oath; it was unnecessary, the nobleness of his spirit raising him above suspicion. The civil war recommenced with increased fury in 1567, and Coligny

and Condé encountered the constable Montmorency at St. Denis. This indecisive action was followed by the battle of Jarnac, which took place in 1569, which was fatal to the Calvinists. Condé fell, and the whole burden of command devolved on Coligny.



He alone sustained his party, and was beaten again at Moncontour, without, however, losing his courage, but an advantageous peace seemingly put a stop to this contest in 1570. Coligny appeared at court, and was, with his adherents, loaded with favours. Charles IX. gave him 100,000 francs, as an indemnification for his injuries, together with a seat in the council. But from all sides he was warned not to trust to these caresses. As the admiral was leaving the Louvre, his right hand and left arm were wounded by a shot from a window. A Maurenel had fired at him from a building belonging to the monastery of St. Germain l'Auxerrois, according to the plan of Catharine de Medici, probably with the knowledge of the duke of Guise. Charles testified the deepest sorrow, caused search to be made for the assassin, and said to Coligny, "My father, you have the wounds, but I the pain." This he said at a moment when the massacre of the Protestants was already prepared. The slaughter began on the night of St. Bartholomew's in 1572. The duke of Guise hastened with a numerous suit to the house of the admiral, with a man named Besme at their head, entered with his drawn sword into the chamber of the old man, who, sitting in an easy chair, said, with a calm mien, to their leader, "Young man, my gray hairs ought to command thy respect, but do as thou pleasest, thou canst shorten my life but a few days," upon which the wretch pierced him with several stabs, and threw the body out of the window into the courtyard. The corpse was given up for three days to the fury of the people, and finally was hung up by the feet on a gibbet at Montfaucon. Montmorency, a cousin of Coligny, caused it to be taken down, and had it secretly buried in the chapel of the Castle of Chantilly. An Italian carried the head to Catharine, who ordered it to be embalmed and sent to Rome.

**COLLIER, JEREMY,** an eminent English divine, who was born at Stow in 1650. He made considerable progress at Cambridge University, and in 1679 was made rector of Ampton, which living he re-



signed in 1685 on being appointed lecturer of Gray's Inn. In 1688 he not only refused to take the oaths to the new government, but engaged as an active and zealous literary partizan of the pretensions of the dethroned monarch, and for a bitter pamphlet, entitled "The Desertion Discussed," was imprisoned, but afterwards discharged without being brought to trial. By this injudicious conduct on the part of the administration, his influence among his own party, as well as his general celebrity, was much increased. On his release he published various vehement pamphlets in defence of the doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance, and in opposition to the prelates who had accepted the sees of the nonjuring bishops.

These publications, and a suspicion that a journey to the coast of Kent was with a design of maintaining a correspondence with the exiled king, once more roused the attention of government, and he was brought back to London in custody, and committed to the gate-house. He was, however, in a short time admitted to bail, but, with a singular pertinacity of character, surrendered himself up again, on the ground that by submitting to give bail he acknowledged an illegal jurisdiction. Chief Justice Holt, however, very wisely released him in a day or two, when he again resumed his pen in defence of his conduct in regard to the bail, and in a strenuous support of Jacobite principles. For some time after he appears to have excited but little attention, until in 1696 he had the courage and indecorum, in company with two other nonjuring clergymen, to attend the execution of Sir John Friend and Sir William Perkins, who had been condemned for engaging in the assassination plot, and to publicly absolve them by imposition of hands. This conduct the two archbishops and ten of their suffragans declared to be insolent, irregular, and inconsistent with the constitution of the Church of England, to which censure Collier as usual published a reply and vindication. The civil power also interfered, and on his absconding pursued him to outlawry. He was, however, suffered to remain unmolested in this state of legal incapacity; and in the year 1697 he published three volumes of "Essays on Several Moral Subjects." These attracted great attention at the time, and have been praised far beyond their merits, as is generally the case with the productions of partizans. In 1698 appeared the work by which he is now for the most part remembered, entitled "A Short View of the Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage, together with the Sense of Antiquity on this Argument," 8vo. In this work, with truth and justice on his side, and armed with sufficient learning and sarcastic wit, he attacked the whole of the living dramatists. Dr. Collier died of a lingering illness April 26, 1726, and was interred in St. Pancras churchyard.

**COLLINGWOOD, CUTHBERT.**—This eminent officer was born in 1748 at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. He entered the royal navy in 1761, and in 1779 was made a commodore. In 1790 he married Miss Blacket, niece of Sir Edward Blacket, Bart. By this lady, to whom he continued united by the most tender affection till his death, he had two daughters, who survived him. In 1794 he was present as flag-captain on board the Prince at Lord Howe's great victory of the 1st of June. In 1797 he commanded the Excellent at the battle off Cape St. Vincent. In 1799 he was made an admiral. The few months of peace

which followed the treaty of Amiens he spent at home in the society of his wife and children. "During this short period of happiness and rest," says his biographer, "he was occupied in superintending the education of his daughters, and in continuing those habits of study which had long been familiar to him. His reading was extensive, particularly in history, and it was his constant practice to exercise himself in composition by making abstracts from the books which he read, and some of his abridgments, with the observations by which he illustrated them, are written with singular conciseness and power. 'I know not,' said one of the most eminent English diplomatists with whom he had afterwards very frequent communications, 'I know not where Lord Collingwood got his style, but he writes better than any of us.'"

The next great action in which Collingwood was engaged was the ever-memorable fight of Trafalgar, on which occasion he was second in command under Nelson, between whom and himself there had long subsisted an intimate friendship. When Nelson received his death-wound, Collingwood took the command of the fleet, and for his admirable conduct, both in the battle and after it was over, he was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Collingwood. From a very early period of his nautical life Lord Collingwood had been distinguished for the happy art by which he secured at once both the obedience and the affection of all who were placed under his command. When he was in the Excellent, Lord St. Vincent used to draft all the most ungovernable spirits of the fleet into that ship, certain, as he said, that Collingwood, if any man could, would reform them. "As his experience in command and his knowledge of the dispositions of men increased," says the writer of his life, "his abhorrence of corporal punishment grew daily stronger, and, in the latter part of his life, more than a year has often passed away without his having resorted to it even once."

When the sailors were sick, even while he was an admiral, he visited them daily, and supplied them from his own table; and when they were convalescent they were put into the charge of the lieutenant of the morning watch, and daily brought up to the admiral for examination by him. The result of this conduct was that the sailors considered him and called him their father, and frequently, when he changed his ship, many of the men were seen in tears for his departure. But with all this there was no man who less courted, or, to speak more truly, who held in more entire contempt, what is ordinarily styled popularity. He was never known to unbend with his men, while, at the same time, he never used any coarse or violent language to them himself, nor permitted it in others. 'If you do not know a man's name,' he used to say to the officers, 'call him sailor,' and not 'you sir,' and such other appellations, they are offensive and improper."

In the beginning of March, 1810, when nature was almost entirely exhausted, it was resolved that he should set sail for England from off Minorca, where he was then cruising. "When Lord Collingwood," says his biographer, "was informed that he was again at sea he rallied for a time his exhausted strength, and said to those around him, 'Then I may yet live to meet the French once more.' On the morning of the 7th there was a considerable swell, and his friend Captain Thomas, on entering his cabin, ob-

served that he feared the motion of the vessel disturbed him. 'No, Thomas,' he replied, 'I am now in a state in which nothing in this world can disturb me more. I am dying; and I am sure it must be consolatory to you, and all who love me, to see how comfortably I am coming to my end.' He told one of his attendants that he had endeavoured to review, as far as was possible, all the actions of his past life, and that he had the happiness to say that nothing gave him a moment's uneasiness. He spoke at times of his absent family, and of the doubtful contest in which he was about to leave his country involved, but ever with calmness and perfect resignation to the will of God; and in this blessed state of mind, after taking an affectionate farewell of his attendants, he expired without a struggle at six o'clock in the evening of that day." Lord Collingwood's remains were brought to England, and honoured with a public funeral in St. Paul's Cathedral.

**COLLIN, HENRY JOSEPH VON**, was born at Vienna in 1772. He was the son of a physician, and rose by degrees to an important place in the financial department of the Austrian government. He sacrificed his feeble health, and even his favourite inclination for poetry, to the duties of his office, in which he laboured with an assiduity that at length put an end to his life, by a nervous fever, in 1811. Having laid a wager with a friend to write a tragedy within six weeks, he produced his first drama, "Regulus," the plan of which he had arranged before. It was followed by "Coriolanus," "Polyxena," "Balbea," "Bianca della Porta," "Mæon," and "Die Horatier und Curatier." A selection of his smaller poems appeared in Vienna, after his death, with fragments of his epic poem "Rudolf von Habsburg." His works are characterized by a spirit nourished on the ancient classics, and by a vigorous simplicity. They are sometimes, however, rather frigid and stiff.

**COLLIN, D'HARLEVILLE, JEAN FRANÇOIS**.—This well known French dramatist was born, in 1750, at Maintenon, near Chartres, and abandoned the profession of the law, and enriched the French stage with a great number of pieces. In his earliest works he wrote by rule, but subsequently followed the bent of his own genius. In his best piece, the "Vieux Célibataire," he returned, however, to the established principles of the French theatre. In general his comedies are blamed as deficient in humour, and his comic characters as wanting in individual traits. In his allegorical poem, "Melpomene et Thalie," we find natural ease combined with sentimental philosophy, but often prosaic verses. He died in 1806.

**COLLINS, WILLIAM**, a distinguished poet, who was born in 1721 at Chichester, where his father was a hatter. He was educated at Winchester School and at Oxford. While at college he wrote his "Oriental Eclogues," which were printed in 1742. Their success was moderate, and, in 1744, the author went to London as a literary adventurer. In 1746 he gave his "Odes, Descriptive and Allegorical," to the public; but the sale did not pay for the printing, and the indignant and sensitive poet burnt all the unsold copies. Yet among these "Odes" were many pieces which at present rank with the finest lyrics in the language. Pecuniary distress followed this disappointment; and, aided by the advance of a few guineas from the booksellers for an intended translation of the "Poetics of Aris-

totle," he was enabled to escape into the country, whence he found means to pay a visit to his uncle, Colonel Martin, then with the British army in Germany. The death of this relation, who bequeathed him a legacy of £2000, raised him to comparative affluence; and he immediately returned the booksellers their advance, being reduced, by nervous debility, to an utter incapability of any species of mental exertion. Originally too laxly strung, disappointment, distress, and irregularity had completely disarranged his nervous system. Dreadful depression of spirits followed, for which he had no better remedy than the fatal one of the bottle. Although he did not suffer from absolute alienation of mind, it was thought best to confine him in a lunatic asylum; but, finally, he was consigned to the care of a sister, in whose arms he terminated his brief and melancholy career in 1756. Collins, by his taste and attainments, appears to have been peculiarly adapted for the higher walks of poetry. His "Odes," from which he derives his chief poetical fame, notwithstanding the disparaging remarks of Dr. Johnson, are now almost universally regarded as the first productions of the kind in the English language for vigour of conception, boldness and variety of personification, and genuine warmth of feeling. The originality of Collins consists, not in his sentiment, but in the highly figurative garb in which he clothes abstract ideas, in the felicity of his expressions, and in his skill in embodying ideal creations. His chief defect is an occasional mysticism. His temperament was, in the strictest meaning of the word, poetical; and had he existed under happier circumstances, and enjoyed the undisturbed exercise of his faculties, he would probably have surpassed most, if not all, of his contemporaries, during the very prosaic period which immediately followed the death of Pope.

**COLLOT D'HERBOIS, JEAN MARIE**, a notorious member of the infamous municipality of Paris, August 10, 1792, and afterwards of the national convention. He was banished, after the fall of Robespierre, to Cayenne, where he died in 1796. He proposed in the first session of the national convention to abolish royalty, and to declare the government a republic. In Lyons he introduced the shooting *en masse*, when the guillotines, though, according to the technical expression, *en permanence* were found no longer sufficient.

**COLMAN, GEORGE**, a dramatic writer and elegant scholar of the last century. He was born at Florence in 1733, his father being at that time British envoy to the grand duke's court. From Westminster School he was removed, at the usual age, to Christ Church, Oxford, where he was graduated as master of arts in 1758, having previously, in conjunction with his friend Bonnel Thornton, published a series of essays after the manner of the "Spectator," under the title of "The Connoisseur." This lively work, which came out weekly, was continued from the 1st of January, 1754, till towards the close of the year 1756, and tended much to establish his reputation and procure him the friendship of most of the acknowledged wits of the day. At the desire of his relation, Lord Bath, he turned his thoughts to the law, entered himself of Lincoln's Inn, and even went so far as to be called to the bar; but his genius soon turned to the more congenial study of the belles lettres. His poetical vein had some time previously displayed itself in various occasional



pieces; but his first dramatic attempt was made in the year 1760, when his "Polly Honeycombe" was brought out, with great temporary success, at Drury Lane. The year following he produced the well-known comedy of the "Jealous Wife," which not only excited great attention at the time, but, as well as his "Clandestine Marriage," has remained an established favourite ever since. The "English Merchant," the "Oxonian in Town," and a long list of other pieces of less note, but not deficient in merit, followed in succession, in the composition of some of which he was assisted by his friend Garrick.

In 1764 his pecuniary resources were much increased by a handsome annuity bequeathed him by Lord Bath; and an addition to his fortune, which he acquired three years after by the decease of General Pulteney, enabled him, the following summer, to purchase Mr. Beard's share in Covent Garden theatre. Owing, however, to variances with his partners in the concern, he was induced to dispose of his portion of the property almost as soon as he had acquired it, and to purchase, in lieu of it, the little theatre in the Haymarket, which he bought of Foote for an annuity, and continued in the personal superintendence of it till the year 1790, when a paralytic attack not only deprived him of the use of one side, but entirely plunged his faculties into a hopeless state of derangement. He nevertheless lingered on, in a lunatic asylum at Paddington, till 1794, in which year his decease took place. Besides the writings already enumerated, and a large variety of others of the same class, his classical attainments and the purity of his taste are evinced by his elegant and spirited translation of Horace's "Art of Poetry," published in 1783, and of the "Comedies" of Terence, to the former of which is prefixed an ingenious "Commentary," which places his acumen as a critic in a very respectable point of view.

**COLONNA, VITTORIA**, the most celebrated poetess of Italy. She was the daughter of Fabrizio Colonna, high-constable of Naples, and born in 1490 at Marino, a fief belonging to the family. At the age of four years she was destined to be the wife of d'Avalos, marquis of Pescara, a boy of the same age. The rare excellences, both of body and mind, with which nature and a most careful education had adorned her, made her an object of universal admiration, so that even princes sued for her hand. But, faithful to her vow, she gave her hand to the companion of her youth, who had become one of the most distinguished men of his age. They lived in the happiest union. When her husband fell at the battle of Pavia, in 1525, Vittoria sought consolation in solitude and in poetry. All her poems were devoted to the memory of her husband. She lived seven years, by turns at Naples and at Ischia, and afterwards retired into a monastery, first at Orvieto, and finally at Viterbo. She afterwards abandoned the monastic life and made Rome her abode, where she died in 1547. Her "Rime" are not inferior to the best imitations of Petrarch. The finest are her "Rime Spirituali," which display deep feeling and pure piety. A collection of all her poems appeared in 1760 at Bergamo.

**COLQUHOUN, PATRICK**, an eminent police magistrate, was born at Dumbarton in Scotland in 1743, and early in life went to America to engage in commerce. In 1766 he returned home and settled

as a merchant at Glasgow, of which city he at length became Lord Provost, and he was likewise chairman of the Chamber of Commerce. Having removed to London he was made a police magistrate in 1792, in which situation he distinguished himself by his activity and application, the result of which was a "Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis," published in 1796. This work procured him the honorary degree of LL.D. from the university of Glasgow. In 1800 he published a work on the police of the river Thames, suggesting a plan, afterwards adopted, for the protection of property on the river and in the adjacent parts of the metropolis. He wrote several other works, but his latest was entitled, "A Treatise on the Population, Wealth, Power, and Resources of the British Empire;" and a tract on the "Education of the Labouring Classes." Mr. Colquhoun died April 25, 1820.

**COLTON, CALEB**.—This eccentric individual was educated at Eton, and afterwards at King's College, Cambridge, where he graduated as bachelor of arts in 1801. He obtained some preferment in the church, but ultimately concealed himself from his friends, and after visiting America took up his residence in Paris. He dissipated a considerable fortune at the gaming-table, and afterwards realised more than 20,000*l.* by the same iniquitous practice. He died by suicide in 1832. His work entitled "Lacon" had a great sale, and was generally much admired.

**COLUMBUS, CHRISTOPHER**.—This extraordinary navigator was born in 1442. In his early years he applied himself to the study of geometry and astronomy. He went to sea at the age of fourteen. His first voyages were to those ports in the Mediterranean frequented by the Genoese, after which he took a voyage to Iceland, and proceeding still further north advanced several degrees within the polar circle. After this Columbus entered into the service of a celebrated sea-captain of his own name and family, who commanded a small squadron fitted out at his own expense, and by cruising against the Mahometans and Venetians, the rivals of his country in trade, had acquired both wealth and reputation. With him Columbus continued for several years, no less distinguished for his courage than his experience as a sailor. At length in an obstinate engagement off the coast of Portugal with some Venetian caravels returning richly laden from the Low Countries, his ship took fire together with one of the enemy's ships to which it was first grappled. Columbus threw himself into the sea, laid hold of a floating oar, and by the support of it and his dexterity in swimming reached the shore though above two leagues distant.

After this disaster he went to Lisbon, where he married a daughter of Bartholomew Perestrello, one of the captains employed by Prince Henry in his early navigations, and who had discovered and colonised the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira, and by getting possession of his journals and charts Columbus was seized with an irresistible desire of visiting unknown countries. He first made a voyage to Madeira, and continued during several years to trade with that island, the Canaries, Azores, the settlements in Guinea, and all the other places which the Portuguese had discovered on the continent of Africa. By these means he soon became one of the most skillful navigators in Europe. At this time the great object of discovery was a passage by sea to the East Indies.

which was at last accomplished by the Portuguese by doubling the Cape of Good Hope. The danger and tediousness of the passage, however, induced Columbus to consider whether a shorter and more direct passage to these regions might not be found out; and at length he became convinced that, by sailing across the Atlantic Ocean directly towards the west, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vast continent of India, must infallibly be discovered. In 1474 he communicated his ideas on this subject to one Paul, a physician in Florence, a man eminent for his knowledge in cosmography, who suggested several facts in confirmation of the plan, and warmly encouraged Columbus to persevere in an undertaking so laudable, and which must redound so much to the honour of his country and the benefit of Europe. Columbus, fully satisfied of the truth of his system, was impatient to set out on a voyage of discovery, and to secure the patronage of some of the considerable powers of Europe, capable of undertaking such an enterprise. He applied first to the republic of Genoa, afterwards to the courts of Portugal, Spain, and England, successively, but met with a variety of mortifying interruptions. At last his project was so far countenanced by Ferdinand of Spain and Queen Isabella that our adventurer set sail with three small ships, the whole expense of which did not exceed 4000*l*. During his voyage he met with many difficulties from the mutinous and timid disposition of his men.

Washington Irving, who has written a most interesting life of Columbus, thus describes the portents that attended the commencement of the navigator's labours:—

"When about 150 leagues west of Ferra, they fell in with a part of a mast of a large vessel, and the crews, tremblingly alive to every portent, looked with a rueful eye upon this fragment of a wreck, drifting ominously at the entrance of these unknown seas. On the 13th of September, in the evening, Columbus, for the first time, noticed the variation of the needle, a phenomenon which had never before been remarked. He at first made no mention of it, lest his people should be alarmed, but it soon attracted the attention of the pilots, and filled them with consternation. It seemed as if the very laws of nature were changing as they advanced, and that they were entering another world subject to unknown influences. They apprehended that the compass was about to lose its mysterious virtues, and without this guide what was to become of them in a vast and trackless ocean? Columbus tasked his science and ingenuity for reasons with which to allay their terrors. He told them that the direction of the needle was not to the polar star, but to some fixed and invisible point. The variation, therefore, was not caused by any fallacy in the compass, but by the movement of the north star itself, which, like the other heavenly bodies, had its changes and revolutions, and every day described a circle round the pole. The high opinion they entertained of Columbus as a profound astronomer gave weight to his theory, and their alarm subsided.

"They had now arrived within the influence of the trade wind, which, following the sun, blows steadily from east to west between the tropics, and sweeps over a few adjoining degrees of the ocean. With this propitious breeze directly aft they were wafted gently but speedily over a tranquil sea, so that for

many days they did not shift a sail. Columbus in his journal perpetually recurs to the bland and temperate serenity of the weather, and compares the pure and balmy mornings to those of April in Andalusia, observing that the song of the nightingale was alone wanting to complete the illusion.

"They now began to see large patches of herbs and weeds all drifting from the west. Some were such as grow about rocks or in rivers, and as green as if recently washed from the land. On one of the patches was a live crab. They saw also a white tropical bird, of a kind which never sleeps upon the sea, and tunny fish played about the ships. Columbus now supposed himself arrived in the weedy sea described by Aristotle, into which certain ships of Cadiz had been driven by an impetuous east wind.

"As he advanced there were various other signs that gave great animation to the crews; many birds were seen flying from the west; there was a cloudiness in the north such as often hangs over land, and at sunset the imagination of the seamen, aided by their desires, would shape those clouds into distant islands. Every one was eager to be the first to behold and announce the wished-for shore, for the sovereigns had promised a pension of thirty crowns to whomsoever should first discover land. Columbus sounded occasionally with a line of 200 fathoms, but found no bottom. Martin Alonzo Pinzon, as well as others of his officers and many of the seamen, were often solicitous for Columbus to alter his course and steer in the direction of these favourable signs, but he persevered in steering to the westward, trusting that by keeping in one steady direction he should reach the coast of India, even if he should miss the intervening islands, and might then seek them on his return."

At last the sailors lost all patience, and the admiral was obliged to promise solemnly that in case land was not discovered in three days he should return to Europe. That very night, however, the island of San Salvador was discovered, and the sailors were then as extravagant in the praise of Columbus as they had before been insolent in reviling and threatening him. They threw themselves at his feet, implored his pardon, and pronounced him to be a person inspired by heaven with more than human sagacity and fortitude in order to accomplish a design so far beyond the ideas and conception of all former ages. Having visited several of the West India islands and settled a colony in Hispaniola, he again set sail for Spain, and after escaping great dangers from violent tempests, arrived at the port of Palos on the 15th of March, 1493.

As soon as Columbus's ship was discovered approaching, all the inhabitants of Palos ran eagerly to the shore, where they received the admiral with royal honours. The court was then at Barcelona, and Columbus took care immediately to announce his arrival to the king and queen, who were no less delighted than astonished with this unexpected event, and gave orders for conducting him into the city with all imaginable pomp. Every possible mark of honour that could be suggested by gratitude or admiration was conferred on Columbus; the former capitulation was confirmed, his family was ennobled, and a fleet was ordered to be equipped to enable him to go in quest of those more opulent countries which he still confidently expected to find.

Notwithstanding all this respect, however, Co-



Columbus was regarded no longer than he was successful. The colonists he carried over with him in his second voyage were to the last degree unreasonable and unmanageable, so that he was obliged to use some severities with them, and complaints were made to the court of Spain against him for cruelty. On this Francis de Bovadilla, a knight of Calatrava, was appointed to enquire into the conduct of Columbus, with orders, in case he found the charge of maladministration proved, to supersede him and assume the office of governor of Hispaniola. The consequence of this was that Columbus was sent to Spain in chains. From these, however, he was freed immediately on his arrival, and had an opportunity granted him of vindicating his innocence. He was, however, deprived of all power, and notwithstanding his great services and the solemnity of the agreement between him and Ferdinand, Columbus never could obtain the fulfilment of any part of that treaty. At last, disgusted with the ingratitude of a monarch whom he had served with such fidelity and success, and exhausted with fatigues, he ended his life on the 29th of May, 1506.

COMBE, CHARLES, an eminent scholar, born in 1743. He commenced practice as an apothecary, but afterwards became a physician. He published a fine edition of Horace, and employed himself actively in literary pursuits till his death, which occurred in 1817.

COMBER, THOMAS.—There are two eminent divines of this name, both of the same family, the eldest of whom was a native of Shermanbury, Sussex, born 1575. He received his education at Hortham in the same county, and afterwards became dean of Carlisle; but on the breaking out of the civil war, in 1642, the parliament threw him into prison and deprived him of all his preferment. He just lived however to see the Restoration, dying in February, 1653; at Cambridge.—The second was born in 1644 at Westerham in Kent, took the degree of M.A. at Sidney Sussex College in Cambridge, but received that of doctor in divinity from the archbishop of Canterbury. In 1691 he was appointed to succeed Dr. Granville in the deanery of Durham. He enjoyed this valuable preferment eight years, during which period he published several devotional tracts, among which are,—“A Companion to the Temple,” 2 vols. 8vo.; another “To the Altar;” “Discourses on the Liturgy;” “A Scholastical History of Liturgies;” and “An Account of the Roman Forgeries in the Councils during the first four Centuries,” in 4to. He died November 25, 1669.

COMINES, PHILIP DE.—This celebrated French historian was born in 1445. He spent his youth in the court of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, but from some cause which is unknown he passed into the service of Louis XI., king of France, by whom he was made chamberlain and seneschal of Poitou. He was also employed in various important negotiations, for which he was eminently fitted, as he possessed a good person, a quick understanding, and spoke several modern languages. He married the heiress of a noble house in Anjou, by whom he acquired several manors. He accompanied Louis in several expeditions, as also his successor Charles VIII. to Naples, but his favour with the latter prince was transitory; for, being accused of an attachment to the party of the duke of Orleans, he

was confined for eight months in one of those iron cages at Loches which his former master had made use of as instruments of his tyranny. He was thence transferred to Paris, where he remained in custody eighteen months longer before he could obtain a trial, when he was declared innocent and set at liberty. When the duke of Orleans succeeded as Louis XII. he took no notice of Comines, who died at Argenton in 1509.

COMPTON, HENRY, a distinguished English prelate, who was born in 1632. He received his education at Queen's College, Oxford, and afterwards went abroad. On the Restoration he returned to his own country and entered the army, but disliking the profession he devoted himself to the church. After passing through the degrees of B. A. and D. D., he was raised to the bishopric of Oxford, and the year following to that of London. He shortly after became one of his majesty's privy counsellors, and the religious education of the princesses, Mary and Anne, was entrusted to his care. His firm resistance, however, to the catholic religion, brought him under the displeasure of James II., at whose accession he was removed from the council table. In 1686 he received a letter from the king, commanding him to suspend Dr. John Sharpe for having, in his sermons, vindicated the church of England in opposition to the catholic faith. In consequence of his not complying he was suspended until the alarm of the prince of Orange's landing, when he was restored to his offices. On the 3d of October, 1688, he waited on King James, with the archbishop of Canterbury and seven other bishops, when they suggested to his majesty such advice as they thought conducive to his interest, but this had no effect. The first part the bishop acted in the revolution which immediately ensued was the conveying, jointly with the earl of Dorset, the princess Anne of Denmark safe from London to Nottingham, lest she, in the present confusion of affairs, might have been sent away into France, or put under restraint, because the prince, her consort, had left King James, and was gone over to the prince of Orange. On his return he signed the association begun at Exeter, and waited on the prince at the head of the clergy, thanking him for preserving the laws and liberties of the nation by his interference. On the accession of the prince and princess of Orange he was restored to his office of dean, and to his seat in the privy council; and, on the refusal of Archbishop Sancroft to take the oaths of the new government, he performed the ceremony of the coronation. In 1689 he was appointed one of the commissioners for reviewing the liturgy, and president of the convocations in which the proposed amendments, together with the subject of the protestant dissenters, were to be discussed, but of which, with some other members, he obtained the discontinuance.

In 1690-91 Dr. Compton accompanied the king, at his own expense, to the congress at the Hague; but, attaching himself closely with the Tory and high church party, his court influence was at an end during the reign of William. Towards the close of that of Queen Anne, when his principles again came into fashion, he regained a great part of his former power, but remained quiet until 1691, when he opposed the prosecution of Dr. Sacheverel, and voted in his favour, protesting against that indiscreet affair. In 1702 he was put into the com-

mission for the union of England and Scotland; but was left out in the new commission of 1706. Bishop Compton died at Fulham, of a complication of disorders, in 1713.

CONDAMINE, CHARLES MARIE LA, a naturalist, born at Paris in 1701. With an ardent spirit and a powerful frame, the young Condamine, who had entered the military profession, gave himself up to pleasure; but he soon renounced the military career, and devoted himself to the sciences. He entered the Academy as *adjoint chimiste*. His desire of knowledge induced him to apply himself to several sciences, without advancing very deeply in any particular one. After he had visited the coasts of Asia and Africa on the Mediterranean, he was in 1736 chosen, with Godin and Bouguer, to determine the figure of the earth by a measurement to be made in Peru. He there made the discovery that mountains attract heavy bodies, and give them a direction different from that which they would take according to the simple law of gravity—a truth which was afterwards confirmed by Maskelyne and Cavendish. Having finished his labours in America, and escaped a thousand dangers, he returned to his native land, after an absence of eight years, and soon after went to Rome, where Benedict XIV. gave him a dispensation to marry one of his nieces. Of his curiosity the following anecdote is related:—At the execution of Damiens he mingled with the executioners in order to let no circumstance of this horrible manner of death pass unobserved. They were about to send him back, but the chief executioner, who knew Condamine, prevented them with these words: “Laissez, messieurs, c’est un amateur.” His principal works are his account of his travels, his work on the figure of the earth, and that on the measurement of three degrees of the meridian in the equatorial regions. Besides these he published treatises on inoculation for the small-pox.

CONDE, LOUIS DE BOURBON, PRINCE OF.—This distinguished military leader was born in 1621. He possessed great advantages of person and very attractive manners. During the life of his father he bore the title of *duke d’Enghien*, and he immortalized this name at the battle of Rocroi, in which, at the age of twenty-two, he defeated the Spaniards. After he had arranged every thing for the battle, on the evening previous, he fell into so sound a sleep that it was necessary to awake him when the time for engaging came on. Wherever he appeared he was victorious. He besieged Dunkirk in sight of the Spanish army, and gained that place for France in 1646. He was equally fortunate in putting a stop to the civil war which Mazarin had occasioned, who was afterwards obliged to seek the support of Condé. Jealous of the glory of the prince and fearing his pride, Mazarin, in 1650, caused his deliverer to be brought captive to Vincennes, and did not restore him his freedom until after the expiration of a year. The offended Condé now entered into negotiations with Spain, and fought against his native country with such success that he advanced almost to the gates of Paris. He obtained possession of the neighbouring places, while Turenne was approaching the capital in order to cover it. Both generals fought with great valour near the suburb St. Antoine, and added to their former reputation. This battle took place on the 2d of July, 1652. A short time after, peace was concluded, in

which, however, Condé did not concur, but went to the Netherlands. The peace of the Pyrenees, in 1659, at last restored this great general to France, and after Turenne’s death in 1675 he commanded, for a long time, the French army in Germany. The gout at last compelled him to retire to his beautiful estate at Chantilly, near Paris, where he devoted himself to the sciences. Here he was visited by Corneille, Bossuet, Racine, Boileau, and Bourdaloue, who enjoyed his conversation as much as he did theirs. He died in 1687 at Fontainebleau. In the church of St. Louis, at Paris, a splendid monument was erected to him.

CONDE, LOUIS JOSEPH DE BOURBON, PRINCE OF, born at Chantilly in 1736, and was only son of the duke de Bourbon and the princess of Hesse-Rheinfels. By the death of both his parents he came, in his fifth year, under the guardianship of Count Charolais, his uncle. The prince was educated with great strictness, and made some progress in the sciences. In 1753 he married the princess of Rohan-Soubise, who, in 1756, bore him the Prince Bourbon-Condé. In the seven years’ war he distinguished himself by his courage and skill, and in 1762 gained a victory, at Johannisberg, over the hereditary prince of Brunswick. True to the old constitution, he opposed Louis XV. on account of the introduction of a newly formed parliament, and was on this account banished, but was soon recalled. His leisure he devoted to study, in friendly intimacy with the most learned men of his time, and to the embellishment of Chantilly, where Paul I. visited him. In the revolution he emigrated in 1789 to Brussels, and from there to Turin: he afterwards formed at Worms a little corps of emigrant nobility, 6806 men strong, which joined the Austrian army under Wurmser. After an interview with Gustavus III. of Sweden, at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1791, on the subject of measures to be undertaken, he was summoned at Worms by a deputy of the National Assembly, and by the king himself to return to France within fourteen days under penalty of the loss of his estates. With the other princes he returned an answer of refusal from Coblenz. On the breaking out of the war, his corps distinguished itself; but the Austrian plan of operations did not agree with the views of the emigrants; therefore the connexion of Prince Condé with Pichegru had no results. In 1797 he entered the Russian service, and marched with his corps to Russia, where he was most hospitably received into the residence of Paul I.; and returned in 1799 to the Rhine under Suwaroff. In 1800, after the separation of Russia from the coalition, he reentered the English service, and the campaign of 1800 ended the military career of the prince. He lived in England till 1813, in which year his second wife, the princess of Monaco, died. He returned to Paris, May 14, 1814, received the tenth regiment of infantry, as also that of *grand maître de France*, and the protectorate of the order of St. Louis. He fled with the king to Ghent, and returned with him to Paris in July, where, being appointed president of a *bureau* of the chamber of peers, he remained some time, but at last retired to Chantilly, where he had formerly written the interesting “*Essai sur la Vie du Grand Condé, par L. J. de Bourbon, son Quatrième Descendant.*” He died at Paris, in 1818. His grandson was the duke d’Enghien.



CONDILLAC, STEPHEN BONNOT DE, was born in 1715 at Grenoble, and lived, like his brother, the Abbé Mably, from his youth, devoted to study. His "*Essai sur l'Origine des Connaissances Humaines*," published in 1746, first drew the attention of the world to a thinker, who, with much acuteness of mind, sought to explain, by the law of the association of ideas, almost all the phenomena of the human mind. Although Locke's discoveries in the department of psychology, founded upon experience, might have had an influence on this work, yet no one can deny to Condillac the merit of having made more profound enquiries on many points. He himself, however, thought that he had not sufficiently explained the first principles of the faculties of the human mind, and therefore wrote the "*Traité des Systèmes*," in which he frequently referred to more accurate observations. Any one would misunderstand Condillac who should believe that he disapproved of all systems; but instead of those maxims and theories which Des Cartes, Spinoza, Malebranche, &c., had laid down as the basis of their speculations, he demanded observations of the simplest kind. His "*Traité des Sensations*," published in 1754, is interesting for the ingenious manner in which he has explained the consciousness of impressions on the senses. Mortified by the supposition that he had followed the course of ideas in Diderot's and Buffon's works, he wrote his "*Traité des Animaux*," in which he refuted Buffon's opinions by principles which he had advanced in his "*Traité des Sensations*." The sagacity and the clearness which distinguish all Condillac's writings obtained for him the distinction of being chosen instructor of the infant duke of Parma, nephew of Louis XV.; and the intimate friendship which subsisted between him and his colleague, M. de Keralio, made this situation very agreeable. To this cause we are indebted for his acute work, the "*Cours d'Etudes*," in which, with his peculiar talent of explanation, he investigates the external signs of ideas. Thus his "*Grammar*" necessarily became a universal one, his "*Art of Writing*" a course of instruction for giving the most suitable expression to trains of thought. With the same view he composed his "*L'Art de Juger*," and "*L'Art de Penser*," which constitute a part of the "*Cours d'Etudes*." His "*History*" has been less successful than his other works. Considered apart from the tameness of its execution, it might be objected to it that it represented occurrences in subservience to pre-established theories. Condillac returned, after the completion of the education of the young prince, to Paris, where he was admitted into the French Academy, which, however, he did not visit again after the day of his entrance. His work, "*Le Commerce et le Gouvernement considérés relativement l'un à l'autre*," which is an application of his analytical method to several problems in the administration of the state, met, however, with little approbation. His "*Logic*," the last of his works, he wrote by request early in 1780 as a manual for the Polish schools. Condillac died at his estate near Bougenci in August 1780.

CONDORCANQUI, JOSEPH GABRIEL, an American Spaniard, who, having been ill treated by a magistrate, and sustained an act of injustice from the *audiencia* of Lima, attempted to redress his own grievances and the oppressions of the Indians by inciting them to insurrection against the Spanish

government in 1780. He was an artful and inreproachable man; and with a view to conciliate the Indians he assumed the name of Tapac-Amura, one of the ancient Incas, professing a design to restore the ancient dynasty of Manco-Capac in Peru, a project which had been entertained by Sir Walter Raleigh in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The scheme was at first very successful. The spirit of revolt extended far and wide into the interior of the country; the contest lasted three years, and the pretended Tapac-Amara was hailed inca of Peru. His conduct, however, proved obnoxious to the Spanish settlers, and the efforts of the Indians were too feeble and desultory to support so gigantic an undertaking. Troops were sent against him, and being deserted by his followers he was taken and put to death.

CONDORCET, MARIE JEAN NICOLAS MARQUIS DE, was born in September, 1743, at Ribemont, near St. Quentin, of one of the oldest families in Dauphiny. By the assistance of his uncle Jacques Marie de Condorcet, bishop of Lisieux, he was educated in the college of Navarre at Paris. At a public examination, which was attended by D'Alembert, Clairaut, and Fontaine, the manner in which he solved a mathematical proposition gained their applause, and the youth of sixteen was so much excited by their praises that from that time he resolved to devote himself entirely to the exact sciences. The duke of Rochefoucault was his patron, and introduced him into the world at the age of nineteen. But its allurements could not render him unfaithful to the severe studies which he had chosen. With astonishing facility and versatility Condorcet treated the most difficult problems in mathematics, but his genius inclined him rather to lay down beautiful formulas than to pursue them to useful applications. Condorcet also wrote academical eulogies, as Fontenelle's talents in this department were very much missed. Although his "*Eloges des Académiciens Morts avant*" leave much to be desired, yet they were received with so much applause that the place of secretary of the academy, in 1777, was not refused to him even by his rivals. This office imposed on him the necessity of investigating the various departments of the sciences (the most distinguished promoters of which he was obliged to eulogize), in order to be able to exhibit the latest discoveries; but he did not allow himself to be drawn away from his mathematical studies. His theory of comets gained, in 1778, the prize offered by the academy of Berlin, and he enriched the transactions of the learned societies of Petersburg, Berlin, Bologna, Turin, and Paris with profound contributions in the department of the higher mathematics. The aversion of the minister Maurepas to Condorcet delayed his entrance into the French Academy till 1782, when he delivered his inaugural discourse on the advantages which society may derive from the union of the physical and moral sciences.

Being intimately connected with Turgot, he was led into a thorough examination of the system of the economists, and his acquaintance with D'Alembert made him take an active part in the "*Encyclopédie*," for which he wrote many articles. He was the friend of most of the contributors to this great work. In all his writings he displays an exalted view of human nature—a circumstance much to his honour, considering the character of those with whom he was associated. This feeling determined him in favour

of the cause of the American colonies during their contest with this country. He was also a friend of the enslaved Negroes, and was anxious for their restoration to freedom. In 1787 Condorcet published Voltaire's *Life*, a sort of sequel to the complete edition of Voltaire's works which he had given to the world with notes and illustrations, in which he expressed the admiration which the versatility of talent and the zeal in the cause of humanity of this great man had awakened in him. Meanwhile his opinions of the rights of citizens and of men estranged him from the duke of Rochefoucault, his former benefactor, and his enemies have asserted that the refusal of the post of instructor to the dauphin induced him to join the popular party. The real cause was his enthusiasm for the great and good. He wrote, in favour of the popular cause, "*Sur les Assemblées Provinciales*," subsequently in the "*Bibliothèque de l'Homme Public*" and the "*Feuille Villageoise*." Under a cold exterior he possessed the most ardent passions, so much so indeed that D'Alembert compared him to a volcano covered with snow. His "*Feuille Villageoise*," in which he simply stated the first principles of political economy and of the relations of states, exerted considerable influence. On the intelligence of the flight of the king he represented in a speech, which was highly admired, the royal dignity as an anti-social institution. The royal treasury, of which he was appointed in 1791 commissary, received at his suggestion the name of national treasury. He was finally elected a deputy of Paris to the legislative assembly, and very soon, though his bodily strength seemed inadequate for the office, he was chosen secretary of the assembly.

In February, 1792, he was appointed president, composed the proclamation addressed to the French and to Europe, which announced the abolition of the royal dignity, spoke in the national convention, where he had a seat as deputy of the department of Aisne, for the most part indeed with the Girondists, but on the trial of Louis he was in favour of the severest sentence not capital; at the same time he proposed to abolish capital punishments except in case of crimes against the state. This participation in the proceedings against the king was the reason why his name was struck off from the list of members of the academies of Petersburg and Berlin. The revolution of May 31, 1793, prevented the constitution which Condorcet had drawn up from being accepted. The constitution then adopted he attacked without moderation or reserve, and was in consequence denounced at the bar, July 8, 1793. He was accused of being an accomplice of Brissot. To save his life he concealed himself and was declared out of the protection of the law. Madame Verney, a woman of noble feelings, secreted him for eight months. She procured him the means of subsistence, and even wrote little poems to enliven his spirits. While in this retreat, without the assistance of others, and surrounded by all the horrors of his situation, Condorcet wrote his excellent "*Esquisse d'un Tableau Historique des Progrès de l'Esprit Humain*," full of enthusiasm for that liberty, the degeneracy of which caused so much suffering. In answer to the encouraging words of his protectress, he wrote the "*Épître d'un Polonais Exilé en Sibérie à sa Femme*," full of those noble sentiments which had been the rules of his life. He at last learned from the public papers that death was denounced against all those

who concealed a proscribed individual. In spite of the prayers of the generous woman who had given him refuge, he left her and fled in disguise from Paris. He wandered about for a long time, until driven by hunger he entered a small inn at Clamar, where he was arrested as a suspicious person by a member of the revolutionary tribunal of Clamar, and thrown into prison to undergo a more strict examination. On the following morning, March 28, 1794, he was found dead on the floor of his room, apparently having swallowed poison which he always carried about him, and which nothing but his love for his wife and daughter had prevented him from using before. A collection of his numerous writings, complete with the exception of his mathematical works, appeared in Paris in 1804.

CONFUCIUS, also KON-FU-TSE, and KUNG-FU-TSU, a teacher of religion and morals, who, like Moses and Zoroaster, exercised an extensive influence on his own and succeeding times, and now, after thousands of years, is still venerated by his countrymen, and respected by other nations. He lived about 550 years B. C. He was of royal descent, and held the rank of a mandarin at court, in his native land, in the kingdom of Lu (at present Shang-Tong, a province of the Chinese empire, which was not till a later period formed into a single monarchy); but, as the king would not follow his advice, he resigned his dignity, went to the kingdom of Sum, and became a teacher of morals. He led a quiet and temperate life, and was distinguished for his wisdom—neither attempting to overthrow existing establishments nor to gain dominion by deceit over the minds of men, but only to disseminate precepts of virtue and wisdom. He taught in the cities and at royal courts, and, as many hearers assembled about him, he became the founder of a numerous sect, which still exists in China, and has extended to Cochinchina. His religious opinions are very uncertain: it does not appear that he changed or purified the prevailing faith. It may be inferred, however, with great probability, that he taught the immortality of the soul, and favoured and propagated the existing belief in fate and soothsaying, and in the worship of certain good spirits, who watch over the elements and the various parts of the earth. It is certain that he inculcated it as a duty on his disciples to revere their ancestors. We are better acquainted with that part of his doctrines which relates to common life, and contains general precepts of practical utility. In the most impressive manner, he enjoined universal benevolence, justice, virtue, and honesty, and the observance of all usages and customs which had been once introduced, it being proper that they who live together should live in the same manner, and sympathise in each other's pains and pleasures. Sometimes he inculcates reverence of old age; sometimes he shows how the tendencies of children should be guided, and their rising passions corrected. Sometimes he speaks of the peaceful virtues of domestic life, and sometimes he exhorts monarchs to exercise justice and humanity. He praises the delights of friendship, and teaches the forgiveness of offences.

As a lawgiver he deserves less honour. It cannot be denied that he extended the limits of paternal authority too far, for he allowed parents even the right to sell their children. It was a sophism unworthy of his wisdom to say, as children can sell themselves,



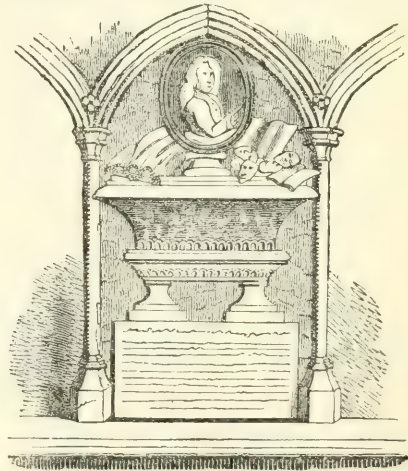
no one should hesitate to give this right to the authors of their existence. Confucius erred especially in viewing legislation as nothing but a branch of morals, and was satisfied, therefore, with giving general precepts on this subject. Moreover, esteem for the early lawgivers of his people prevented him from making careful investigations for himself: he acquiesced rather in the decisions of those celebrated men of whom he called himself the disciple. His conduct is worthy of praise, inasmuch as he encouraged marriage, and recommended agriculture: trade he did not positively denounce, but he was less favourable to it. Of the works ascribed to him, the "Shu-King," or "Shan-Shu," is the most important; but it is doubtful whether all the parts of it were written by him. In comparing Confucius, Mohammed, and Zoroaster, Mohammed bears away the palm as the founder of a religion, Zoroaster as a lawgiver, and Confucius as a moralist.

CONGREVE, WILLIAM, a celebrated English dramatist, descended from an ancient family in the county of Stafford. His father held a command in the army. Young Congreve was born in 1670, and educated in Ireland at the free-school of Kilkenny, to the neighbourhood of which his father had been led in the course of military service. From Kilkenny he removed to Trinity College, Dublin, and thence to the Middle Temple, London, to prepare himself for the legal profession. Like many men who are placed in a similar situation, he soon deserted the law, and abandoned himself to the pursuits of polite literature. At a very early age he wrote a novel, entitled the "Incognita," which is sprightly and intricate, but not natural. This was followed, at the age of twenty-one, by his comedy of the "Old Bachelor," pronounced by Dryden the greatest *first* play that he had ever beheld. Its success acquired for the author the patronage of Lord Halifax, who immediately made him a commissioner for licensing hackney-coaches, soon after gave him a place in the pipe office, and finally conferred on him a very lucrative place in the customs. His next play, the "Double Dealer," was not very successful in representation; but his third, the comedy of "Love for Love," proved extremely popular. Not content with his fame in comedy, he now essayed tragedy; and, in 1697, produced his "Mourning Bride," the reception of which was extremely favourable. The composition of four such plays before he attained the age of twenty-eight is a remarkable proof of early genius in a line of composition demanding great observation and experience. He soon after closed his dramatic career with the "Way of the World," considered by many critics as the most perfect of his comedies, but which was notwithstanding received so coldly that he resolutely determined to relinquish a species of writing in which, upon the whole, he had been eminently successful. A masque, entitled the "Judgment of Paris," and "Semele," an opera, the latter of which was never represented, close the list of his labours for the stage. He, however, continued to write occasional verses on public subjects; and in 1710 published a collection of his plays and poems, which he dedicated to his early patron, Lord Halifax, to whose person and party he remained attached in all fortunes. The remainder of the life of Congreve was spent in polished intercourse and literary leisure; and, amidst the fierce party contention which divided almost all the other wits of the day, he pursued a

dignified neutrality, and was praised and complimented on both sides. Steele dedicated to him his "Miscellanies," and Pope his translation of the "Iliad."

On the return of his friends to power, he received the additional sinecure of secretary to the island of Jamaica; and, thus rendered affluent, seemed desirous of dropping the character of a man of letters altogether. When Voltaire, in a visit, alluded to his writings, he affected to regard them as trifles beneath him, and hinted that he only expected to be visited as a gentleman. Voltaire replied that had he been merely a gentleman he should never have been desirous of seeing him. His latter years were clouded with sickness and infirmity, and he died in January, 1729, in his sixtieth year, in London.

Congreve stands high on the list of English writers of comedy, for which distinction he is indebted less to a lively and humorous delineation of natural character than to a perpetual reciprocation of wit in his dialogue, united to originality of plot, and to new combinations of factitious manners. He drew little from common life; and if his portraits of sharpers and coquettes, men without principle and women without delicacy, are just portraiturets of the fine gentlemen and ladies of the day, the reign of Charles II. must have operated most dreadfully on the national character. His "Love for Love" still occasionally appears, but none of the other pieces can be sufficiently pruned of their licentiousness for modern representation. The "Mourning Bride" is well constructed; but the florid elevation of the language is in the highest degree unnatural. It has, however, some fine poetic passages. The poetry of Congreve is below mediocrity, with the exception of a few songs and short effusions of gaiety or satire.



Congreve was honoured with a public funeral, and his body lay in state in the Jerusalem chamber for some days. His remains were afterwards removed with great solemnity to Henry the seventh's chapel, and his body was ultimately interred in the abbey. His tomb is represented in the above cut.

CONGREVE, SIR WILLIAM, BART., inventor of the celebrated rockets called by his name. He was born in the county of Middlesex, in 1772, co-operated actively in the improvements introduced into the British army by the duke of York, was a

member of parliament, general of artillery, inspector of the royal laboratory, &c. In 1816 he accompanied the grand prince Nicholas, afterwards emperor of Russia, on his tour through England. In 1824 a company was formed for lighting the principal cities of Europe with gas, of which Congreve was at the head. He wrote an "Elementary Treatise on the Mounting of Naval Ordnance," and a "Description of the Hydro-Pneumatic Lock." He died at Toulouse, in France, May 16, 1828.

**CONINGSMARK, CHARLES JOHN.** — We know but little of the early life of this extraordinary assassin. He was a native of Sweden, and born early in the seventeenth century. In addition to holding the rank of count, he appears to have possessed a considerable fortune, and came over to this country at the same time as Charles II. returned from the continent. He is principally known in this country for the murder of Mr. Thynne. This atrocious deed, to which Coningsmark was stimulated by the hope of obtaining the hand of the countess of Ogle, a beautiful young woman to whom Mr. Thynne had been contracted, was perpetrated in Pall Mall, near the bottom of St. Alban's Street, as the unfortunate man was returning from the house of his mother-in-law, Lady Northumberland, who lived in St. James's Street. At the hour of eight on a Sunday evening, in a crowded thoroughfare, in the heart of a great metropolis, almost within sight of a royal palace, and notwithstanding a running footman with a blazing flambeau preceded the equipage, the villains having stopped and surrounded the coach, Charles Boratzi, a native of Poland, discharged a blunderbuss, loaded with bullets, at Mr. Thynne, which penetrating and dreadfully lacerating his body, he languished in great agonies a few hours and died. So flagrant, and in England so unusual, an enormity as waylaying a man in order to murder him, naturally raised the indignation of the public, and excited the vigilance of the police.

The count was seized a few days after near Gravesend in disguise, and attempting to procure a passage in an outward-bound ship. His three desperados were also soon after taken into custody, and, with Coningsmark, tried at the Old Bailey, before the chief justices Pemberton and North, the chief baron Montague, the recorder, and others. Three of the assassins after a long trial were clearly convicted of murder, as well as by their own confession as by depositions previously taken by the coroner and other strong evidence; but, strange to tell, the original proposer and promoter of all the mischief, the infamous Coningsmark, by far the most criminal, was acquitted, while the three wretched men whom he had corrupted and employed were executed, under circumstances of general hatred and indignation.

The contriver of an act at which the heart revolts thus escaping punishment was a national disappointment, and naturally exasperated the friends and family of the deceased. A writer of that period, without producing any corroborating proofs, throws out a rash charge of corruption against the presiding judge (Pemberton) and the jury. "Of the latter, many of whom were foreigners, but most of them respectable men," says a cotemporary author, "I am not prepared to speak; but, as to the judge, we must not admit lightly an accusation which would brand with everlasting infamy a man who had devoted his whole life to a profession in which eminence and

promotion are not very easily attained, but which, by toil and perseverance, assisted by lucky incidents, he had procured; nor is it probable that any dourcœur a profligate foreign adventurer could present would have seduced an eminent judge, of moderate enjoyments, to forget his duty and risk his independence, his fame, and his life. I rather impute the guilty count's acquittal to the fraudulent conduct of an interpreter employed to explain the evidence to the foreign part of the jury: he had long been connected with the count's family in some subordinate situation, appeared during the whole trial to interest himself strongly in his behalf, and was several times checked by the counsel on the part of the crown for coming forward too officiously when not called upon, and was told that he acted the part of an advocate rather than an interpreter. The Chief Justice Pemberton, I confess, appears to have had a bias in favour of the prisoner; I hope and believe not a corrupt one. It was also remarked that the three condemned were not asked, as is usual in such cases, what they had to say in their defence, why sentence should not be pronounced against them. I have perused the trial with some attention, and confess that there is not the shadow of a doubt on my mind of the count's guilt. In such infernal transactions positive evidence can very rarely be procured, as they are generally carried on in darkness and mystery; but Coningsmark's previous and frequent intercourse with the murderers, his purchasing clothes for one and weapons for another, the virulent manner in which he had long spoken of Mr. Thynne, and a singular question he directed a person to ask of the Swedish envoy, concerning the legality of marrying Lady Ogle, in case of Mr. Thynne's falling in a rencontre with him, his perpetually changing lodgings and going by a feigned name when he came to London to direct the nefarious business, and, lastly, his attempting to escape in disguise, and telling the people of the house he lodged in that he was going to Windsor, when he actually went to Gravesend, were proof circumstantial it is true, but sufficiently strong to convince most persons of his guilt. It is impossible to peruse the trial without remarking the great lenity, inclination to mercy, and scrupulous attention in every minute particular, paid to these abominable culprits. It appears to have been carried to rather a dangerous extreme with respect to them; and I am of opinion enabled the count, who was treated with too much respect and delicacy, to make impressions on the jury which ultimately tended to his acquittal. But all the pains he took, all the guilt he incurred, and the innocent blood he had shed, could not accomplish the purpose he wished. Abhorring his crime, and detesting the perpetrator of it, Lady Ogle would never admit him into her presence, and was afterwards married to the duke of Somerset, who, although she was a virgin widow, was in fact her third husband, the lady having been betrothed in her infancy to Henry, earl of Ogle, only son of Cavendish, duke of Newcastle, who died in his childhood. After escaping punishment for a crime he had committed, the count, in the midst of a career of unbridled profligacy, and with the conscience of a murderer, was put to death for a crime of which he was innocent.

"Wandering, restless, and self-tormented, over various parts of Europe, he visited the court of (I believe at that time) the duke of Hanover, whose son,



the prince of Zell, was afterwards George I., king of England. In the indiscriminate ardour of vicious passion, and taking advantages of domestic discord, he presumed to cast unhalloved looks on the princess of Zell, who had for some time lived in a comfortless state of estranged nuptial affection, the prince indulging a culpable latitude in female intercourse, whilst his wife lived almost in a state of seclusion in her own apartments. But one of the frail court favourites, a most artful creature, afterwards created duchess of Munster, having lately displeased this unfaithful husband, and being fearful of a reconciliation with his wife, saw with pleasure and privately encouraged the insolent pretensions of the count, assuring him that a man of his personal accomplishments and merit could not fail succeeding, after a little perseverance, with a lady so very ill-used."

Having at the same time excited the jealousy of the prince, by apt emissaries and distant suggestions, concerning the marked attentions and known character of Coningsmark, this abominable woman by means of a bribe prevailed on a valet of court, Werenhause, who attended the princess, to go to the count's lodging and inform him that the princess of Zell wished to speak with him immediately on an affair of importance. The man of gallantry, flattering himself that the lady's reserve had at length relaxed, hurried to what he considered as an appointment; while the insidious contriver of the meditated mischief, repairing without delay to the prince and affecting a concern for the honour of his house, told him she could no longer be a silent observer of the flagitious conduct of his wife,—that if any doubt remained of her infidelity his highness had now an opportunity of being an eye-witness of his own dishonour,—that the favoured lover, at the moment she spoke, was with the princess in her bed-chamber! the conspirers against this unfortunate lady having chosen an hour when they knew she would be in that place, and the valet being previously instructed to which room he was to conduct the count. The irritated husband, constitutionally and ungovernably passionate, rushed furiously, sword in hand, to the apartment, and meeting the count at the door just returning from the princess, who had assured him she had never sent, he, without uttering a word, plunged his weapon into the bosom of the assassin, whose miserable death furnished another illustration of the fact that the moral dispensations of Providence are sure even in this world to overtake and punish the perpetrators of great offences against the laws which God has prescribed for the governance of man.

CONON, an Athenian commander, who was one of the generals who succeeded Alcibiades in the command of the fleet in the Peloponnesian war, and engaging Callicratidas, was defeated, but afterwards gained a victory, in which the Spartan commander lost his life. On the subjugation of Athens, B. C. 405, he remained at Cyprus, forming plans for the restoration of the prosperity of his country. By persuading Artaxerxes, king of Persia, that the superiority of the Lacedæmonians was injurious to the safety of his dominions, and that they could only be checked by rendering the Athenians able to oppose them, he procured the command of a Persian fleet, B. C. 398, attacked the Spartan admiral Pisander near Cnidos, and, killing him with his own hand, defeated the Spartans, who lost the greatest part of their fleet. The empire of the sea was immediately

transferred, and the power of the Lacedæmonians in Asia Minor immediately ceased. Conon then returned to Attica, and employed his sailors and workmen in restoring the fortifications of Athens. He fell a prey to the hatred and envy of the Lacedæmonians, who, in a treaty of peace with the Persians, accused him of plotting the delivery of Æolia and Ionia to his countrymen, and of the misappropriation of the king's money and forces. He was accordingly apprehended, and, as some writers relate, was put to death at Susa; others say that he made his escape; but the event is doubtful.

CONSTANCE FALCON, or PHAULKON, a political adventurer in the seventeenth century, whose proper name was Constantin. He was born in the island of Cephalonia; and, at the age of twelve, he embarked for England, whence he went to the East Indies. Having gained some property in the service of the company, he undertook a trading voyage to the coast of Malabar, where he was shipwrecked and lost every thing; but, meeting with an ambassador from the king of Siam to Persia who had suffered the same misfortune, he procured a bark, and conveyed the Siamese envoy to his own country. The latter recommended Constance to the barcalon, or prime minister, who took him into his service. On the death of his master, the king offered him the same post, which he accordingly accepted. He undertook the project of introducing Christianity among the Siamese, and induced the king of Siam to send an embassy to Louis XIV. The ambassadors died on their route; but the French monarch, hearing of the scheme, sent two envoys, with some Jesuits, to Siam. French troops were also introduced into the country. These circumstances aroused the jealousy of the native princes and nobility, the result of which was a conspiracy, which terminated in the dethronement of the king and the death of Constance, who was beheaded.

CONSTANT, BENJAMIN, a distinguished French statesman, who was born at Geneva. He took an active part in the French revolution, but was directed to quit Paris by the first consul. He afterwards returned, and was alternately favourable to Bonaparte and the dynasty of the Bourbons. He ultimately died at Paris in 1830. "Walstein," a tragedy in five acts, was his most important literary production.

CONSTANTINE.—Caius Flavius Valerius Aurelius Claudius Constantine, surnamed the Great, son of the emperor Constantius Chlorus and of his wife Helena, was born A. D. 274. When Constantine's father was associated in the government by Dioclesian the son was retained at court as a hostage, but was educated with the greatest care. After Dioclesian and Maximian Hercules had laid down the reins of government, Constantine fled to Britain to his father, to escape the machinations of Galerius. After the death of his father he was chosen emperor by the soldiery, in the year 306. Galerius was very unwilling to allow him the title of "Augustus," and gave him that of "Cæsar" only. Constantine, however, took possession of the countries which had been subject to his father, viz., Gaul, Spain, and Britain. He overcame the Franks, who had formerly overrun the territory of Gaul, made prisoners of two of their leaders, followed them over the Rhine, surprised and defeated them. He then directed his arms against Maxentius, who had joined Maximian against him.

In the campaign in Italy he saw, it is said, a flaming cross in the heavens, beneath the sun, bearing the inscription, "*In hoc signo vinces*."—Under this sign thou shalt conquer. In the following night Christ himself appeared to him, and commanded him to take for his standard an imitation of the fiery cross which he had seen. He accordingly caused a standard to be made in this form, which was called the *labarum*. Some days after this he vanquished the army of Maxentius, under the walls of Rome, and drove it into the Tiber. He then entered the city in triumph, set at liberty all whom Maxentius had unjustly imprisoned, and pardoned all who had taken up arms against him. He was declared by the senate chief Augustus and *pontifex maximus*. In the year 313, together with Licinius, he published the memorable edict of toleration, in favour of the Christians. By this every one was allowed to embrace the religion most agreeable to his own mode of thinking, and all the property was restored to the Christians that had been taken from them during the persecutions. They were also made eligible to public offices. This edict marks the period of the triumph of the cross and the downfall of paganism.

Constantine had married his daughter to Licinius; but the latter, jealous of his fame, conceived a mortal hatred against him, which he displayed by persecuting the Christians. Both emperors took up arms, and met in Pannonia, A. D. 314. Constantine, surrounded by bishops and priests, besought the assistance of the God of the Christians; while Licinius, calling upon his soothsayers and magicians, relied upon the protection of their gods. Licinius was defeated, but the conqueror granted him peace. He however renewed hostilities, was vanquished again, taken prisoner, and put to death at Constantine's command. Thus the latter became, in 325, the sole head of the eastern and western empires. His first and chief cares were the establishment of peace and order, and the propagation of his religion. Many beneficial decrees were proclaimed by him. Amongst these were those which abolished all the establishments of debauchery, ordered the children of the poor to be supported at his expense, gave permission to complain of his officers, and promised that the emperor would not only hear complaints, but compensate the complainants for injuries received when they were proved to exist. He diminished the land-taxes one quarter; and, to secure a fair distribution of them, he caused a new valuation of estates to be taken. The state treasury had always been enriched by the property of criminals; but Constantine spared the property of their wives, and ameliorated the condition of their children. Death in prison, he said, was a cruel punishment for the innocent, and an insufficient penalty for the guilty; he therefore ordered all trials of prisoners to take place at once. He forbade the use of unwholesome dungeons and oppressive chains. The reason which he assigned was that it was his duty to secure the person of the accused, but not to injure him. He gave leave to sick persons, widows, and orphans, to appeal from the local magistrates, and refused this privilege to their adversaries.

It had been customary for the heirs of a person deceased to divide his slaves amongst them; Constantine forbade the separation, in these cases, of husbands from their wives and of parents from their children. Divorces had been very common among

the Romans, but he made them much more difficult. To the Christians he gave permission not only to erect churches, but to be remunerated for the cost of them from his domains. Amidst all the cares of government and the occupations of war, he found leisure to assemble the council of Arles, to put an end to the schism of the Donatists. The œcumenical council held at Nice in Bithynia, A. D. 325, was attended by him in person; and, in November, 329, he laid the foundation of a new capital of the empire at Byzantium, upon the Bosphorus, in Thrace. The city of Byzantium had been almost entirely destroyed by Severus; it was rebuilt by Constantine, enlarged, and adorned with open squares, fountains, a circus, and palaces, and called by his own name. Highly favoured by nature, it soon rivalled Rome herself. All the wealth of the empire was collected in the east; thither the nations poured their tribute and their trade; and Rome, the ancient mistress of the world, sunk from her supremacy. Constantine divided the empire into four parts, which were governed by four pretorian prefects; but he contributed to bring much evil on the empire by employing mercenary troops to guard the frontiers; and the legions which had occupied the frontiers were dispersed in the provinces. Towards the close of his life he favoured the Arians, to which he was induced by Eusebius of Nicomedia, and he even banished many catholic bishops. In the year 337 he fell sick in the neighbourhood of Nicomedia, was baptized, and died after a reign of thirty-one years.

Constantine committed a great political error in dividing his empire among his three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans. The condemnation of his son Crispus, who had been falsely accused by his stepmother of an attempt to seduce her, has always been considered as a stain on his memory. His zeal for Christianity appears to have been excited not less by the knowledge that the religion which was embraced by a majority of the inhabitants of the Roman empire must prevail, and that of course the strength of the government must be increased by protecting it, than by a wish to apply its consoling powers to the relief of a heavy conscience. He has been accused of inordinate ambition, excessive liberality, and an oriental fondness of parade. But he was brave at the head of his army, mild and indulgent in his intercourse with his subjects, the favourite of his people, the terror of his foes. In the year 332 he fought successfully against the Goths, who had already experienced his power. His eldest son gained many victories over them, and about 100,000 of the enemy perished by the sword or by hunger. Constantine made use of his advantages only to grant them a favourable peace, upon terms equally beneficial to himself. He took this opportunity to rid his empire of a disgraceful tribute, which his predecessors had paid to these barbarians, and to secure his frontier upon the Danube. The Sarmatians, who had been expelled their country by the slaves whom they had injudiciously armed against the Goths and who took refuge in his dominions, he provided with lands in Thrace, Lesser Scythia, Macedonia, and in Italy itself. He even resolved, in his fifty-sixth year and but a short time before his death, to take the field against the Persians. He was fond of the sciences, as well as of arms, and gave them his protection. He read much, and wrote nearly all his own letters. In Eusebius we find



many proofs of his theological learning. Among all the writers who have attempted to describe the character, influence, and policy of Constantine, Gibbon, from the extent of his researches and the profoundness of his views, appears to deserve the first place.

CONTE', NICHOLAS JACQUES, a painter and chemist, but particularly distinguished for the ingenuity of his mechanical contrivances, was born at St. Céneri, near Seez (department of Orme), in 1755, and died in 1805. His mechanical genius was displayed, at the age of twelve years, by the construction of a violin (which was used at several concerts) with no other instrument than a knife. At the age of eighteen, without having received any instructions, he executed several paintings of the hospital of Seez. This success did not prevent him from the cultivation of the physical and mathematical sciences. He went to Paris, and invented a hydraulic machine, which was mentioned with approbation by the Academy of Sciences. In 1793 he was appointed one of the committee for making experiments in regard to the decomposition of water by iron, instead of sulphuric acid; and his activity and skill on this commission occasioned his appointment of director of the acrostatic school at Meudon. Conté suggested the idea of establishing a place of deposit for useful machines, tools, &c., in consequence of which the conservatory was instituted. He afterwards introduced the manufacture of an excellent kind of crayons into France, and established a great manufactory, which still supplies all France with them. He was appointed in 1798 to accompany the French expedition to Egypt, and his services were of the greatest value. He constructed a furnace on the Pharos, near Alexandria, in the space of two days for red-hot balls, with which the English were repelled, and thus time was given for fortifying that place.

The machines and instruments of the army having fallen into the hands of the Arabs, Conté was obliged to furnish every thing, even the tools: he constructed windmills, machines for the mint at Cairo, for an oriental printing establishment, for the fabrication of gunpowder, &c., and cannon foundries, manufactured steel, paper, swords for the soldiers, utensils for the hospitals, instruments for the engineers, telescopes for the astronomers, microscopes for the naturalists, drums, trumpets, in short, every thing necessary for such a military and scientific expedition in such a country as Egypt. On his return to France he was appointed to superintend the execution of the great work on Egypt, and invented a graving machine, which, by performing certain parts of the labour, spared the artist much time and trouble. The death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly attached, threw him into a lingering disease, and he survived her but a short time. Conté was a member of the legion of honour. His simplicity, integrity, courage, disinterestedness, and warmth of affection rendered him no less amiable and estimable in private life than his science and ingenuity made him valuable to the nation.

COOK, JAMES.—This distinguished English mariner and geographical discoverer was born at Marton in Yorkshire, October 27, 1728. His parents were of the class of labourers. All the education he received amounted only to English reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic. He was then at the age of thirteen bound apprentice to a small shopkeeper in

the neighbouring town of Snaith, which is on the sea-coast. Here he became so attached to a sea-life that he could not rest till his wish was gratified; and his master was at last induced to let him off, when he entered himself as one of the crew of a vessel en-



gaged in the coal-trade. At the commencement of the French war, in 1755, he entered the royal navy. In 1759 he was made master of the Mercury, which belonged to the squadron sent against Quebec, and performed the hazardous service of taking soundings in the river St. Lawrence, opposite the French encampment. He also made a chart of the river St. Lawrence below Quebec in a very satisfactory manner. After the capture of Quebec he assisted at the taking of Newfoundland, and afterwards made a survey of the harbour of Placentia.

At the end of 1762 Cook returned to England; but, the next year, he went again to Newfoundland as marine surveyor. After again visiting England he went out in the same capacity with Sir Hugh Palliser, appointed governor of Labrador and Newfoundland. In this situation he made himself known to the Royal Society by the communication of an observation on a solar eclipse, in 1766, with the longitude of the place deduced from it. In 1768 he was appointed to the command of the Endeavour, a vessel destined to convey to the Pacific Ocean persons employed by government to make observations on the transit of Venus. He sailed from Deptford, June 30, 1768, with the rank of lieutenant in the navy. He was accompanied by Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Banks, and the Swedish naturalist Doctor Daniel Solander. The transit of Venus, June 3, 1769, was advantageously observed at Otaheite; the neighbouring islands were explored, and lieutenant Cook then sailed for New Zealand, where he arrived in October. Six months were employed in examining the shores of the islands, after which he took his departure for New Holland, the eastern coast of which he attentively surveyed.

On his return Cook was raised to the rank of master and commander in the navy. An account of the voyage drawn up by Dr. Hawkesworth was speedily published, and a second expedition was planned to explore the antarctic regions, for the purpose of ascertaining the existence or non-existence of

a circum-polar southern continent. On this occasion two ships were employed—the *Resolution*, of which Captain Cook had the command, and the *Adventure* under Captain Furneaux. Doctor John Reinhold Forster and his son went out as naturalists, Mr. Hodges as painter, and Messrs. Wales and Bayley as astronomers. The voyage was commenced in July, 1772; and after proceeding as far south as the latitude of  $71^{\circ}$ , where a barrier of ice opposed any further progress, discovering the island of New Georgia, in  $54^{\circ}$  south latitude, and visiting Otaheite and other places, Captain Cooke returned to England in 1775. So successful were the means employed by Captain Cook for the prevention of disease among his crew, that only one man was lost by sickness during the expedition. The captain having communicated to the Royal Society a paper describing the regulations and remedies which he had adopted, he was chosen a fellow of that body, and for his experiments rewarded by the Copleian gold medal. Government rewarded him with the rank of post-captain in the navy, and the appointment of captain in Greenwich Hospital. The narrative of this voyage was drawn up by Captain Cook himself, and merely arranged for the press by Doctor Douglas, afterwards bishop of Salisbury.

In July, 1776, Cook sailed on an expedition to ascertain whether any communication existed between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans in the arctic regions. In this voyage he again commanded the *Resolution*, which was accompanied by the *Discovery*, and explored a considerable extent of the western coast of North America. He also discovered the Sandwich Islands; and to Owhyhee, one of this group, he returned from his American survey, to pass the winter of 1778. In February Captain Cook sailed for Kamtschatka, but was compelled by an accident to put back to Owhyhee. A boat having been stolen by one of the islanders, the captain went on shore to seize the king of Owhyhee, and keep him as a hostage till the boat was restored. The people, however, were not disposed to submit to this insult. Their resistance brought on hostilities, and, in attempting to reach his boat, Captain Cook and some of his attendants became victims to the fury of the irritated islanders. The death of this great seaman took place February 14, 1779. A medal in commemoration of him was struck by order of the Royal Society; his eulogy was pronounced in the Florentine Academy, and was made a prize subject by one of the French scientific societies.

COOKE, GEORGE FREDERIC, a theatrical performer of great eminence. He was born in Westminster, April 17, 1756. His father was a subaltern officer in the army, who, dying when young, left his wife unprovided for. The youth evinced an early taste for his future profession; and, being apprenticed to a printer, he neglected the labours of the office, and engaged his companions to assist him in performing plays. His indentures were consequently cancelled, and he was dismissed. He was then tried in the navy; but his inclination for the stage overcame all restraint, and he at length joined an itinerant company of actors. Here he was quite in his element; and, after having acquired a competent acquaintance with stage business, he became the hero of the scene at York, Newcastle, Chester, Manchester, Liverpool, and other places. He acquired so much fame that in 1794 he was engaged by the manager of the Dub-

lin theatre; and, after performing that season with great success, he returned to England.

In 1797 Cooke went again to Dublin, and continued there three years. At length he made his appearance at Covent Garden Theatre, Oct. 31, 1800, in the character of Richard III. His reputation was at once established as a histrionic performer of the first class; and, after repeating the part of Richard III. several times, he acted Iago, Macbeth, Shylock, Sir Giles Overreach, Sir Pertinax Macsycophant, Kiteley, &c., with at least equal applause, if not with equal skill and discrimination. The talents of Cooke were obscured by indulgence in pernicious habits of intemperance, which ultimately destroyed his popularity. Owing to the irregularity of his conduct, Cooke at length became the plague and terror of English managers, few if any of whom probably regretted his removal to the United States of America, where he had formed a theatrical engagement. In that country he displayed the same powerful abilities and the same vicious weakness which had distinguished him in England. Death, hastened by intemperance, put an end to his career, March 25, 1812.

COOMBE, WILLIAM, the author of several popular works, including "The Diaboliad," "The Devil upon Two Sticks in England," "A Continuation and Imitation of Le Sage's Novel," but far inferior in spirit and graphic delineation to the original, "The Tour of Dr. Syntax in Search of the Picturesque," &c. The last-mentioned poem was originally written for Mr. Ackermann, and published by him in the "Poetical Magazine," with Rowlandson's illustrations. Mr. Ackermann, in 1812, published a "History of Westminster Abbey," in two volumes, from the pen of this gentleman, who also was a principal contributor of essays, short pieces illustrative of engravings, &c., to many of his miscellanies. Mr. Coombe's last poem was the "History of Johnny Quæ Genus," which like his "Syntax," "English Dance of Death," and "Dance of Life," was accompanied by Rowlandson's prints. In his youth Mr. Coombe inherited a moderate fortune, which he soon dissipated; and, during the last years of his long life, literature was his principal support. He died on the 18th of June, 1823.

COOPER, ANTHONY ASHLEY, first earl of Shaftesbury, and a statesman of considerable eminence in the reign of Charles II., was born in 1621. At the age of fifteen he entered Exeter College, Oxford, whence he removed to Lincoln's Inn, with a view to the study of law, but was chosen representative for Tewkesbury, in 1640, while only in his nineteenth year. At the commencement of the civil war he sided with the king's party, though he appeared to deem mutual concession necessary. In consequence of this opinion, finding himself distrusted by the court, he went over to the parliament, and in 1644 stormed Warham, and reduced all the adjacent parts. He had some share in the private negotiation between the king and Lord Hollis, at the fruitless treaty of Uxbridge, and is said to have contrived the insurrection of the club men. When Cromwell turned out the long parliament Sir Anthony was one of the members of the convention which succeeded. He was nevertheless a subscriber to the protestation which charged the protector with arbitrary government, a fact which did not prevent him from becoming one of his privy council.



After the deposition of Richard Cromwell he was privately engaged in a plan for the restoration of Charles II., which he subsequently aided with all his influence. He was one of the twelve members who carried the invitation to the king, and was soon after made a privy counsellor and a commissioner for the trial of the regicides. In 1661 he was raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Ashley, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer and a lord of the treasury. He was also a leading member of the "cabal." He promoted the declaration for liberty of conscience; but, on the other hand, he supported the Dutch war, and issued illegal writs for the election of members of parliament during a recess, and in other respects exhibited much latitude of principle and of practice. In 1672 he was created earl of Shaftesbury and lord high chancellor. His conduct on the bench was able and impartial. He had not, however, been more than a year in office when the seals were taken from him; and from that moment he became one of the most powerful leaders of the opposition. For his warmth in asserting that a prorogation of fifteen months amounted to a dissolution of parliament he was committed to the Tower, and was not released until after a full submission.

Whether the Popish plot, in 1678, was of his contrivance is uncertain; but he made use of it to force out the earl of Danby's administration, and produce the formation of a new one, in which he was himself made president of the council. Amid many violent party proceedings which followed he was the author of that bulwark of liberty, the *habeas corpus* act. He only remained in the administration four months, when the interest of the duke of York once more prevailed against a statesman whose endeavours to promote a bill for his exclusion from the succession had been unremitting. On his dismissal from office he was charged with having attempted subornation of perjury. He was in consequence once more committed to the Tower, and tried for high treason, but was acquitted by the jury amidst prodigious acclamations of the people—a circumstance which stimulated Dryden to the production of his celebrated poem of "Absalom and Achiophel," in which Shaftesbury is so unfavourably conspicuous. Not long after this acquittal the earl withdrew to Holland, where he arrived in November, 1682, and where he died of the gout in his stomach on the 22d of January, 1683. The career of this able but dubious and versatile statesman forms the best commentary on his public principles, and declares him to be rather a bold, active, and enterprising man of expediency than a great politician. Yet the character of a man sincerely esteemed by Locke, and other men of undoubted principle, is not to be implicitly taken from the odium excited by opposing party feelings. On the whole this extraordinary person appears to have possessed many vices, always redeemed by a great portion of ability, and a leaning to broad and liberal principles of government when he could freely display it.

COOPER, ANTHONY ASHLEY, third earl of Shaftesbury, a celebrated philosophical and moral writer, was born at Exeter House, in London, in February, 1671. He was grandson to the subject of the preceding article, who early instructed him in Greek and Latin, placing about him a female who spoke those languages with considerable fluency. He could read them both with ease when only eleven

years of age. He was then placed at a private school, and finally removed to Winchester. At the latter establishment he did not remain long, but went on his travels earlier than was customary. On his return to England, in 1689, he became the representative of Poole in Dorsetshire, and distinguished himself while in parliament by his support of measures favourable to public liberty. His health suffered so much by parliamentary attendance that in 1698 he gave up his seat; and, visiting Holland in the assumed character of a student of physic, he prosecuted his studies and became intimately acquainted with Bayle, Le Clerc, and other literary men.

On his return to England he succeeded to the earldom; and, although not a constant attendant of the House of Lords, he was always ready on important occasions. King William offered him the post of secretary of state, which his health would not allow him to accept. On the accession of Anne he took leave of public life and once more visited Holland, to which he was much attached, where he remained for two years. In 1708, in consequence of the extravagances of the French prophets, he published his "Letter on Enthusiasm," in which he opposed prosecution and personal punishments. In 1709 he published his "Moralists, a Philosophical Rhapsody," being an eloquent defence of the doctrine of a Deity and providence on the Platonic model, which piece is ranked by Bishop Hurd among the most finished productions of the kind in the English language. In 1710 appeared his "Soliloquy, or Advice to an Author"; after which his health declined so rapidly that he was advised to fix his residence at Naples, in which city he died in February, 1713, in the forty-second year of his age, but not before he had finished his "Judgment of Hercules," and "Letter concerning Design." His works appeared in three volumes, in 1713, under the title of "Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions, and Times." In 1716 some of his private letters upon philosophical and theological subjects were published, under the title of "Several Letters, written by a Noble Lord to a Young Man at the University," and in 1721 another collection, entitled "Letters from the Right Honourable the earl of Shaftesbury to Robert Molesworth, Esquire," &c. The principal attention of Lord Shaftesbury was, however, directed to the writings of antiquity, on which he built a civil, social, and theistic kind of philosophy. In his "Essay on Wit and Humour" he defends the application of ridicule as a test of truth in regard to religion as well as other matters. His principal merit is a lively and elegant mode of discussion, somewhat fettered by his uncommon solicitude in regard to style, to which no English author has attended with more assiduity. In all his works Lord Shaftesbury appears a zealous advocate for liberty and a firm believer in the fundamental doctrines of natural religion; but, although he professed a respect for Christianity, he was doubtless sceptical in regard to revelation, and sometimes indulged his humour on scriptural points with correspondent indecorum. In a moral point of view his character was very estimable both as a public and as a private man, and obtained the suffrages of all who knew him.

COOPER, SIR ASTLEY PASTON.—This highly-distinguished surgeon was born at Gadesborough in the county of Hertford, August 23, 1768. He was one of the surgeons to Guy's Hospital, and lec-



turer on surgery and anatomy in St. Thomas's Hospital, London, as well as surgeon to the king, and in July 1821 was created a baronet. Sir Astley Cooper is spoken of as having attained to the "highest eminence in the surgical profession;" and no one who has heard him lecture, witnessed his operations, or studied his published works, will question his claims to this distinction. His principal works are the splendid volume on the "Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Inguinal and Congenital Hernia," which appeared in 1804, the continuation and completion of the same work in the volume on "Crural and Umbilical Hernia," in 1807, his work on "Dislocations and Fractures," and the "Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Surgery." He was the first to operate for carotid aneurism; and the whole profession have borne witness to the genius which suggested this great operation, and its blessings are now almost the daily occurrences of practical surgery. Sir Astley was also the first to tie the aorta—perhaps the boldest attempt of the surgical art—and, although the operation was unsuccessful, still it was shown not to be immediately, we may add necessarily, destructive to life.

COOTE, SIR EYRE, a distinguished military commander, who acted a very important part against Hyder Ally in India. He was born in Ireland in 1726, and died at Madras in 1783. A monument has been erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey.

COPERNICUS, NICHOLAS.—This distinguished astronomer was born at Thorn, on the Vistula, in February 1473. It is supposed that his family came originally from Westphalia, as his mother was sister to the bishop of Ermeland. From a school at Thorn Copernicus went to Cracow, where he studied medicine and received the degree of doctor. At the same time he studied mathematics and astronomy. The fame of Peurbach and Regiomontanus, the restorers of astronomy in Europe, excited his emulation; and, at the age of twenty-three, he went to Italy, where the arts and sciences were beginning to flourish, after the fall of the Byzantine empire. At Bologna he was instructed in astronomy by Dominic Maria, whose intimate friend he became. In 1500 he taught mathematics at Rome with great success, and was already placed by the side of Regiomontanus. From Rome he returned to his own country, where his uncle made him a canon in the cathedral of Frauenburg. In 1521 he was sent by the chapter to the diet of Graudentz, one of the principal objects of which was to put an end to the difficulties which had arisen from the irregular coining of money. Here he proposed a plan for establishing a general mint at the public expense; but the cities of Elbing, Dantzic, and Thorn would not give up their right of coining, and the plan of Copernicus was not carried into effect. He now applied his whole strength to the contemplation of the sublime objects of nature. Among the many hypotheses, with regard to our planetary system, which had been advanced during the previous 2000 years, one had at last prevailed, the most ingenious, and artificial, and the most wonderful mixture of sagacity and error which the human mind has ever conceived. Pythagoras, Aristotle, Plato, Hipparchus, Archimedes, and others, had all adopted it. It was called the system of Ptolemy.

Copernicus doubted whether the motions of the heavenly bodies could be so confused and so complicated as this hypothesis would make them; for na-

ture follows, he thought, more simple laws; and, as soon as these are found, they must explain with simplicity the most complicated appearances. He found in the writings of the ancients that Nicetas, Heraclides, and Ecphontus had thought of the possibility of a motion of the earth, and this induced him to examine the subject more fully. The hypothesis of Aristarchus of Samos—that the earth revolves in an oblique circle around the sun, and also revolves daily on its own axis—Copernicus could not yet have seen; for it is found in no work previous to his time, except the "Arenario" of Archimedes, which was first printed at Venice at a later period. Copernicus now assumed that the sun was the centre of the system,—that the earth was a planet, like Mars and Venus,—and that all the planets revolve round the sun. When he afterwards described their paths, he found that these circles, notwithstanding their simplicity, fully explained all the motions of the heavenly bodies, and that the apparent stations and retrogradations of the planets necessarily resulted from the motion of the earth. Thus was discovered the true system of the universe; and Copernicus stands, as it were, upon the boundary line of a new era. He died in June, 1543, in the seventy-first year of his age.

The great and excellent character of this philosopher best appears in the letter with which he addresses his work to the pope. Excommunication, however, was issued from the Vatican against Copernicus, and it was not till 278 years after the publication of the work that the papal court annulled the sentence. Let us review the progress of Copernicus' discovery. He commences his labours at a time when the belief in the immobility of the earth is universal. He conceives the idea of its motion, and pursues it with unwearied diligence, not for a few years, but though the greater part of his life, constantly comparing it with the appearances in the heavens. He at last confirms his idea, and thus becomes the founder of a new system of astronomy. All this he did, a hundred years before the invention of telescopes, with miserable wooden instruments, on which the lines were often only marked with ink. In his immortal work, dedicated to the pope, Paul III., "*De Orbium Cœlestium Revolutionibus*," libri vi., which was first published at Nuremberg, in 1543, his system is developed. Besides this principal work we have by the same author "*Astronomia Instaurata*," and a work, "*De Lateribus et Angulis Triangulorum*." His principal work was completed in 1530; but he determined to publish it only at the repeated solicitations of his friends. As the first impression appeared in 1543, Copernicus enjoyed but for a very short time the pleasure of seeing his work in the hands of the world. He there advances his system merely as a hypothesis which explains in a more simple and natural manner than the previous ones the phenomena of the heavens. This was a precaution which the prejudices of the times obliged him to take; but an inspection of the book shows with what full and thorough conviction he was persuaded that his system was the only possible one. Count Sierakowski erected a monument to his memory, in St. Anne's church at Cracow, with this inscription, taken from the Bible:—*Sta, sol, ne moveare*. Thorwaldsen, the greatest sculptor of the age, has executed a colossal statue of Copernicus for the city of Cracow, which is one of the most noble specimens of modern art.



**COPLEY, JOHN SINGLETON**, a self-taught and distinguished painter, who was born in 1738 at Boston, in the United States of America. Copley began to paint at a very early age; and pieces, executed by him in Boston before (to use his own words) he had seen any tolerable picture, and certainly before he could have received any instruction in the art of painting from the lips of a master, show his natural talent, and, in fact, were unsurpassed by his later productions. He did not visit Italy till 1774. In 1776 he came to England; but, as the struggle between England and America had begun in 1775, there was neither a good opportunity for Mr. Copley to return to his native land, which he always seems to have had in view, nor was there much hope of success for an artist in the convulsed state of the country. He therefore devoted himself to portrait painting in London, and was chosen a member of the Royal Academy. His first picture which may be called historical was the Youth rescued from a Shark; but the picture styled Death of Lord Chat-ham, which represents the great orator fainting in the House of Lords after the memorable speech in favour of America, and contains at the same time the portraits of all the leading men of that house, at once established his fame. In 1790 Copley was sent by the city of London to Hanover, to take the portraits of the four Hanoverian officers, commanders of regiments associated with the British troops under General Eliot (afterwards Lord Heathfield) at the defence of Gibraltar, in order to introduce them in the large picture which he was about making for the city of the siege and relief of Gibraltar, which was afterwards placed in the council-chamber of Guild-hall. Mr. Copley pursued his profession with unabated ardour until his sudden death in 1815. Besides the pictures already mentioned, and a number of portraits including those of several members of the royal family, the most distinguished of his productions are Major Pierson's Death on the Island of Jersey, Charles I. in the House of Commons, demanding of the Speaker Lenthall the five impeached members, containing the portraits of the most distinguished members of that house, the Surrender of Admiral de Winter to Lord Duncan on board the Venerable, off Camperdown, Samuel and Eli, &c., of all of which engravings exist, though of some (for instance, of the last-mentioned piece) they are extremely rare.

**CORAM, THOMAS**.—This eminent and philanthropic individual was originally a seaman on board a merchant vessel; and, having by his industry acquired the rank of master, he came to London, where he for many years engaged himself assiduously in the formation of the Foundling Hospital, an establishment every way worthy of its benevolent founder. He died in 1751, and was interred in the chapel of the hospital.

**CORBET, RICHARD**.—This distinguished poet and divine was born at the close of the sixteenth century, and was educated at Christ Church, Oxford. He rose rapidly in the church, and in 1629 was made bishop of Oxford. He died in 1635.

**CORDAY D'ARMANS, MARIE ANNE CHARLOTTE**.—This celebrated female was born at Saint Saturnin, near Sees in Normandy, in the year 1768. With the charms of her sex she united a rare courage. Her lover, an officer in the garrison at Caen, was accused by Marat as a conspirator against the republic,

and assassinated by villains hired for that purpose. This excited Charlotte Corday to revenge. History had inspired her with a deep-rooted hatred against all oppressors, and she determined to free her country from Marat, whom she considered as the head of those monsters called *buveurs de sang*—the drinkers of blood. Another motive confirmed her purpose. Many deputies, such as Barbaroux, Louvet, Gaudet, and others, who were persecuted by Marat and afterwards proscribed, to whose opinions she had attached herself, invoked the assistance of Frenchmen in behalf of liberty now expiring beneath the horrors of the times. Charlotte then left home, entered Paris July 12, 1793, and went twice to Marat's house, but was not admitted. On the same evening she wrote to him as follows:—"Citizen, I have just now come from Caen. Your love for your country no doubt makes you desirous of being informed of the unhappy transactions in that part of the republic. Grant me an interview for a moment. I have important discoveries to make to you." The following day came; and, with a dagger in her bosom, she proceeded to the house of Marat, who, just on the point of coming out of his bath, immediately gave orders that she should be admitted. The assemblies at Calvados were the first subjects of conversation, and Marat heard with eagerness the names of those who were present at them. "All these," he exclaimed, "shall be guillotined." At these words Charlotte plunged her dagger into his bosom, and he expired with the words, "To me, my friend?" Meanwhile she remained calm and tranquil as the priestess before the altar in the midst of the tumult and confusion. She was afterwards conducted as a prisoner to the Abbaye; and a young man, who begged to die in her place, was also condemned to death. Her first care was to emplace the forgiveness of her father for disposing of her life without his knowledge. She then wrote to Barbaroux as follows:—"To-morrow, at five o'clock, my trial begins, and on the same day I hope to meet with Brutus and the other patriots in Elysium."

She appeared before the revolutionary tribunal with a dignified air, and her replies were firm and noble. She spoke of her deed as a duty which she owed her country. Her defender (Chaveau-Lagarde full of astonishment at such courage, cried out, "You hear the accused herself! She confesses her crime; she admits that she has coolly reflected upon it; she conceals no circumstances of it; and she wishes for no defence. This unshaken calmness, this total abandonment of herself, these appearances of the utmost internal tranquillity, are not natural! Such appearances are to be explained only by political fanaticism, which armed her hand with the dagger. To you then, gentlemen of the jury, it belongs to judge of what weight this moral view may be in the scale of justice." His words could make no impression on the minds of the judges. After her condemnation she thanked her defender with these words: "I would willingly give you some token of the esteem with which you have inspired me. These gentlemen, however, have just informed me that my property is forfeited; but I have incurred some small debts during my imprisonment, and I hereby transfer the obligation to you." She was conducted to the scaffold in a rude mantle, and passed with a smiling countenance through the crowd by whom she was pursued with shouts of exe-

cration. She retained her presence of mind to the last. A voice from the multitude exclaimed, "She is greater than Brutus!" It was Adam Lux, a deputy from the city of Mentz, who, fired with admiration, wrote to the tribunal, requesting to die like Charlotte Corday. She was guillotined July 17, 1793.—Modern history presents many similar instances of individuals who have been driven by a sense of duty operating on an excited imagination to attempt the lives of important men. Sand, the murderer of Kotzebue, Louvel, who killed the duke de Berri, Staps, who attempted the life of Napoleon, and Lohning, a German student who attempted to destroy a political leader in Nassau, were all actuated by this motive, which has been in late times much oftener the occasion of such attempts than the desire of personal vengeance.

**CORELLI, ARCANGELO.**—This celebrated Italian musician was born at Fusignano in 1653, and distinguished himself at an early age both as a composer and performer on the violin. His first instructor was Simonelli, a singer in the papal chapel. In 1686 James II. sent an ambassador to Rome, with considerable pomp, for the purpose of cultivating a good understanding with the pope. This gave occasion to various festivities in that city; and, among others, a great musical entertainment was given by the celebrated Christina queen of Sweden, who, since her abdication, had fixed her residence there. On this occasion an allegorical opera, written for the purpose of celebrating the accession of a catholic prince to the throne of England, was performed. This drama was written by the celebrated poet Alessandro Guidi, and the music composed by Bernardo Pasquini. The drama, which is to be found in the Verona edition of Guidi's poems, is, according to the taste of the times, of an allegorical nature. The characters are London, the Thames, Fame, and a good and evil genius with a chorus of 100 singers. Corelli, as the greatest violinist of the time, was selected to lead the orchestra, which consisted of 150 performers.

About the year 1700 Corelli was leader of the opera band at Rome. At this time, and during the rest of his life, he enjoyed the favour of Cardinal Ottoboni, a liberal and enlightened patron of poetry and the fine arts. He conducted the musical entertainments given by the cardinal in his palace every Monday evening. Here he became acquainted with Handel. One evening a serenata composed by Handel, entitled "*Il Trionfo del Tempo*" (afterwards brought out in London, with English words, under the title of "*The Triumph of Time and Truth*"), was performed. Corelli in leading the band did not play the overture to the satisfaction of the composer, who, with his usual impetuosity, snatched the violin out of his hand. Corelli, with that gentleness which marked his character, merely said, "*Mio caro Sasone, questa musica è nello stilo Francese, di che io non m'intendo*"—"My dear Saxon, this music is in the French style, which I do not understand."

Corelli's solos for the violin, the best and most popular of all his works, were published at Rome in 1700, and dedicated to Sophia Charlotte, electress of Brandenburg, but the concluding part of his life was melancholy. Younger players began to surpass him in power of execution, and the mortifications he suffered on that account preyed on his sensitive mind and shortened his days.

For many years after the death of this great musician its anniversary was commemorated by a solemn service in the Pantheon, in which pieces selected from his own works were performed by a numerous orchestra. Sir John Hawkins mentions that, in 1730, an eminent master of his acquaintance was present at the ceremony, who stated that the third and eighth concertos were performed by a band containing many persons who had been pupils of the composer. These pieces, he added, were played in a slow and distinct manner without embellishments, and just as they are written, whence he concluded that this was the style in which they had been executed by Corelli himself. This solemnity continued as long as his immediate scholars survived.

On Corelli's personal character all writers agree in bestowing the highest praise. His disposition was mild and gentle, and his life exemplary. He appears to have been modest and sensitive even to a fault: a portion of that firmness and self-possession which ought to be produced by a consciousness of merit would have prevented the cloud which settled upon his latter days. The mildness of his temper, however, did not hinder him, when he felt it necessary, from vindicating the respect due to himself and his art. When he was performing a solo at Cardinal Ottoboni's he observed the cardinal himself engaged in talking with another person, on which he laid down his instrument; and, being asked the reason, he replied that he feared his music interrupted the conversation.

Corelli's concertos are still performed now and then at the concert of ancient music. Though they are no longer calculated to show off the bow and fingers of the principal violin-player, yet their effect, as symphonies for a numerous orchestra, is excellent and never fails to delight the audience. Their melody is flowing and simple, and of a kind which is independent of the changes of fashion. The harmony is pure and rich, and the disposition of the parts judicious and skilful. The eighth of these concertos, composed for the purpose of being performed on Christmas Eve, has probably had more celebrity than any piece of music that ever was written. It is exquisitely beautiful, and seems destined to bid defiance to the attacks of time. The whole is full of profound religious feeling; and the pastoral sweetness of the movement, descriptive of the "shepherds abiding in the fields," has never been surpassed, not even by Handel's movement of the same kind in the Messiah. If ever this divine music is thrown aside and forgotten, it will be the most unequivocal sign of the corruption of taste and the decay of music in England.

**CORINNA**, called the lyric muse, an ancient poetess of Tanagra, in Boeotia, who was contemporary with Pindar, whom she is said to have conquered five times in musical contests, and therefore her image, crowned with the chaplet of victory, was placed in the gymnasium of Tanagra. According to Pausanias, who relates this fact, she was so beautiful that her charms may have influenced, in some degree, the opinion of the judges. It is probably owing to the tenderness and softness of her songs that she received the surname of the "Fly." Sappho and Erinna were each called the "Bee." Of the numerous poems which the ancients ascribed to her only a few fragments have come down to us. Madame de Staël has given the name of Corinna



to the heroine of one of the most beautiful novels of our age, a work which exhibits, perhaps more than any of her other productions, the extraordinary talents of this distinguished woman.

**CORIOLANUS, CAIUS MARCIUS.**—This distinguished individual flourished about 490 years before the Christian era, and his life so peculiarly illustrates the character of the Roman patrician and oligarch in the best days of that republic that we take it somewhat in detail. Our own immortal dramatist has most powerfully delineated the principal features in the life of Coriolanus, whose family was one of the noblest and most venerable in Rome. It was not till he had attained his thirty-fifth year that he acquired the surname by which he is now universally distinguished. He was descended from Ancus Martius, the fourth of the Roman kings, and numbered many illustrious patricians among his ancestors. He lost his father in his early childhood; but this misfortune seemed almost compensated by the care of his mother Volumnia, who not only devoted her life to his education, but strove to inspire him with that martial ardour which alone could lead to the highest distinctions. He returned her love with the most respectful yet devoted affection; and the hope of adding to her joys was the strongest impulse which animated him in his career of victory. He learned early to excel in all the robust exercises which were preparatory to the exploits of the field, and acquired in these so great an excellence, that scarcely any one of the youths of his own age dared to enter into competition with him. From this decided superiority, so early recognized, it is probable that unbending pride and stern spirit of defiance had their origin which threw so dark a shadowing over his character in maturer years.

Marcus was early permitted by his heroic mother to encounter the dangers of battle. He had soon an opportunity of displaying those great qualities with which he was endowed in the fiercest engagement in which Rome had yet conflicted for the preservation of her freedom. Tarquin, unsubdued by his numerous misfortunes, prevailed on the Latins to espouse his cause, and, although exceedingly old, marched with the army, which was commanded by Mamilius. The Romans, under the conduct of Posthumius, the dictator, hastened to meet them, and, hearing that the exiled king and his sons were among the hostile forces, rushed with uncommon ardour to give their enemies battle, and met them on the borders of the lake Regillus. Here a combat the most sanguinary and ferocious ensued, in which the generals, carried away by their ardour, fought hand to hand among the soldiers. Tarquin himself, feeble with age, concentrating all his energy for a single effort, spurred his horse to attack the dictator, but received a wound in his progress, and was borne from the field by his allies. Mamilius and Valerius were both killed, after performing the most astonishing feats of valour. At length the Roman fortune prevailed, and the Latins fled, after a resistance in which scarcely a soldier escaped unwounded. In this mighty contest the prowess of young Marcus was conspicuous. As he saw one of his comrades struck down at a little distance from him, he rushed between his countryman and his foe, and maintained the combat till he slew the aggressor. For this exploit he was crowned with an oaken garland—the reward of him who preserved a citizen.

After the Roman people had subdued their foreign enemies, they succeeded in materially diminishing the power of their patrician oppressors. Marcus saw these political changes with regret, but saw that it was in vain to oppose them. He shortly found a more congenial sphere for the development of his energies in the war against the Volsci, who seem to have risen from every defeat with unabated resolution and prowess. He attended the consul Cominius to the field against these formidable adversaries, and, having shared in defeating the Antiates and capturing Longula and Polusca, proceeded to assist in the siege of Corioli, a strongly-fortified town, which the enemies of Rome regarded as their capital. Animated by the danger of their principal city the Volsci collected a large force, with which they resolved on attacking the besiegers from the rear in the hope of compelling them to retire. To meet this detachment Cominius drew off a great part of his forces, and left Titus Larcus to command those which still lay before the town, among which was Caius Marcus. On this movement the troops within the city sallied forth on the diminished battalions, and drove them to their entrenchments. At this critical moment the spirit of Marcus burst forth to save and conquer; while he desperately opposed himself to the pursuers, he called to the Romans, with a voice like thunder, to turn on them, and roused their courage, while he struck dismay into the troops which had hitherto been victorious.

Not satisfied with repulsing the foe, Marcus hastily followed them, now struggling with the enemy, now animating his own battalions, and calling out to them that Corioli was theirs. With astonishing courage, followed only by a few soldiers, he burst with the fugitives into the city, and rushed through the streets, putting hosts of enemies to flight, who were so confounded at his surprising valour that they thought not of cutting off his retreat or of steadily opposing his progress. While he thus seemed to burst like lightning through the city, Larcus had time to enter without opposition and to secure the conquest which Marcus had achieved, almost as swift as thought, by the might of his single arm. The soldiers immediately began to disperse themselves throughout the city, for the purposes of plunder. But Marcus, sternly rebuking them, called to them to follow him instantly to the assistance of Cominius, who might even then be struggling with hosts of their foes. A few noble spirits only obeyed him, and with these he hastened, without a moment's pause, to join the consul. He arrived at the very moment when the armies were about to engage, scarcely told the issue of his exploits, and covered already with dust and with blood, seized eagerly on the post of the greatest danger, carried defeat and terror wherever he moved, and forced the Volsci, with great loss, to retire. Even yet he refused to listen to the entreaties of those who besought him to take repose. As if gifted with more than mortal powers, he led on the pursuit of the fugitives, and never stopped till all the troops were routed and the camp of the Volsci taken. On the day after these wonderful successes, Cominius, after giving thanks in the temple, rapturously eulogised Marcus, attributing all the glory to him alone, and entreated him to accept a noble horse, and to choose a tenth part of the spoils. The hero received the praises bestowed on him with modesty, accepted

only the horse offered by the consul, and, wholly declining any share of the booty, requested only, as his reward, that a Volscian who had once hospitably entertained him might be allowed his freedom. This moderation and generosity gave a finishing grace to his triumph. The assembly, as he refused all the more substantial gifts they desired to shower upon him, unanimously gave him the surname of Coriolanus in memory of his astonishing valour.

New disputes between the senate and the popular part of the government was productive of serious charges against Coriolanus, and it was ultimately determined to place him on his trial. When the time appointed for the trial arrived, a fresh dispute arose, whether the people should give their votes by centuries or tribes—a highly important question, because, if the voices of the people were collected by the first means, the patricians were certain of success; whereas, if the latter mode were agreed to, they were reduced to their numerical strength, having no more votes than the lowest of the plebeians. After a fierce contention this point was conceded to the tribunes; and, when the senate acquiesced in the demand, the cause was virtually decided. The patricians, indeed, condescended to entreat and to supplicate the people in behalf of the man whom they either wanted the courage or the power to defend, and seem still to have entertained hopes that their prayers and the memory of his own noble actions would secure for him an acquittal.

At length the expected day arrived, and immense multitudes were collected in the forum in anxious expectation of the issue. Minucius first addressed the assembly, entreating them to waive the trial as a boon conceded to the entreaties of the senate; and, finding that he could not obtain this favour, reminded them that they were bound to confine their allegations to the support of the charge of tyranny. If, however, the tribunes did not in terms relinquish this accusation, they continued in their harangues to bring forward all the political offences of Coriolanus as proof of a constructive treason. After they had apparently exhausted all their invectives the party accused presented himself to the crowd; and, scarcely condescending to notice the particular complaints brought forward by his foes, recounted his exploits in the service of the state, even from his boyhood, displayed the crowns which he had won by his astonishing valour, especially in preserving the lives of the citizens, and uncovered the wounds which he had received in battle, and then triumphantly appealed to the audience whether he could have intended in peace to destroy those for the preservation of whose lives he had a thousand times perilled his own. The people, who came resolved to condemn, felt abashed before him and cried out for his acquittal. But Decius, one of the tribunes, now brought forward a new charge, which was totally unexpected—that he had divided the spoils he had taken among his soldiers, to conciliate their affections, instead of bringing them to the public treasury. It is said that Coriolanus was unprepared to reply to his accusation, which was calculated to rouse the animosities of those who had envied the troops those riches which they had dearly won. Pursuing their advantage, the tribunes collected the suffrages, and Coriolanus was condemned to exile by a majority of three votes, twelve having voted against him, and only nine in his favour. As soon

as the result was known the patricians were struck with the deepest sorrow. Coriolanus alone betrayed no symptom of regret; but the injury sunk into his inmost soul. He embraced his wife and children, and the mother whom he had so tenderly revered, and, after exhorting them to bear their distresses with constancy, left Rome attended by a few clients only, who resolved to share his misfortunes. Many of the senators followed him to the gates, but he received the expressions of their grief with a haughty silence. After a few unquiet days spent in the country, during which he was divided between his love for Rome and his desires for vengeance, the feelings of resentment assumed the complete mastery.

In pursuance of his determination to make his enemies feel his power, he resolved to throw himself into the arms of the Volsci, in whose defeat he had obtained the most signal renown. For this purpose he covered himself with a habit which disguised him, and proceeded in the evening to the house of Tullus Aufidius, the most celebrated of the Volscian generals, whom he had repeatedly overthrown in battle, and whom, therefore, he supposed to cherish a great animosity towards him. He entered the hall of his rival without being discovered, and placed himself on the hearth sacred to the household gods, which all the states of Italy feared to violate. The servants, awe-struck by the majesty of his deportment, hastened to call their master, who was at table, that he might question the mysterious stranger. Tullus immediately entered the room and demanded to know his name and purpose, when Coriolanus, throwing off his disguise, replied, "If you remember me not, I must declare to you that my name is Caius Marcius, the bitterest foe of the Volsci, to which my surname, Coriolanus, would witness. That is all which is left me now. The envy of the people and the cowardice of the senate have banished me from Rome, and forced me to become a supplicant here, not for life, but for vengeance. If you will accept my services against my ungrateful country, this affliction of mine may become the means of my triumph; if not, I desire to live no longer. My fate is in your hands; destroy one who, if you receive him not into friendship, cannot exist but at your peril." Astonished at his magnanimity, Tullus gave him his hand in pledge of faith, assured him that he would receive the highest respect from the people among whom he had sought refuge, and conducted him into the inner apartments, where he was hospitably entertained.

One of the earliest results of this unnatural compact against the country which gave him birth was a declaration of war against Rome. The Volscian army was divided into two portions, each of which was led by one of the generals. Tullus with his battalions invaded the territories of the Latins, to prevent them from affording succour to their allies; while Coriolanus burst immediately into the Roman domains and acquired great spoils. The former having also taken considerable booty near Latium, remained to guard the frontiers, while the latter advanced to meet the consuls. These magistrates did not, however, seem eager to contend with their injured countryman, who continued to ravage the country without opposition, entering Circeum without resistance, and retaking not only Satricum, Longula, Polusca, and Corioli, which he had so recently contributed to subdue, but a number of cities belonging to the



Latins, who in vain supplicated the assistance of their usual protectors. In his progress he spared the estates of the patricians, either from old friendship or a desire to raise jealousies between that order and the plebeians. Such was at all events the consequence of his forbearance, and the senate were even charged with having secretly encouraged the exile to make war for the abolition of the tribunitial power. All was confusion within the city, as the parties distrusted each other and feared both the abilities of their foe and the incapacity of the consuls. In the mean time Coriolanus was rapidly advancing, and, having taken Lavinium, pitched his camp within five miles of the city. The people who had doomed him to exile, now in terror besought the senate to meet him, but with a truly Roman spirit they refused to sue to him as a master whom they had strenuously defended as an equal. When, however, they found that he had broken up his camp and was actually preparing to invest the city, they consented to send deputies to him, to negotiate for peace. Minucius, Cominius, and three other senators of consular dignity, were appointed to conduct this important mission. They entreated him by the memory of their former love to forget the past, and to return to the city which would be most joyful to receive him. He replied with austerity that he would grant peace only on condition that the senate would restore all the possessions they had taken from the Volsci, and grant to that people the same rights of citizenship which they had confirmed upon the Latins. For himself he expressed his astonishment that he should be requested to return to a people who had so injuriously treated him, and against whose future vengeance he could never be secure. He granted however a truce of thirty days, that they might have time to consider the offers he made them as general of the Volsci, and in the mean time drew off his troops from the city, and employed them in taking possession of several other towns in the territories of Latium.

Although the greatest apprehension prevailed at Rome the senate resolved never to submit to the terms proposed by the invader. At the close of the period allowed them for deliberation they sent ten of their number to Coriolanus, charged to assure him that the Romans would never yield to demands thus enforced, and at the same time to entreat him to withdraw his troops and afterwards to negotiate for a union. On hearing the speeches of these deputies he replied that the senate had no alternative but restitution or war, and though as general of the Volsci he had no other answer to return, as one of the citizens of Rome he would advise them to ask no longer terms to which he could never listen. He yet allowed them three days to decide on the course they would finally adopt. Their resolution however on this point seems never to have wavered, though they were afraid even to send forth an army to oppose the enemy's progress. Still hoping to move Coriolanus to a compliance with their wishes, they despatched the priests and ministers of religion in their sacred vestments to conjure him to retire. He heard their entreaties, and without relaxing his determination dismissed them. At length, through the persuasions of the Roman matrons who accompanied them, Veturia the mother and Volumnia the wife of Coriolanus, with his two young children, went to the Volscian camp. Unable to resist their tears

and entreaties, he raised his mother from her knees saying, "You have saved Rome, my mother, but you have destroyed your son." He then agreed to withdraw his army peacefully from Rome, and to try to persuade the Volscians to make a treaty with the Romans upon reasonable terms.

The day after the interview with his relatives Coriolanus retired with his forces. Although he liberally divided all his spoils among his soldiers, it soon appeared that the apprehensions he had expressed to Volumnia when he granted her request were not unfounded. Tullus, who had long since been led to repent of his generosity towards him by envy of his superior fame, was resolved to make this abandonment of the siege the occasion of his downfall. When, therefore, Coriolanus arrived with the army at Antium, he charged him with treason against the people who had succoured him, and required him to resign his command preparatory to his trial. He replied that he was willing to lay all his conduct before the general assembly of the nation from whom he had received his powers, but refused to yield to the sentence of the Antiates alone, over whom he knew that his rival had peculiar influence. At length Tullus, not choosing to wait the legal decision even of his own countrymen, sent a summons to Coriolanus to appear in the public assembly and make his defence, and procured a number of his partizans to assassinate him before he could be heard. On the day appointed the accuser set forth the charges against Coriolanus in glowing colours, and tried by every art to rouse the passions of the auditors against him. When he rose to reply the greater number however were disposed to hear him with respect, but the friends of Tullus rushed forward to prevent him, exclaiming that he was a traitor, and overwhelmed him with stones till he fell. No sooner was it discovered that he had expired than all present, even those who had contrived his destruction, were touched with the remembrance of his noble qualities and filled with remorse for his murder. The Volsci honoured him with a splendid funeral, and built a magnificent tomb over his remains.

CORNARO, LUDOVICO.—This singular man was descended from a Venetian family which had given several doges to Venice, and in the fifteenth century a queen to the island of Cyprus, who left that kingdom to the Venetian republic. He died at Padua, in 1566, aged 104 years, without pain or struggle. From the twenty-fifth to the fortieth year of his age he was afflicted with a disordered stomach, with the gout, and with slow fevers, till at length he gave up the use of medicine and accustomed himself to extreme frugality in his diet. The beneficial effects of this he relates in his book entitled "The Advantages of a Temperate Life." Cornaro's precepts are not indeed applicable, in their full extent, to every constitution; but his general rules will always be correct. His diseases vanished, and gave place to a state of vigorous health and tranquillity of spirits, to which he had hitherto been an entire stranger. He wrote three additional treatises on the same subject. In his work upon the "Birth and Death of Man," which he composed in his ninety-fifth year, he says of himself, "I am now as healthy as any person of twenty-five years of age. I write daily seven or eight hours, and the rest of the time I occupy in walking, conversing, and occasionally in attending concerts."

**CORNEILLE, PIERRE.**—This eminent French poet was born at Rouen in 1606. The Jesuits were his first instructors, and he retained through the whole of his after life a great respect for that body. He devoted himself to the study of the law, and was eventually called to the bar, but never evinced much taste for his profession. According to the tradition of his native place, love was the first cause of awaking the dramatic poet within him. A young man of his acquaintance introduced him to his intended wife, and it so chanced that the new comer managed to render himself more agreeable than the original swain. On this slender theme Corneille composed his comedy of "Melite," which appeared in 1625. The drama was then extremely low among the French, their tragedy flat and languid, their comedy more barbarous than the lowest of the vulgar would now tolerate. Corneille was astonished to find himself the author of a piece entirely new, and at the prodigious success with which his "Melite" was acted. The French theatre seemed to be raised, and to flourish at once; and, though deserted in a manner before, was now filled on a sudden with a new company of actors. After so happy an essay he continued to produce several other pieces of the same kind, all of them, indeed, inferior to what he afterwards wrote, but much superior to any thing which the French had hitherto seen. His "Medea" came forth next, a tragedy, borrowed in part from "Seneca," which succeeded, as indeed it deserved, but indifferently; but in 1637 he presented the "Cid," another tragedy, in which he showed the world how high his genius was capable of rising; and he continued his literary exertions most successfully till the time of his death, which occurred in 1684.

The most peculiar feature of Corneille's drama has its origin in his never leaving out of view that he was composing a poem which was to be personated. The strict attention which he paid to this fact, united to his wish to heighten the effect of the representation even to illusion, was the cause of his adopting, in their most rigid acceptance, the two rules of the ancients, which prescribe unity of time and place. He wished that no physical lets or hindrances should intervene, to awaken the spectator to the recollection that what he beheld was but an unsubstantial pageant. The events produced before his eyes must be of such a nature as could possibly happen within a period not much exceeding the time occupied by the representation: they must all occur in one place. By prescribing these rules to himself Corneille was reduced to the necessity of intermixing a great quantity of narrative with his dialogue—of narrative, too, not likely to have been delivered at such time and place as he was obliged to introduce it. The very adoption of those rules, therefore, by which he proposed to render illusion complete, prevented the drama from becoming a correct counterfeit of real life. It was made something conventional, what the spectator tolerated on the stage in virtue of shutting his eyes to its deviation from nature. The very measures which were to ensure the identity, as it were, of the representation with the reality, increased their discrepancy.

The other unity which Corneille placed as the ground-work of his drama is one which is unavoidably adopted by every true poet—the unity of action. The imagination necessarily confers this. But it appears to us that Corneille has at times confounded this internal and necessary unity with a factitious ape

of it, which confers consistency upon a poem by polishing it from without. The imagination, while it works to one great end, throws out a thousand incidental images, diverges into a thousand reflections, which enhance the effect of the whole without interfering with its grandeur. The mind that looks only to the external form, without comprehending the soul that animates it, regards these as so many impertinencies. The mind of Corneille, left to its own workings, was superior to such a mistake; but he was trammelled by a half understood theory, and withstood the promptings of his better genius. He rejected from his plays as extraneous much that Shakspeare has employed with the happiest effect without sinning against the great requisite of unity of action.

**CORNEILLE, THOMAS**, brother of Peter Corneille, was born at Rouen, in August, 1625, and lived in the most friendly union with his brother till the death of the latter. A comedy, which he wrote in Latin verse, while he was a scholar at the Jesuits' college, and which obtained the honour of a representation, as well as the success which attended the works of his brother, determined him to turn his attention to the drama. His first comedy, called "*Les Engagements du Hasard*," which appeared in 1647, and was an imitation of Calderon, was successful. Many similar ones soon followed, also borrowed from the Spanish. The number of his dramatic works is forty-two; yet most of them are now so little known that even the catalogue of them in the records of the French Academy will be found erroneous and incomplete. His comedies however, at the time of their appearance, were received with greater interest if possible than those of the great Corneille, in imitation of whom Thomas applied himself to tragedy, and his "*Timocrate*," which appeared in 1656, was received with such continual applause that the actors, weary of repeating it, entertained the audience from the stage to permit the representation of something else, otherwise they should forget all their other pieces. Since that time it has not been brought upon the boards at all. "*Camma*," in 1661, produced an equal sensation. The spectators thronged in such numbers to witness the representation that scarcely room enough was left for the performers. Of his dramatic works which now merit attention are "*Ariane*," which maintained a competition with Racine's "*Bajazet*," "*L'Inconnu* (a heroic comedy, in 1675, which in 1724 was represented at a festival at the Tuileries, with a ballet, in which Louis XV. and the young lords of his court danced), and especially "*Le Comte d'Essex*," which he produced in 1678. This last piece, as well as "*Stilicon*" and "*Ariane*," is sometimes represented at the present day. Thomas Corneille, according to the judgment of Voltaire, although inferior to his brother, stood second to none but him, and his style is more pure. In 1685 he succeeded his brother in the French Academy, by a unanimous vote, and, after his election, immediately undertook the publication of the "*French Dictionary*," which appeared in 1694. He then prefixed notes to "*Vaugelas's Remarks*," and finally added a supplement to the "*Dictionnaire de l'Académie*," in which he explained the terms of art and science. This may be regarded as the basis of the subsequent "*Encyclopédie*." Thomas Corneille was also admitted into the Academy of Inscriptions, and was a diligent con-



tributor to the "*Mercure Galant*," with his friend De Visé. In old age he lost his sight, and died highly honoured by his contemporaries, and beloved for his social virtues, at Andelys, in 1709. In his conversation he was lively and natural. He left two children; and Voltaire united the daughter of his son Francis in marriage with the count de la Tour du Pin.

**CORNELIA**, the celebrated mother of the Gracchi. She was a daughter of Scipio Africanus the elder, and wife of the consul Gracchus, who lived about 130 years B. C. To her sons she gave an excellent education, and, being in company with a Roman lady who was displaying her jewels and desired to see the jewels of Cornelia, presented her sons as her most precious jewels. At her death the Romans erected a monument to her memory. Cornelia is one of those women for whom the history of Rome is distinguished before all others. In the history of no nation do we find so many examples of mothers and wives remarkable for nobleness of spirit.

**CORNELIS, CORNELIUS**, a painter of considerable eminence, who was born at Haerlem, in 1562, and studied the rudiments of his art with Peter Aertsens the younger, and afterwards worked at Antwerp under Peter Porbus and Giles Coignet. In 1583 he returned to Haerlem, where his great painting, the Company of Arquebusiers, established his reputation. Descamps called it a collection of figures, sketched by the genius of history. In 1593, with Charles van Mander, he instituted an academy for painting at Haerlem; but his best pictures are rarely to be bought on account of the great value which the Flemings set upon them. Cornelis painted great and small pieces, historical subjects, portraits, flowers, and especially subjects from ancient mythology. His drawing is admirable. He is a true imitator of nature, and his colouring is always lively and agreeable. The galleries at Vienna and Dresden contain many of his works. He died in 1638.

**CORNELIUS NEPOS**, a Roman historian, born in Cisalpine Gaul. He lived in the golden age of the Roman language, in friendship with Catullus, Cicero, and Pomponius Atticus, and died thirty years B. C. Of his numerous writings only his "*Lives of Distinguished Romans*" have come down to us. In this work he gives in a classical style, with great brevity and distinctness, twenty-four biographies of the most remarkable Grecian heroes of antiquity, together with the lives of some barbarian generals, and also that of Cato the elder, finishing his work with the life of Atticus. His characters are in general strikingly illustrated, though he does not always observe a just proportion in his relations, sometimes treating important subjects in too concise and trifling ones in too prolix a manner; and indeed he does not always draw from the most trustworthy sources. On account of his brevity he throws little new light on history, and it is generally believed that the book which has reached us is an extract from the works of Nepos, made by Emilius Probus in the time of Theodosius. The edition of this author by Van Staveren is the most valuable that has yet been published.

**CORNWALLIS, CHARLES MARQUIS OF**.—This distinguished military commander was born on the 31st of December, 1738. He was educated at Eton, and St. John's College, Cambridge; and, having

early in life selected the army as his future profession, he was appointed in 1765 aide-de-camp to the king with the rank of colonel of foot. In 1775 he became major-general, and shortly after accepted a command in America, where he distinguished himself at the battle of Brandywine, and also at the siege of Charlestown. He was afterwards left in the command of South Carolina, where his administration was generally approved of. However, his plan of invading Virginia was considered very imprudent, and ended in his capture with his whole army of four thousand men. The blame of this defeat Lord Cornwallis laid to the failure of the expected succour of Sir Henry Clinton, who in return equally blamed both the plan and its execution.

In 1782 a change took place in the administration at home, and his lordship was then recalled from America. In 1786 he was sent out to India with the double-appointment of governor-general and commander-in-chief. Not long after the government of Bengal found it necessary to declare war against the sultan of the Mysore for his attack on the rajah of Travancore, the ally of the English. The campaign of 1790 was indecisive; but in March, 1791, Lord Cornwallis invaded the Mysore and came in sight of Seringapatam, which he was prevented from investing by the floods of the Cavery. In 1792, however, he besieged that metropolis; and, on the approach of the troops, the sultan Tippoo Saib sued for peace, and was obliged to accept such terms as the English commander dictated. He consented to cede a part of his dominions, paid a large sum of money, undertook to furnish a still more considerable portion of treasure, within a limited period, &c., and entrusted two of his sons to the care of Lord Cornwallis, with whom they were to remain as hostages for the due performance of the treaty. By this successful conclusion of the war the most formidable enemy was so reduced as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure.

This important war being now ended so highly to the honour of the British arms, Lord Cornwallis returned to England, to receive the rewards justly due to his merit. He had before been invested with the insignia of the garter; and he was, in August 1792, advanced to the dignity of Marquis Cornwallis, admitted a member of the privy-council, and, in addition to his other appointments, was nominated to the office of master-general of the ordnance. In 1798, the rebellion in Ireland appearing both to the viceroy Lord Camden and to his majesty to require a lord-lieutenant who could act in a military as well as a civil capacity, the king appointed Lord Cornwallis to that important service, which he executed with skill, promptitude, and humanity; and, after quelling the open insurrection, he adopted a plan of mingled firmness and conciliation, which, executed with discriminating judgment, tended to quiet that distracted country, and prepare matters for a permanent plan, that should both prevent the recurrence of such an evil and promote industry and prosperity. He retained this high appointment till May 1801, when he was succeeded by the earl of Hardwicke. The same year he was appointed plenipotentiary to France.

In 1804 his lordship had the honour of being appointed a second time governor-general in the East Indies, on the recall of Marquis Wellesley, and in that station he died at Ghazepore, in the province of Benares, October 5, 1805, worn out with an active

life spent in the service of his country, and covered with military glory and honours.

**CORREGGIO, ANTONIO ALLEGRI.**—This distinguished painter was born at Correggio, in the duchy of Modena, towards the close of 1494. He was intended for a learned profession, but nature had designed him for an artist. It has not been ascertained how much he was indebted to his instructor, Lorenzo Allegri, but his genius evidently pointed out to him the way to celebrity. It is related by Mengs that, after having viewed a picture of the great Raphael, he exclaimed, *Anch' io sono pittore* (I also am a painter); but it is not proved that Correggio ever was in Rome, and in Parma and Modena, where, according to D'Argensville, he might have seen works of Raphael, there were none at that time, so that this story wants confirmation. That Correggio, without having seen either the works of the ancient masters or the *chefs-d'œuvre* of those who preceded him, should have become a model for his successors by the unassisted energies of his genius, renders him so much the more deserving of our admiration. Three qualities will always be admired in him:—grace, harmony, and a skilful management of the pencil. There is a peculiar grace in the movements of his figures, and a loveliness in their expression, which takes possession of the soul. These attitudes and movements could not be executed by any artist without his masterly skill in foreshortening, which not only gives greater variety to a piece but is also favourable to gracefulness.

Avoiding all roughness and hardness, Correggio sought to win the admiration by mild and almost effeminate beauties. He strove to obtain this object also by harmony of colouring, of which he may be called the creator. He is unrivalled in the *chiar oscuro*, that is, in the disposition of the light, in the grace and rounding of his figures, and in the faculty of giving them the appearance of advancing and retiring, which is the distinguishing excellence of the Lombard school, of which he may be considered the head. In his drapery he calculated with extreme accuracy all the effects of the *chiar oscuro*. He possessed the power of passing, by the most graceful transition, from the bright colours to the half tints. It was ever his object to make the principal figure prominent, that the eye after gazing till it was satisfied on the bright colours, might repose with pleasure on the softer masses. He made a skilful use of this art in his *Night* which is to be seen in the gallery in Dresden, where there are seven pictures in which his progress in the art may be recognised. That this artist was imbued with the spirit of poetry is proved by the allusions which he sometimes introduced into his pictures, for example, the white hare in the *Zingara*, in Dresden, and the goldfinch in the *Marriage of St. Catharine*, at Naples. By the nearness of those timorous animals the idea of the innocence and purity of the persons delineated is strongly represented, and the stillness and repose of the scene is forcibly impressed on the mind. Among his best pictures, besides the *Night*, are the *St. Jerome* (which has kindled the admiration of several distinguished painters to such a degree as to render them unjust towards Raphael), the *Penitent Magdalen*, the altar-pieces of *St. Francis*, *St. George*, and *St. Sebastian*, *Christ in the Garden of Olives* (in Spain),

*Cupid* (in Vienna), the fresco painting in Parma, and, above all, the paintings on the ceiling of the cathedral in the same city. He died in 1534.

We cannot close this sketch without a few additional remarks on a point which has occasioned great controversy, namely, the question relative to the real circumstances and situation of Correggio. Vasari has recorded a tradition that he died in extreme poverty, and the victim of pecuniary distress. He states that, having received at Parma a payment of sixty crowns, which was churlishly made to him in copper, he walked to Correggio with this load, from anxiety to relieve the wants of his family. The weather being extremely sultry, he refreshed himself with cold water when thus heated with exercise, and was consequently seized with an inflammatory fever, which hurried him to the grave in a few days. This account of Vasari carries internal evidence of its own falsehood. It is, in the first place, related as a mere hearsay, a “*si dice*,” and it is grounded on a principle which shows an imperfect acquaintance with the circumstances of Correggio. Vasari lays great stress on the privations which he suffered from the burden of his family, as if it was numerous; whereas Correggio never had more than four children, two of whom did not survive him, and the eldest, Pomponio, was only in his fourteenth year at the time of his father's death. He likewise adds that Correggio had reduced himself to extreme misery by continual saving, which, if admitted, would furnish a strong argument against his pretended poverty. Lastly, The sum which he states to have been paid in copper must have considerably exceeded two hundred weight, a load which no man could have carried on foot the distance of several miles.

This tale is therefore now justly exploded, though an impression still remains justified in some measure by the remark of Annibal Carracci, that Correggio lived neglected and died in indigence. In this however, as in many other cases, opinion has gone beyond the truth. That he was not so well known and so liberally rewarded as Raphael, Titian, Michael Angelo, Julio Romano, or even some inferior painters, will not admit of an argument; but that he lived in obscurity, and was meanly rewarded for all his works, is disproved by a brief review of the facts which we have related. An obscure painter would not have been so frequently employed by rich convents; an obscure painter would not have been selected to decorate the cupolas of the church of St. John and the cathedral at Parma; nor would an obscure painter have been commissioned by a duke of Mantua to execute pictures intended as a present for an emperor when two such celebrated masters as Titian and Julio Romano were at hand.

**CORTEZ, FERNANDO**, the conqueror of Mexico.—This celebrated individual was born in 1485, at Medelin, in Estremadura, and went to the West Indies in 1504, where Velasquez, governor of Cuba, gave him the command of a fleet, which he sent on a voyage of discovery. Cortez quitted San-lago in November, 1518, with 600 Spaniards, and landed in the Gulf of Mexico, where the sight of the horses on which the Spaniards were mounted, the movable fortresses in which they had crossed the ocean, the iron which covered them, and the noise of the cannon, greatly alarmed the natives. Cortez entered the town of Mexico on the 18th of November, 1519, and Montezuma, the sovereign of the country, re-



ceived him as his master; and the inhabitants, it is said, thought him a god and a child of the sun. He destroyed the idols in the temples, to whom human sacrifices were offered, and placed in their room images of the Virgin Mary and of the saints. In the mean time he made continual progress towards getting possession of the country, forming alliances with several caciques, enemies to Montezuma, and assuring himself of the others by force or stratagem. On a general of Montezuma attacking the Spaniards in obedience to a secret order, Cortez repaired to the imperial palace, had the commander and his officers burnt alive, and forced the emperor, while in chains, to acknowledge publicly the sovereignty of Charles V. The unhappy monarch added to this homage a present of a large quantity of pure gold and a number of precious stones. But the jealousy of Velasquez was so much excited by the deeds of his representative that he sent an army against him. Cortez, reinforced by fresh troops from Spain, advanced to meet it, gained a victory over the soldiers who bore arms against him, and, with their assistance, again made war with the Mexicans, who had also revolted against their own emperor Montezuma, whom they accused of treachery. After Montezuma, who had hoped to restore tranquillity by showing himself to the multitude, had fallen a victim to their rage, Guatimozin, his nephew and son-in-law, was acknowledged as emperor by the Mexicans, and gained some advantages over the Spaniards. He defended his crown during three months, but could not withstand the Spanish artillery. Cortez again took possession of Mexico, and in 1521 the emperor, the empress, the ministers, and the whole court, were in his power. The unhappy Guatimozin was subjected to horrid cruelties, to make him disclose the place where his treasures were concealed, and was afterwards executed with a great number of his nobles.

The court of Madrid, however, now became jealous of the power of Cortez, who had been some time before appointed captain-general and governor of Mexico. Commissioners were sent to inspect and control his measures, his property was seized, his dependants were imprisoned, and he repaired to Spain. He was received with much distinction, and returned to Mexico with an increase of titles but a diminution of power. A viceroy had charge of the civil administration, and Cortez was entrusted only with the military command and the privilege of prosecuting his discoveries. The division of powers proved a constant source of dissension; and, though he discovered the peninsula of California in 1536, most of his enterprises were frustrated, his life embittered, and he returned again to Spain, where he was coldly received and neglected. One day, having forced his way through a crowd round the carriage of his king and put his foot on the step to obtain an audience, Charles coldly enquired who he was. "I am a man," replied Cortez, "who has gained you more provinces than your father left you towns." He passed the remainder of his days in solitude, and died in December, 1548, near Seville, in the sixty-third year of his age, leaving a character eminent for bravery and ability, but infamous for perfidy and cruelty.

CORTONA, properly Pietro Berretini, a painter and architect of considerable celebrity, who was born in 1596. He was commonly called Pietro di Cortona, from the name of his native town, Cortona in Tuscany. He acquired the first rudiments of his art

under his father, Giovanni, who was also a painter and architect, and afterwards studied with Andreas Comodi and Baccio Ciarpi at Rome. At the commencement of his studies his awkwardness was so remarkable that his fellow-students called him ass's head. Nevertheless, he devoted himself to the study of the antiques and of the great masters, Raphael, Caravaggio, and Michael Angelo, and unexpectedly made his appearance as an artist with the "Rape of the Sabines;" and the "Birth of Christ," in the church of Our Lady of Loretto, firmly established his reputation. His painting on the ceiling of the large saloon in the Barberini palace, representing the "Triumph of Honour," is a very happy effort, indeed it has been declared one of the grandest compositions ever executed by a painter. He afterwards travelled through Lombardy, the Venetian States, and Tuscany, where he painted the ceilings of the Palazzo Pitti in Florence, and thence returned to Rome. During this journey he was constantly employed as a painter and architect. He was subsequently attacked by the gout, and could not, in consequence, ascend the stagings; he therefore employed himself in the execution of easel pictures, which, although of less value than his larger works, are held in great estimation. He died in 1669, and was buried in the church dedicated to St. Luke, at Rome, where he had immortalized himself by the design of the altar of St. Martina.

CORVISSART, JOHN NICHOLAS, a celebrated French physician born at Champagne in 1755. On completing his studies he was appointed adjunct professor of anatomy, and afterwards physician to the hospital of La Charité. When the school of health was appointed in 1795, Corvissart was made first clinical professor. In 1811 he became a member of the French Institute, and a honorary member of the Academy of Medicine on its foundation in 1821. He died in September, 1821. Corvissart was the author of several valuable works, the best known of which is the one entitled "*Essai sur les Maladies et les Lésions Organiques du Cœur et des gros Vaisseaux.*"

CORYATE, THOMAS, a distinguished wit who flourished in the reign of James I. He was a very eccentric man, and valued himself highly on his pedestrian powers. "Coryate's Crudities" is still a work in much request.

COSEL, COUNTESS OF, one of the many mistresses of the prodigal Augustus II., king of Poland and elector of Saxony. She was the wife of the Saxon minister Hoymb, who, well knowing the king's disposition, kept her far from court; but on one occasion, when excited by wine, he praised her so much to the king that the latter ordered her to be brought to Dresden. She was soon divorced from Hoymb, and appeared at court as the countess of Cosel, the mistress of the king. A palace was built for her, still called the Cosel palace, which was pre-eminent for magnificence and luxury. It must be remembered that the king had no income from Poland, on the contrary, the royal dignity was a source of great expense to the elector; thus the little electorate had to support, unaided, the enormous extravagance of its ruler. For nine years the countess succeeded in preserving the king's favour, and exercised an arbitrary sway in affairs of government. At last she fell into disgrace and was dismissed from the king's presence. She retired into

Prussia, and was afterwards arrested at Halle at the request of Augustus, and carried to Stolpe, in Saxony, where she remained imprisoned forty-five years, and died eighty years old. So much power had she over the king, when in favour, that dollars and florins were actually coined bearing the stamp of the royal arms in conjunction with those of the countess. She is one among many similar instances of the disadvantages which legitimacy sometimes brings in its train, subjecting nations to the control of profligate monarchs who are governed by equally profligate mistresses.

**COSIN, JOHN**, a learned English divine, who was born at Norwich in 1594. He was educated at Caius College, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow; and Dr. Neale, bishop of Durham, in 1619 made him his chaplain, and gave him a prebend in his cathedral. He next obtained the archdeaconry of York, and in 1626 the rectory of Brancepeth in Northumberland. He was chosen master of Peterhouse College, Cambridge, in 1638, and in 1640 made dean of Peterborough; but through the influence of the puritanical party which then predominated in the House of Commons, he was soon after deprived of all his preferments, and even impeached on the charge of being inclined towards catholicism. He then went to France, whence he returned on the restoration of Charles II., and resumed his benefices. In December, 1660, he was raised to the bishopric of Durham, which he held till his death, which took place in 1672.

**COSMO I.**—The name of one of the most distinguished grand dukes of Tuscany. He was the son of John de Medici, a descendant of the brother of the first Cosmo, was born in 1519, and on the assassination of Alexander, chief of the house of Medici, was elected chief of the republic of Florence. A party however, joined by the Florentine exiles, opposed this order of things, and took possession of a fortress near Florence; but, being unexpectedly attacked by General Vitelli, they were completely routed, and several of the leaders taken prisoners, and paid the forfeit of their lives. The cause of Cosmo was favoured by the emperor Charles V.; and by his marriage with Eleanor de Toledo, daughter of the viceroy of Naples, the connexion was more firmly cemented. On the revolt of the Siennese from the emperor in 1553, Cosmo assisted in the reduction of Sienna, on a promise of having it annexed to his dominions, which was fulfilled by Philip VI. He greatly distinguished himself by his liberal encouragement of letters and the fine arts. He restored the university of Pisa, invited professors from all parts with liberal salaries, and founded a college for the free education of forty of his subjects. He founded the Florentine Academy, and made large additions to the Laurentian Library, which he opened to the public. He also commenced the celebrated gallery of Florence, and furnished it with antique relics and fine paintings, inviting the ablest painters, and encouraging the publication of works of real eminence. His fondness for reading and conversation with literary men, particularly on historical subjects, caused many eminent historians in his time. His great conduct and authority rendering him a powerful neighbour, in 1569, Pope Pius V. gave him the title of grand duke of Tuscany, and crowned him at Rome. His domestic affairs were far from happy. He had two sons, John and Garcia, the former became a cardinal at the age of seventeen.

His literary attainments and high character excited the jealousy of Garcia, who, taking the opportunity while hunting with him, stabbed him to the heart. The murder was concealed; but Cosmo suspecting the author of it, taxed him with it, and, finally inducing him to confess, drew Garcia's dagger from his side and laid him dead by the side of his brother. Their mother survived them but a few days. Cosmo had several children besides, and, after a distinguished reign of thirty-eight years, died in 1574.

**COSSE', CHARLES DE**, better known by the title of Marshal de Brissac. He was son of René Cossé, who was lord of Brissac in Anjou, and chief falconer of France. He served with success in the Neapolitan and Piedmontese wars, and distinguished himself as colonel in the battle of Perpignan, in 1541. The first noblemen of France, and even the princes, received their military education in his school while he commanded the French light cavalry; and, when the emperor Charles V. attempted to besiege Landrecy, in 1543, Brissac repulsed him three times, and united himself, in spite of the superior numbers of the enemy, with Francis I., who lay with his army near Vitry. This monarch folded him in his arms, allowed him to drink out of his cup, and created him knight of his order. After other great actions he rose to the rank of grand master of the artillery of France, and Henry II. sent him as ambassador to the emperor, for the purpose of negotiating a peace. Here he proved himself a good diplomatist, and obtained for his service the office of governor of Piedmont, and the baton of marshal of France in 1550. He afterwards returned to France as governor of Picardy and rendered that province important services. Brissac was small but very well made, and the ladies of the court called him the handsome Brissac. It is said that the duchess of Valentinois regarded him with particular favour, and that Henry II. appointed him lieutenant-general in Italy merely from jealousy. Brissac died at Paris on the 31st of December, 1563.

**COSTA FURTADO DE MENDOCA, HIP-POLYTO JOSEPH DA**, a Portuguese gentleman, distinguished for his talents, learning, and adventures. He was tried and imprisoned at Lisbon, by the inquisition, for the pretended crime of free-masonry. The following are said to have been the circumstances of his escape from captivity:—The door of the cell in which Da Costa was confined opening into a hall, which was the centre of the prison, he had opportunities for remarking that the daily labours of his jailors terminated with throwing a bunch of keys on a table where a lamp was left burning. By patience and perseverance, though conscious of liability to espial through apertures in the walls and ceiling of his cell, he succeeded in forming, out of an old pewter plate, a key which would unlock his door. Upon making his final attempt the bunch of keys proved to be a proper collection for threading the entire labyrinth of the prison, not excepting the outer gate. Besides the keys and lamp there was a book containing, amongst other records, the minutes of his own examinations. This he took with him; and, carefully closing and locking every door after him, he made his way without interruption to the outside of the prison walls; and, after remaining six weeks secluded and disguised in the neighbourhood, he took his departure from Portugal, and reached England in safety, carrying with him the book and keys of the inquisition as trophies of his success.



**COSTA, EMANUEL MENDEZ DA.**—Of this learned naturalist but few particulars have been preserved; and he is best known by his "History of Fossils." His "Introduction to the Knowledge of Shells" is also a valuable work. It appeared in 1776.

**COSTER, LAURENS,** a wealthy citizen of Haerlem, who was born in that city in 1370. In 1431 he is believed to have been appointed to the office of sacristan of the parochial church of Haerlem, where he remained many years. He died of the contagious disease which raged in the latter part of 1439, in Haerlem. This is all that the contemporary city-records have preserved of his history; but more than a hundred years after his death, in the middle of the sixteenth century, traces of a tradition appeared, which assigned to the city of Haerlem the invention of the art of printing. At this time Hadrian Junius produced (in a work entitled "Batavia," written between 1562 and 1571, but not published till 1588, after his death), from the verbal information of some aged people, who again derived their knowledge from others, a complete history of the invention of the art of printing, in which Coster acted the chief part. During his walks in a wood near Haerlem (as Junius relates), he carved letters, at first for his amusement, in the bark of beech-trees. He persevered in these experiments, till he had finished entire lines, and finally proceeded so far as to cut out whole pages on the sides of boards. With blocks of this sort he effected the impression of the "Spiegel onzer Behoudenis." After this he improved his mode of printing by casting lead or pewter types. But a person by the name of John, whom he had employed as an assistant, stole his printing apparatus one Christmas night, and fled with it first to Amsterdam, and then to Cologne and Mentz, at which last place this theft occasioned the general diffusion of the art invented by Coster. In Holland the people are so firmly convinced of the truth of this story that a statue in honour of Coster was erected in 1622. His house, which fell down through age, was shown with the greatest respect; and, in 1740, the jubilee of his invention of the art of printing was celebrated.

**COSWAY, RICHARD,** a clever English artist, who was highly distinguished as a miniature painter. His oil paintings displayed striking beauties of composition; and he left a collection of drawings so large as to excite surprise, considering that they were made in the intervals of leisure from professional engagements which required almost unremitting exertion. These drawings, in point of excellence and variety, may be classed with the corresponding compositions of the most celebrated old Italian painters. Cosway possessed an excellent understanding, improved by study, and a turn for lively humour, which rendered him a most agreeable companion. He was of an enthusiastic disposition; and his feelings and manners had an air of extravagance, which has been well portrayed by the pen of a lively modern writer: "Fancy bore sway in him, and so vivid were his impressions that they included the reality in them. The agreeable and the true with him were one. He believed in Swedenborgianism; he believed in animal magnetism; he had conversed with more than one person of the Trinity; he could talk with his lady at Mantua, through a fine vehicle of sense, as we speak to a servant down stairs through an ear-pipe." He died at his house in the

Edgeware Road, whither he had removed from Stratford Place not long before his decease, having disposed of a great part of his curious collection of ancient pictures, and other objects of interest to the artist and antiquary. He left a widow, Mrs. Maria Cosway, a lady of taste and talents congenial with his own, whose works have been long known to the public, and highly appreciated.

**COTIN, CHARLES,** a learned member of the French Academy, who was born at Paris in 1604. He is indebted for his notoriety, in a great measure, to the satires of Boileau. He possessed a knowledge of theology and philosophy, understood the Hebrew and Syriac languages, and studied the Greek authors so diligently that he could repeat large portions of Homer and Plato by heart. Among his poems are many which possess great merit. It has often been supposed that Boileau introduced the name of Cotin into his satires because it furnished a convenient rhyme, and Moore refers to this in his "Life of Byron." But Boileau had good reasons for complaining of Cotin, who had represented him at the hotel Rambouillet as a dangerous man. The ridicule of Boileau exasperated Cotin still more, and he attempted every means of silencing him. His influence at court, his title and wealth, appeared to give him the means of effecting this object, but unluckily his follies drew upon him a new enemy in Molière, who, in his "Femmes Savantes," introduced him on the stage, and exposed him to ridicule, under the name of Trissotin. The sonnet to the princess Urania was composed by Cotin, and he engaged in a dispute respecting this poem with Ménage, in the presence of a select society, in which the disputants used the same kind of language which Molière places in the mouths of Trissotin and Vadius. Cotin died in 1682.

**COTTIN, SOPHIE RISTAUD,** better known by the name of Madame Cottin, the celebrated author of several novels and works of entertainment, was born in 1773 at Tonneins, in the department of Lot and Garonne. She married at the age of seventeen a banker at Bordeaux, and went soon after to Paris, where, in a few years, she lost her husband. To relieve her sorrow, she gave herself up to intellectual pursuits. To divert her thoughts, she wrote down the fancies and reflections that strongly occupied her active mind, without supposing that they would be of interest or value beyond the circle of her immediate friends; and in the ease with which she expressed her thoughts she discovered a talent which even those most intimate with her had not hitherto appreciated. Her first attempts were small poems and a history of 200 pages. One of her friends having occasion for fifty louis-d'ors, in order to leave France, from which he was banished, Madame Cottin, to assist the unfortunate man, published her "Claire d'Albe," but kept her name a secret. The necessity which she felt of pouring out her feelings determined her to appear again as an authoress; and she produced "Malvina," "Amélie de Mansfield," and "Elizabeth, or the Exiles of Siberia." The eloquence and fervour with which she expresses the most secret feelings of the heart have been much admired, especially by her own sex. Her circumstances enabled her to devote the profits of her works to benevolent objects. But a painful disorder prevented her from finishing a religious work which she had begun, and another on educa-

tion. The latter was the only one of her works for which she was anxious to gain a favourable reception with the public; for, singular as it may seem, she disapproved in general of women's appearing as authors. She died, after three months' suffering, on the 25th of August, 1807.

**COTTON, CHARLES**, a burlesque poet of the seventeenth century, who was born in 1630, and received his education at Cambridge, after which he travelled in France. Not being of a very provident disposition, he was subject to frequent embarrassments, and, at one time was confined in prison for debt. He died at Westminster in 1687. His works are numerous, including "Scarronides, or Virgil Travestie," being the first book of Virgil's *Aeneid*, in English burlesque, and a translation of "Montaigne's Essays." After the death of Cotton a volume was published, entitled "Poems on Several Occasions," which contains some pieces of considerable merit, chiefly of the light and humorous kind. He also translated the "Horaces," a tragedy of Corneille, and his pen was often employed to relieve his pecuniary difficulties.

**COTTON, SIR ROBERT BRUCE**, a celebrated English antiquary and collector of literary relics. He was born at Denton, in Huntingdonshire, in 1570, and, after having been at Westminster School, completed his studies in Trinity College, Cambridge. He then settled in London, devoting much of his time to antiquarian pursuits, and employing himself especially in collecting ancient deeds, charters, letters, and other manuscripts of various kinds, illustrative of the history of England. He was one of the earliest members of the Antiquarian Society; and he not only promoted the general objects of that learned association, but also assisted with his literary treasures, as well as with his purse, Speed, Camden, and other writers on British archæology. In the reign of James I. he was knighted; and, on the institution of the order of baronets, he was promoted to that rank. He died in May, 1631. He is chiefly memorable as the founder of the valuable Cottonian library, which collection was long preserved at Cotton House, Westminster. In 1700 it was appropriated to the public use; and, after having been partly destroyed by fire in 1731, it was removed in 1753 to the British Museum, where it now remains.

**COUCY, RENAUD CASTELLAN OF**.—This celebrated knight was the hero of a tragical occurrence which has often furnished a theme for the lays of the ancient poets. He was the nephew or at least the kinsman of Raoul, lord of Coucy, who accompanied Philip Augustus to the Holy Land, and with whom he has been sometimes confounded. A manuscript in French verse, in the Royal Library at Paris, entitled "Romance of the Castellan of Coucy, and the Lady of Fayel," written about 1228, and a chronicle on the same subject in 1380, in the possession of Fauchet, relate the following story:—Renaud, castellan of Coucy, was smitten with the charms of Gabrielle de Vergy, lady of Aubert de Fayel. The castle of Fayel was situated not far from Coucy, in the neighbourhood of St. Quentin. Renaud threw himself at the feet of Gabrielle, confessed his passion, and was at first repulsed, but not for ever, and the lovers often saw each other in private. The happiness of the parties was interrupted by the summoning of Coucy to the crusade. He embarked with Richard of England at Marseilles. With him he fought at

Cæsarea, and conquered at Ascalon. But, in defending a castle where the king was quartered, he was wounded by a poisoned arrow. The wound proved incurable, and Renaud requested leave to return to his country, which was granted. But, in a few days, he felt sensible that his end was approaching, and giving to his faithful squire a silver casket, with the presents of his mistress, "Take it," he said, "and guard it well; when I am dead, enclose my heart in this casket, and bear the whole to the lady of Fayel." He also added a letter, which he was hardly able to sign. He died, and his faithful squire hastened to the castle of Fayel. He was surprised by the lord of the castle, who, suspecting his appearance, ordered him to be searched, and found on him the gifts and the letter of Coucy. Burning with rage, he determined on revenge. He ordered the heart to be served at table. It was done, and Gabrielle ate of it. "Have you found the dish to your taste, madam?" he asked. "Excellent!" answered his victim. "I doubt it not," he replied; "it must have been a dainty morsel for you, for it was the heart of the castellan of Coucy." In fearful confirmation of his words, he gives her the letter of the dying Renaud. The unhappy woman, after this horrible meal, is said to have refused all sustenance, and died of voluntary starvation.

**COULOMB, CHARLES AUGUSTIN DE**, was born in 1736, at Angoulême, and early in life entered the corps of engineers, was sent to Martinique, where he constructed Fort Bourbon. In 1779 his theory of simple machines obtained the prize offered by the academy; and, in 1781, he was unanimously chosen a member of that body, and in all difficult cases of mechanics his judgment was appealed to, and invariably proved correct. A plan had been proposed to the estates of Brittany for making navigable canals in their province, and Coulomb, as commissioner of the government, was to give his opinion of the scheme. Convinced that the ultimate benefit would by no means be proportioned to the immense cost of the work, he decided against it. As this interfered with the plans of certain of the ministry, he was obliged to do penance in the Abbaye. Coulomb requested permission to resign his office, but his request was denied, and he was sent again to Brittany. His second decision was the same as the former, and the estates of Brittany honoured his judgment by the present of a watch bearing the arms of the province.

On the breaking out of the revolution Coulomb was knight of the order of St. Louis, and lieutenant-colonel in the corps of engineers; but he gave up all his offices to devote himself to the education of his children. This leisure was useful to the cause of science; for he was led, by experiments on the elastic force of bent metal rods, to discover some of the secrets of magnetism and the principles of electricity, which he ascertained with the more precision from the habit of combining, in all his enquiries, calculation with observation. On the restoration of the institute he was made a member, and appointed inspector-general of public instruction. He was actively employed in this department, which he was constantly elevating by his writings, and was in the enjoyment of much domestic happiness when he died on the 23rd of August, 1806.

**COVENTRY, FRANCIS**.—This talented individual was the eldest son of Thomas Coventry. He



was born in Cambridgeshire, and educated at Magdalen College, Cambridge, where he took his bachelor's degree in 1748, and his master's in 1752. He was a young man of very considerable talents, and would probably have been more distinguished had he not died in the prime of life by the small pox, in 1759, soon after he had been presented by his relation, the earl of Coventry, to the donative or perpetual curacy of Edgware. He published "Penshurst," an elegant poem, reprinted in Dodsley's collection, with a poetical epistle to "The Hon. Wilmot Vaughan, in Wales." He was also the author of a paper in the "World," on the absurdities of modern gardening, and of the well-known satirical romance of "Pompey the Little," published in 1751. Mr. Gray told Mr. Walpole, in a letter of that date, "Pompey is the hasty production of Mr. Coventry (cousin to him you know), a young clergyman. I found it out by three characters, which made part of a comedy that he showed me of his own writing." This cousin was Henry Coventry, author of the "Letters of Philemon to Hydaspes," and who was one of the writers of the "Athenian Letters." He died on the 29th of December, 1752.

**COURT DE GEBERLIN, ANTOINE.**—This learned individual was born at Nismes in 1724. His father, a Protestant, left France on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and repaired to Switzerland. The young Géberlin studied with eagerness the writings of the ancients, and in his twelfth year he gained the admiration of all by the extent of his knowledge. His studies embraced natural history, mathematics, the dead and living languages, mythology, antiquities, and archæology. After his father's death he made a journey to Languedoc, where he resigned to his sister his small patrimony, and went himself to Paris. Here he soon became connected with the most distinguished men. After ten years he published, from 1773 to 1784, "*Le Monde Primitif*." The learning displayed in this work excited universal admiration. It proves the existence of an original language, and explains the absurdities of mythology. It describes the formation of the first human societies, their laws and customs, and general character. The French Academy, to assist him in his useful and expensive undertaking, granted him, twice in succession, the prize belonging to the writer who, in the course of the year, had published the most valuable work. Another production of his is the "*Muséum*." Court de Géberlin was remarkable for his amiable and simple manners; and he looked with aversion on the quarrels of writers. Towards the end of his life he became a believer in animal magnetism, which was at that time much in vogue. He defended Mesmer, the author of the theory in his "*Lettre sur le Magnétisme Animal*." He died in 1784.

**COWARD WILLIAM**, a clever writer, who received his education at Wadham College, Oxford. He took his degree of M.A. in 1683, and that of M.D. in 1687; and, having settled in London as a physician, he published several professional treatises, among which was one entitled "*Ophthalmiatria*," but his work called "*Thoughts on the Human Soul*, demonstrating the Notion of Human Soul united to Human Body to be an Invention of the Heathens, and not consonant to the Principles of Philosophy or Reason," is the one on which his celebrity is founded. This work, however, excited so many animadversions from the divines of the period that an

order was obtained from the House of Commons for burning the book by the common executioner. He also wrote a didactic poem, entitled "*Licentia Poetica, or the True Test of Poetry*." Dr. Coward died in 1724, and left property to a considerable amount.

**COWLEY, HANNAH**, a popular dramatic writer, who was born at Tiverton, in Devonshire, in 1743. Her father was educated for holy orders; but, a family loss depriving him of a certainty of provision in the church, he desisted from his first intention and became a bookseller, as the nearest approach he could then prudently make to a life of some degree of literary enjoyment. He afterwards rose to be a member of the corporation of Tiverton, and was very highly respected as a man of talents and probity. He was not very distantly related to the poet Gay, who records his visit to his relations in Devonshire in his "*Journey to Exeter*," inscribed to the earl of Burlington. It was Mr. Parkhouse's favourite aim to cultivate the promising talents of his daughter, and he lived to witness the reputation she acquired almost to the last period of her literary career. In her twenty-fifth year she was married to Mr. Cowley, a man of very considerable talents, who died in 1797, a captain in the East India Company's service. It was when he was with his regiment in India that she dedicated her comedy of "*More Ways than One*" to him, in the affectionate lines prefixed to it, and it was to this gentleman's brother that "*The Fate of Sparta*" is dedicated with so much feeling.

Her acquaintance with the stage was sudden and apparently accidental. Sitting with her husband at one of the theatres some time in 1776, she expressed to him a notion that she could write as well as the author of the performance before them, and next morning sketched the first act of "*The Runaway*," which she so speedily completed, and with such success as to establish her fame completely. Having now fairly embarked she improved her vantage ground, and continued to write from time to time those pieces which are now published in the new edition of her works, all of which were received with approbation, and some, as the "*Belle's Stratagem*," were soon ranked among the best stock pieces, and still preserve their original attraction. In all, with considerable elegance and variety of style, she combines that happy observation of natural life and manners which furnishes well-discriminated characters, and apposite humour and satire, free from the unreal exaggerations of imagination. Her fables too, with one exception, are original and sufficiently intricate for the purposes of stage effect. Mrs. Cowley died on the 11th of March, 1809.

**COWLEY, ABRAHAM**, a distinguished English poet, who was born in 1618. His father, a grocer, died before his birth, but his mother obtained him admission into Westminster School as king's scholar. He complained of his own defective memory in the acquirement of the rules of grammar, but nevertheless became a correct classical scholar, and so early imbibed a taste for poetry that in his sixteenth or seventeenth year, while yet at school, he published a collection of verses which he entitled "*Poetical Blossoms*." These juvenile productions, which are more moral and sententious than imaginative, attracted considerable attention towards the author, who, in 1636, was elected a scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, where he soon obtained great

literary distinction, and published a pastoral comedy, entitled "Love's Riddle," and another in Latin called "*Naufragium Joculare*," which was acted before the university by the members of Trinity College. He continued to reside at Cambridge until 1643, when he was ejected by the puritanical visitors, on which he removed to St. John's College, Oxford, where he published a satirical poem, entitled "The Puritan and the Papist."

Cowley engaged actively in the royal cause, and was honoured with the friendship of Lord Falkland. When the queen was obliged to quit England Cowley accompanied her, and he was absent from his native country nearly ten years, during which time he undertook various journeys for the royal family; and it was principally through him that the correspondence was maintained between the king and queen. In 1647 appeared his collection of amatory poems, entitled the "Mistress." This was followed in 1650 by a comedy, called the "Guardian," afterwards altered into the "Cutter of Coleman Street." In 1656, being no longer employed abroad, he returned to England, where, it is presumed, he still remained a medium of confidential communication between the king and the royal party. Soon after his arrival he published an edition of his poems, containing most of the works which appear in the final collection. He was about this time committed to custody by the ruling powers, but was released on the celebrated Dr. Scarborough becoming bail for him to the amount of 1000*l*. For the purpose, probably, of appearing in an ostensible character, he assumed the profession of physic, and had sufficient interest to procure a *mandamus* from Oxford in 1657. He again visited France, and resumed his functions of agent in the royal cause on the death of Cromwell. On the restoration he returned with the other royalists. By the interest of the duke of Buckingham and the earl of St. Alban's he obtained the lease of a farm at Chertsey, held under the queen, by which his income was rendered about 300*l*. per annum. It however appears that neither the mind nor body of Cowley was fitted for his new mode of life. A severe cold and fever, caught from wandering among the damp fields, terminated his life in July 1667.

The private character of Cowley entitled him to general respect; and Charles II. (no very conclusive testimony, certainly) observed that he had not left a "better man behind him in England." It appears on higher authority, however, that the loyalty of Cowley was free from the servility and gross adulation of the courtiers of the day, and that he possessed a free independent spirit, was modest, sober, and sincere, of gentle affections and moderate wishes. As a poet he probably stands at the head of the metaphysical class so ably discussed in Dr. Johnson's life of him. He is by turns easy, gay, splendid, witty, and never trite and vulgar, although often fantastic, strained, and extravagant. The chief merit of Cowley consists in a kind of sport of the imagination in pursuit of a thought through all its variations and obliquities, and in searching throughout the material world for objects of similitude with intellectual ideas, connected by the most fanciful relations. The "Anacreontics" of Cowley are among his most agreeable pieces, and few have paraphrased the Teian bard more felicitously. His own original ballad, the "List of Mistresses," is deemed still

more sprightly and pleasant. His love verses, entitled the "Mistress," abound with wit, but are utterly destitute of feeling, being at once ingenious and frigid. His "Pindaric Odes" exhibit a most unbridled license of thought, metre, and expression, but contain many very striking combinations and images. His "Davideis," which is incomplete, although conveying no strong proof of epic talent, contains some pleasing passages. Of his occasional pieces his "Hymn to Light" is decidedly the most elevated and poetical. As an essayist in prose Cowley is natural, easy, and equable, abounding with thought, but without any of the affectation or straining which disfigures his poetry. Nor is his comedy the "Cutter of Coleman Street" without humour, although of a temporary nature. As a writer of Latin verse he is highly commended by Dr. Johnson. His principal performance in that language consists of six books on plants, which show remarkable facility in the accommodation of verse to an untoward subject. His imitations of the satires and moral epistles of Horace are also much admired by Warton. Whatever place Cowley may retain in general estimation as a poet, he must always stand high as a wit; few authors afford so many new thoughts, and those so entirely his own.

COWPER, WILLIAM.—This distinguished English poet was born at Berkhamstead in 1731. He received his early education in the neighbourhood of his father's rectory, where he made a great progress in his scholastic studies. At fourteen he was placed at Westminster School, but so sensitive a nature as his was but ill fitted for the rude collisions which it necessarily encountered in this institution; and though he appears to have been by no means averse nor unskilful in the youthful sports in which his companions engaged, yet the preponderance of unhappiness from their conduct was such that in his advanced years he always looked upon this period with the most painful recollections. In 1749 he left Westminster and was articled to an attorney for the space of three years, during which he appears to have enjoyed more of gaiety than at any other period of his life, in the company of his friend



Thurlow, afterwards Lord Chancellor. At the expiration of the term of his articles he entered the



Temple, with a view to the further study of the law. This occupation was manifestly but little suited to such a mental character as his, and his extreme diffidence appeared to cut him off from all hope of professional advancement. Through the interest therefore of his family he was nominated to the office of reading clerk and clerk to the private committees of the House of Lords. But so utterly incapacitated was he from that morbid diffidence which possessed him that he resigned the office.

Cowper's friends afterwards procured him the place of clerk of the journals to the House of Lords, the consequence of which is thus related by Mr. Hayley:—"It was hoped from the change of his station that his personal appearance in Parliament might not be required, but a parliamentary dispute made it necessary for him to appear at the bar of the House of Lords, to entitle himself publicly to the office. Speaking of this important incident in a sketch, which he once formed himself, of passages in his early life, he expresses what he endured at the time in these remarkable words:—"They whose spirits are formed like mine, to whom a public exhibition of themselves is mortal poison, may have some idea of the horrors of my situation; others can have none." His terrors on this occasion arose to such an astonishing height that they utterly overwhelmed his reason; for although he had endeavoured to prepare himself for his public duty by attending closely at the office for several months, to examine the parliamentary journals, his application was rendered useless by that excess of diffidence which made him conceive that whatever knowledge he might previously acquire it would all forsake him at the bar of the house. This distressing apprehension increased to such a degree, as the time for his appearance approached, that, when the day so anxiously dreaded arrived, he was unable to make the experiment. The very friends who called on him for the purpose of attending him to the House of Lords acquiesced in the cruel necessity of his relinquishing the prospect of a station so severely formidable to a frame of such singular sensibility. The conflict between the wishes of just affectionate ambition and the terrors of diffidence so entirely overwhelmed his health and faculties, that after two learned and benevolent divines (Mr. John Cowper, his brother, and the celebrated Mr. Martin Madan, his first cousin) had vainly endeavoured to establish a lasting tranquillity in his mind, by friendly and religious conversation, it was found necessary to remove him to St. Alban's, where he resided a considerable time under the care of that eminent physician Dr. Cotton." The period of his residence here was from December 1763 to July 1764, and the mode of his insanity appears to have been that of religious despondency; but this, about the last mentioned date, gave way to more cheering views.

After his recovery from this awful visitation he determined to retire from the busy world altogether, finding his mind alienated from the conversation and company however select in which he had hitherto delighted, and looking back with particular horror on some of his former associations; and by the advice of his brother, the Rev. John Cowper, of Cambridge, he removed to a private lodging in Huntingdon. He had not, however, resided long in this place before he was introduced into a family that for many years administered to his happiness, and evinced a warmth of friendship of which there

are few examples. This intercourse was begun by Mr. Cawthorn Unwin, a young man, a student of Cambridge, and son to the Rev. Mr. Unwin, rector of Grimston, and at this time a resident at Huntingdon. Mr. Unwin the younger was one day so attracted by Cowper's uncommon and interesting appearance that he solicited his acquaintance, and achieved this purpose, so that Cowper was finally induced to take up his abode with his new friend's amiable family, which then consisted of the Rev. Mr. Unwin, Mrs. Unwin, the son just mentioned, and a daughter. It appears to have been about the month of September, 1765, that he formed this acquaintance, and about February, 1766, he became an inmate in the family. In July, 1767, Mr. Unwin senior was killed by a fall from his horse. The letters which Mr. Hayley has published describe in the clearest light the singularly peaceful and devout life of the amiable writer during his residence at Huntingdon, and this melancholy accident which occasioned his removal to a distant county.

About this time he added to the number of his friends the late venerable and pious John Newton, rector of St. Mary Woolnoth, London, but then curate of Olney in Buckinghamshire, who, being consulted by Mr. Cowper as to an eligible residence for Mrs. Unwin, recommended a house at Olney, to which that lady, her daughter, and our poet, removed on the 14th of October, 1767. At this residence, endeared to them by the company and public services of a man of congenial sentiments, Cowper for some years continued to enjoy those blessings of a retired and devotional life which had constituted his only happiness since his recovery. His correspondence at this era evinces a placid train of sentiment, mixed with an air of innocent gaiety that must have afforded the highest satisfaction to his friends. Among other pleasures of the purest kind he delighted in acts of benevolence; and, as he was not rich, he had the additional felicity of being employed as an almoner in the secret benevolences of that most charitable of all human beings the late John Thornton, Esq., an opulent merchant of London, whose name he has immortalized in his poem on "Charity," and in some verses on his death, which Mr. Hayley first published. Mr. Thornton stately allowed Mr. Newton the sum of 200*l.* per annum, for the use of the poor at Olney, and it was the joint concern of Mr. Newton and Mr. Cowper to distribute this sum in the most judicious and useful manner. Such a bond of union could not fail to increase their intimacy. "Cowper," says Mr. Newton, "loved the poor; he often visited them in their cottages, conversed with them in the most condescending manner, sympathized with them, counselled and comforted them in their distresses, and those who were seriously disposed were often cheered and animated by his prayers." Of their intimacy the same writer speaks in these emphatic terms:—"For nearly twelve years we were seldom separated for seven hours at a time, when we were awake and at home. The first six I passed in daily admiring and aiming to imitate him, during the second six I walked pensively with him in the valley of the shadow of death." Among other friendly services about this time, he wrote for Mr. Newton some beautiful hymns, which the latter introduced in public worship, and published in a collection long before Cowper was known as a poet.

Cowper's life was but little marked with important events until 1773, when, in the language of one of his biographers, "he sunk into such severe paroxysms of religious despondency that he required an attendant of the most gentle, vigilant, and inflexible spirit. Such an attendant he found in that faithful guardian (Mrs. Unwin), whom he professed to love as a mother, and who watched over him during this long fit of depressive malady, extended through several years, with that perfect mixture of tenderness and fortitude which constitutes the inestimable influence of maternal protection." His recovery was slow, and his state of mind, meanwhile, was such as necessarily precluded him from any vigorous or continued study. He continued, however, to amuse himself with reading such new books as his friends procured for him, with writing short pieces of poetry, tending some birds and hares which he had tamed, and drawing landscapes, an art which he began to practise late in life, but in which he nevertheless acquired considerable excellence. His state of mind at this time may be best learned from a passage in one of his letters. "So long," says he, "as I am pleased with my employment, I am capable of unwearied application, because my feelings are all of the intense kind. I never received a little pleasure from anything in my life; if am delighted it is in the extreme. The unhappy consequence of this temperament is that my attachment to any occupation seldom outlives the novelty of it."

At length he was persuaded by the kind entreaties of his friend and companion, Mrs. Unwin, to prepare a volume of poems for the press; and accordingly, in his fiftieth year, he presented his first work to the public, comprising the "Table Talk," "Hope," the "Progress of Error," &c., and from that time continued to compose, chiefly at the suggestion of Lady Austen, a woman of great taste and talent with whom he had the happiness to become intimately acquainted. To her suggestions we owe "The Task," which was published in 1784, "John Gilpin," and other minor poems.

Allan Cunningham furnishes the following masterly review of his great work "The Task":—"Towards the close of the year 1784—about the time that Johnson died—appeared Cowper's noblest poem, 'The Task.' In accounting for the odd name, he says in his preface, 'A lady, fond of blank verse, demanded a poem of that kind from the author, and gave him the SOFA for a subject. He obeyed, and, having much leisure, connected another subject with it, and, pursuing the train of thought to which his situation and turn of mind led him, brought forth at length, instead of the trifle which he at first intended, a serious affair—a volume.' 'The Task' was received with an all but universal welcome: it contained so many moving pictures of men and manners, such fine landscapes of all seasons, filled with the breathing inhabitants of the land, and gave the beauties and the deformities of all with a fidelity at once brilliant and delicate. It is impossible to describe this fine poem better than by saying that it treats, in a masterly way, of all that affects us here, or influences us hereafter, that it pleads the cause of the poor and the desolate in the presence of the rich, admonishes the rich of their duty to their country, their cottars, and their God, takes the senate to task, shakes the scourge of undying verse over the pulpit, holds a

mirror before the profligacy of cities till they shudder at their own shadow, and exhibit to the hills and dales of the country an image of the follies of their sons and daughters. The satire was lively, discerning, and keen, the pathos without puling, and the tenderness had strength. The poet wandered, it is true, from topic to topic, yet he bound the remotest things together in the bands of sympathy and wit. The verse is free, unrestrained, and vigorous; and though some acute critics averred that it sounded like that of the 'Night Thoughts,' it is original in structure, language, and sentiment. Is this the voice of the epigrammatic Young?

'How in the name of soldier'ship and sense  
Should England prosper, when such things as smooth  
And tender as a girl all essenced o'er  
With odours, and as profligate as sweet,  
Who sell their laurel for a myrtle wreath,  
And love when they should fight—when such as these  
Presume to lay their hand upon the ark  
Of her magnificent and awful cause!'

Cowper next employed himself in a translation of Homer, and while thus engaged he was enabled, by the kindness of Lady Hesketh, to remove in November, 1786, from Olney to Weston, about two miles distant, where the house provided for him was more sequestered and commodious. Here too he had access to the society of Mr. Throckmorton, a gentleman of fortune in that neighbourhood, whose family had for some time studied to add to his comforts in a manner the most delicate and affectionate. It is indeed not easy to speak of the conduct of Cowper's friends in terms adequate to their merit, their kindness, sensibility, and judgment. Their attentions exceeded much of what we read, and perhaps all that we commonly meet with under the name of friendship.

The translation of Homer, after innumerable interruptions, was sent to press about November 1790, and published on the first of July 1791, in two quarto volumes, the "Iliad" being inscribed to Earl Cowper, his young kinsman, and the "Odyssey" to the dowager Lady Spencer. Such was its success with the subscribers and non-subscribers that the edition was nearly out of print in less than six months. Yet after all the labour he had employed, and all the anxiety he felt for this work, it fell so short of the expectation formed by the public, and of the perfection which he hoped he had attained, that, instead of a second edition, he began, at no long distance of time, what may be termed a new translation. To himself, however, his first attempt had been of great advantage, nor were any number of his years spent in more general tranquillity than the five which he had dedicated to Homer. One of the greatest benefits he derived from his attention to this translation was the renewed conviction that labour of this kind, although with intermissions sometimes of relaxation and sometimes of anxiety, was necessary to his health and happiness. And this conviction led him very soon to accede to a proposal made by his bookseller to undertake a magnificent edition of Milton's poetical works, the beauties of which had engaged his wonder at a very early period of life. These he was now to illustrate by notes original and selected, and to translate the Latin and Italian poems, while Mr. Fuseli was to paint a series of pictures to be engraven by the first artists. To this scheme, when yet in its infancy, the public is indebted for the friendship which Mr. Hayley contracted with Cowper, and one of its happiest consequences was such a specimen of



biography, minute, elegant, and highly instructive, as can seldom be expected.

His subsequent intervals of bodily health, few as they were, appear to have been attended with some return of attention to his favourite pursuits. His anxious friend, Mr. Johnson, embraced such opportunities to lead him to take delight in the revision of his "Homer," and, from Sept. 1797 to March 1799, he completed by snatches the revisal of the "Odyssey." Of the returns of his disorder he appears to have been sensible, and could describe it on its commencement and before it totally overpowered his faculties. In a letter to Lady Hesketh, dated October 13, 1798, which Mr. Hayley has preserved, he describes himself as one to whom nature "in one day, in one minute, became a universal blank." On this his biographer notices the opinion of some of his friends, that his disorder "arose from a scorbutic habit, which, when perspiration was obstructed, occasioned an unsearchable obstruction in the fine parts of his frame."

At intervals he still wrote a few original verses, of which "The Cast-away," his too favourite subject, was the last that came from his pen; but he amused himself occasionally with translations from Latin and Greek epigrams. His last effort of the literary kind was an improved version of a passage in Homer, which he wrote at Mr. Hayley's suggestion, and which that gentleman received on the 31st of January, 1800. In the following month he exhibited all the symptoms of dropsy, which soon made a rapid progress. On April 25, about five in the afternoon, he expired so quietly that not one of his friends who were present perceived his departure, but from the awful stillness which succeeded.

On Saturday, May 3, he was buried in St. Edmund's Chapel in Dereham Church, where Lady Hesketh caused a marble tablet to be erected, with an elegant inscription by Mr. Hayley. The subjoined sketch exhibits a view of Cowper's birth-place at Berkhamstead.



COXE, WILLIAM, a historian and traveller of great research, who was born in London, in 1747, and educated at Eton and Cambridge, and successively accompanied several young men of the first English families, on their travels in Europe in the capacity of tutor. Among these were the earl of Pembroke, the late Mr. Whitbread (the celebrated parliamentary orator), and the marquis of Cornwallis. He published an account of his travels through Switzerland in 1779,

and also through Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, which are highly esteemed, and have been translated into almost all the languages of Europe. As a historian, he brought himself into notice by his "Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole," in 1798, which were followed by those of Horatio Lord Walpole, in 1802. He then published his "History of the House of Austria," and afterwards his "Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon, from 1700 to 1788." "Marlborough's Life and Original Papers" is a valuable work. Mr. Coxe died in 1828.

COXE, or COXCIN, MICHAEL, a painter and engraver, born at Mechlin in 1497. He became a pupil of Bernard van Orley, travelled to Rome, where he remained several years, attracted by the works of Raphael, with whom he was probably personally acquainted. Here he executed several paintings in fresco, and many other works. He also painted the History of Cupid and Psyche, in the style of Raphael. In the imperial gallery of Vienna we find a Madonna with the infant Jesus, by him, but his works are rare, even in the Netherlands. He died in 1592.

COYPEL, a distinguished family of painters, who are believed to have originally come from Normandy. Noel Coypel was born in 1628, and was employed by the king of France to embellish the old Louvre with his paintings (from the cartoons of Lebrun), and, in like manner, to adorn the Tuileries. He was afterwards appointed a director of the French academy in Rome. His four pictures for the council hall at Versailles—Solon, Trajan, Severus, and Ptolemy Philadelphus—excited the admiration of connoisseurs; but his principal works are the Martyrdom of St. James, Cain murdering his Brother, the Trinity and the Conception of the Holy Virgin. Coypel had a rich imagination, drew correctly, understood expression, and was an agreeable colourist.—His son, Anthony Coypel, was born at Paris, and possessed great spirit and invention. At the age of fourteen he studied the works of the Venetian colourists; and, though his studies were interrupted by his speedy return to France, the works that he executed obtained the greatest applause, which rendered him probably more careless than he would otherwise have been. The richness of his imagination and the greatness of his composition caused his imperfect drawing to be overlooked, and his dazzling colouring excused his want of harmony. His fame laid the foundation for the manner of the French school.—Much more pure and correct, but comparatively neglected by the public of his time, was his younger brother, Noel Nicholas Coypel, usually called "Coypel the uncle," born at Paris in 1692, where he died in 1735. Far from desiring to dazzle by a false glitter, he aimed only at truth and nature. Without general popularity, he was satisfied with the praise of a small circle of connoisseurs of good taste. He finally received a place in the academy.—Charles Anthony Coypel followed the example of his father, and accommodated himself to the taste of his time with great success. The applause which he received did him much injury. He was entirely a mannerist. His colouring was dazzling, but inharmonious. His father was the author of a poetical epistle on painting, addressed to him, written with much elegance.

COYSEVOX, ANTOINE, a sculptor of great talent, who was born at Lyons in 1640, and went to Alsace, in his twenty-seventh year, to adorn the beautiful palace of the cardinal Fürstenberg at Sa-

verne. On his return to France he became a member of the Academy of the Arts of Painting and Sculpture, and made several busts of Louis XIV. and other works for the royal palaces. His figures are full of grace, natural and noble. He was called the *Vandyke of sculpture*, on account of the beauty and animation of his portraits. The statue of Cardinal Mazarin in the museum at Paris is a masterpiece of art.

CRABBE, GEORGE.—This distinguished poet was born on the 24th of December, 1754, at Aldborough in Suffolk, where his father was an officer of the customs. He was educated at the village school, and in 1768 was apprenticed to a surgeon who resided in a village near Bury St. Edmund's. He remained three years with this practitioner, but concluded his apprenticeship at Woodbridge, where he was first introduced to Miss Sarah Elmy, who was then living in the neighbourhood with an uncle, a yeoman of some substance. This introduction not only decided his matrimonial lot but had the most beneficial effect on the poet in his days of adversity. Indeed the ardent attachment he conceived for this amiable and well-educated young woman long furnished the only hope that cheered him on his gloomy way. He was at this time eighteen years old, and already a poet of some magazine celebrity, having figured in print among the *Damons and Delias* of the day. He became a candidate for a prize on the subject of hope, which was offered by the publishers of a "Lady's Magazine," and, as he said himself in after life, "he had the misfortune to gain it." This important event decided his turn for poetry; and of course he planned epics and tragedies, "and began to think of succeeding in the highest line of composition." Whilst at Woodbridge he filled a drawer with verses, and found means to get published at Ipswich a poem of some length and merit, entitled "Inebriety." In this piece he showed a fondness, which he never relinquished, for the style of Pope, and not a little vehemence of satire. Here also he felt the first growth of his lasting passion for the study of botany; and under the precept and example of his destined wife he improved his handwriting which had hitherto been very bad.

When his apprenticeship was completed he returned to his native place hoping that his father might afford to give him the means of "walking the hospitals" and finishing his professional education in London. But this was out of his father's power, and Crabbe was obliged to return to the homely labours of the warehouse on the Quay.

After a considerable period had elapsed his father sent him to London, where he suffered many painful privations, but at last obtained the countenance of Mr. Burke, who was at that period involved in the turmoil of politics and was far from being in affluent circumstances, but he took the young poet into his house and enabled him to publish his work, entitled the "Library," which sold remarkably well. And, as Crabbe's mind was of a very religious turn, his friend Mr. Burke prevailed on Dr. Yonge, then bishop of Norwich, to ordain him. In the autumn of 1782 Crabbe, being licensed as curate to the rector of Aldborough, returned to his native place. His poor mother, who would have been transported with joy at his success, was no more—she had died of dropsy during his protracted absence; but Miss Elmy, who had encouraged him in his difficulties, was alive and well to partake in his happiness.

They were however still too poor, and Crabbe's situation was too precarious to permit of a union even now. The manly prudence which the poet exercised in this respect, delaying his marriage with the woman whom he passionately loved until he had attained independence, is another most admirable trait in his character. Thanks to the persevering friendship of Burke, the poet remained only a few months in the ill-paid and otherwise disagreeable situation of curate of Aldborough. He was recommended to the duke of Rutland, and in 1783 that nobleman received Crabbe as his domestic chaplain at Belvoir Castle.

In May of the same year Crabbe published "The Village," which Dr. Johnson and Burke had read with great delight, both having suggested some trifling alterations in the manuscript. This poem greatly increased the fame he had procured by "The Library;" it became at once popular and raised the name of Crabbe to a level with those of the first writers of the age. Charles Fox and all the most accomplished men of the day hailed its appearance with rapture, and (what was perhaps equally pleasing to the author) its home-truths touched the hearts of people in humbler walks of life. This sudden and great popularity had no evil effect on Crabbe. "The successful author continued as modest as the rejected candidate for publication had been patient and long-suffering." During his visit to town at this time, while his friends were concerting measures to obtain him a university degree, Lord Thurlow in his usual summary manner invited him to dinner, at which, telling him that "he was as like Parson Adams as twelve to a dozen," he gave him two small livings in Dorsetshire.

Although the duke and duchess of Rutland and other members of the family treated Crabbe with a kindness and consideration for which he ever remained grateful and attached to that noble house, his situation at Belvoir Castle does not appear to have been a very pleasant one. The style and habits of a dependant and an appendage to rank were ill suited to Crabbe's manly, frank, and somewhat stern character. In addition to Crabbe's love of independence there was his anxious desire to fulfil his engagements with Miss Elmy; and when the duke was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland Crabbe did not go with him, but relying on the income from his two livings, which though small afforded the means of subsistence in a quiet humble way, went into Suffolk and claimed the hand of his constant mistress. After an affection which had endured for thirteen years, and had been exposed to vicissitudes of no ordinary nature, the worthy couple were married at Beccles in the month of December, 1783. For a year and a half they occupied an apartment in Belvoir Castle, kindly assigned to them by the absent duke and duchess. But even this degree of dependence was not to the taste of Crabbe, who, as soon as he procured the neighbouring curacy of Stathern, transferred his little family to the rustic personage of that place. Here he passed four years of tranquil study and of the most perfect domestic happiness. The glare of the great world in which he had mixed never dazzled him for a moment, and his tastes remained as simple and unexpensive as in the days of his youth.

In 1785 he published "The Newspaper," another poem of high merit, which procured him anew the



praises and encouragements of the critics and all his great friends. We are now come to a remarkable fact in the life of Crabbe: successful as had been his career as a poet, and flattering as had been his reception as a gentleman in the very highest circles, he from this time entirely withdrew, in both capacities, from the eyes of the world.

His "Parish Register" was published at the interval of twenty-two years after "The Newspaper;" and from his thirty-first year to his fifty-second he buried himself completely in the obscurity of domestic and village life, hardly catching from time to time a single glimpse of the brilliant society in which he had for a season been welcomed, and gradually forgotten as a living author by the public.

After he had held the two poor livings in Dorsetshire about four years Lord Thurlow, at the request of the duchess dowager of Rutland, exchanged them for two crown livings in the vale of Belvoir, which together brought him in somewhat more than 400*l.* per annum. On this revenue and the produce of a little property left him by his wife's uncle, to which we must add his literary gains, which were very limited, he not only educated both his sons at Cambridge, but contrived to spend considerable sums in charity every year. In 1714 the duke of Rutland, on Crabbe's resigning the livings he held, gave him that of the large town of Trowbridge in Wiltshire, together with the incumbency of Croxton near Belvoir. This was the utmost extent of Crabbe's promotion; and now his income amounted altogether to about 800*l.* per annum, a large portion of which he spent in acts of charity.

In the year 1817 Mr. Murray, the publisher of Crabbe's poems, bought the copyright of all his works for the munificent sum of 3000*l.* The simple feelings of the poet are shown by an anecdote mentioned by Mr. Moore in a letter.

"When he received the bills for 3000*l.* we earnestly advised that he should without delay deposit them in some safe hands; but no, he must 'take them with him to Trowbridge and show them to his son John. They would hardly believe in his good luck at home if they did not see the bills.' On his way down to Trowbridge, a friend at Salisbury, at whose house he rested (Mr. Everett the banker), seeing that he carried these bills loosely in his waistcoat pocket, requested to be allowed to take charge of them for him; but with equal ill-success. 'There was no fear,' he said, 'of his losing them, and he must show them to his son John.'

"His charitable nature was so well known that he was regularly visited by mendicants of all grades; he listened to their long stories of wants and woes with some impatience, and when they persevered he would say, 'God save you all—I can do no more for you,' and so shut the door. But the wily wanderers did not on this depart; they knew the nature of the man: he soon sallied out in search of them; and they generally got a more liberal present on the way from his house than at the door. He has even been known to search obscure lodging-houses in Trowbridge, to relieve the sufferers whom misfortunes had driven to beggary. He was of course often imposed upon by fictitious tales of woe, which when he discovered he merely said, 'God forgive them: I do.'"

Mr. Crabbe died on the 3rd of February, 1832, after a short illness.

As a poet Crabbe was distinguished for the graphic

accuracy of his descriptions, especially of natural objects and scenes in ordinary life; and we subjoin the following lines as a specimen of his peculiar style:—

"———doleful ballads, songs  
Of lovers' sufferings, and of ladies' wrongs,  
Of peevish ghosts who came at dark midnight,  
For breach of promise guilty men to fright,  
Love, marriage, murder, were the themes with these;  
All that on idle ardent spirits seize:  
Robbers at land, and pirates on the main,  
Enchanters foil'd, spells broken, giants slain,  
Legends of love, with tales of halls and bowers,  
Choice of rare songs, and garlands of choice flowers,  
And all the hungry mind without a choice devours."

CRADOCK, JOSEPH, a gentleman of independent fortune, born in 1742. He was the author of "Village Memoirs" and several other works of considerable merit. The last was published in 1826, it was entitled "Literary and Miscellaneous Memoirs," and was followed in a few weeks by the death of the venerable author, which took place on the 15th of December, 1826. A collection of his works have since been edited by Mr. John Bowyer Nichols.

CRAMER, GABRIEL.—This distinguished individual was a native of Geneva, where he became professor of mathematics. His correspondence with eminent mathematicians in various parts of Europe was very extensive; and he was a member of several scientific societies. In 1750 he was made professor of natural philosophy in the university; and died in 1752 at the age of forty-eight, after having occupied with reputation several political offices in the canton.

CRAMER, JOHN ANDREW, one of the most eminent literati of modern Germany. He was born at Jostadt near Annaberg in 1723; and after receiving some education under his father, who was a clergyman, he was sent in 1742 to the university of Leipzig. He adopted the ecclesiastical profession; and, after having occupied different situations in his own country, he was through the friendship of Klopstock and the patronage of Count Bernstorff, in 1754, made chaplain to the court at Copenhagen; and in 1765 he was appointed professor of theology in the university of that city. The revolution in Denmark which accompanied the fall of Count Struensee deprived Cramer of his chaplainship; and in 1771 he retired to Lubeck. In 1774 he again entered into the Danish service becoming professor of theology at Kiel, and preacher in the castle church. He died June 12th, 1788.

CRAMER, JOHN ANDREW, a German metallurgist of great eminence. He was born at Quedlinburg in 1710, and died near Dresden in December 1777. He appears to have been the first who treated of the art of assaying systematically, in his work entitled "Elementa Artis Docimasticæ," which was republished in an improved form in 1744, and has been translated into German, French, and English. He also wrote a treatise on the management of forests and another on metallurgy, which was left incomplete in consequence of his death. Cramer was an excellent practical chemist, and made artificial gems of great beauty. He was well acquainted with natural philosophy, natural history, mathematics, astronomy, and political economy.

CRANMER, THOMAS.—This celebrated ecclesiastic was born in 1489. He entered as a student of Jesus College, Cambridge, in 1503, took the degree of M. A., when he obtained a fellowship, and, in 1523, was chosen reader of theological lectures in his

college, and examiner of candidates for degrees in divinity. In the course of conversation on the then meditated divorce of Henry VIII. from his first wife, Catharine of Arragon, Cranmer remarked that the question of its propriety might be better decided by consulting learned divines and members of the universities than by an appeal to the pope. The opinion thus delivered having been reported to the king by Doctor Fox, his majesty was highly delighted with it, exclaiming, at the prospect it afforded him of being able to remove obstacles to the gratification of his passions, "By —, the man has got the sow by the right ear!" Cranmer was sent for to court, made a king's chaplain, and commanded to write a treatise on the subject of the divorce. In 1530 he was sent abroad, with others, to collect the opinions of the divines and canonists of France, Italy, and Germany on the validity of the king's marriage. At Rome he presented his treatise to the pope, and afterwards proceeded to Germany, where he obtained for his opinions the sanction of a great number of German divines and civilians, and formed a very intimate connexion with the rising party of the Protestants. He also contracted marriage, though



in holy orders, with the niece of Doctor Osiander, a celebrated Protestant divine. Cranmer was employed by the king to conclude a commercial treaty between England and the Netherlands, after which he was ordered home, to take possession of the metropolitan see of Canterbury. He hesitated to accept of this dignity, professing to be scrupulous about applying to the pope for the bulls necessary for his consecration. This difficulty was obviated by a vague and secret protestation, which can be justified only on the Jesuitical principle of the lawfulness of mental reservations of virtual falsehoods. The application being therefore made in the usual manner to the court of Rome, the pall and bulls were sent. Soon after he set the papal authority at defiance, by pronouncing sentence of divorce between Henry and Catharine, and confirming the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn. The pope threatened excommunication, and an act of parliament was immediately passed for abolishing the pope's supremacy, and declaring the king chief head of the church of

England. The archbishop employed all his influence in forwarding such measures as might give permanence to the reformation. The Bible was translated into English, and dispersed among the people. The monastic institutions were suppressed. The superstitious observances connected with them were abolished; and provision was made for the instruction of all ranks in the principles of the prevailing party.

In 1536 the casuistry of Cranmer was a second time exerted to gratify the base passions of his tyrannical sovereign. When Anne Boleyn was destined to lose her reputation and her life, that the king might take another consort, it was determined also to bastardize her issue; and the archbishop meanly stooped to pronounce a sentence of divorce, on the plea that the queen had confessed to him her having been contracted to Lord Percy, before her marriage with the king. The compliances of the primate served to ensure him the gratitude of Henry, though he was obliged to make some important sacrifices to royal prejudice, which was strongly in favour of the ancient faith, where that did not tend to curb the king's own passions or prerogatives. In 1539 was passed an act of parliament, called the *bloody act*, condemning to death all who supported the right of marriage of priests, and communion of both kinds to the laity, and who opposed transubstantiation, auricular confession, vows of chastity, and the necessity of private masses. Cranmer opposed, as long as he dared, this enactment; but, finding his efforts vain, he gave way, and sent his own wife back to her friends in Germany. He subsequently succeeded in carrying some points in favour of further reformation; and, in 1540, he published a work for popular use, chiefly of his own composition, entitled "The Necessary Erudition of a Christian Man."

On the death of Henry the archbishop was left one of the executors of his will, and member of the regency appointed to govern the kingdom during the minority of Edward VI. He united his interest with that of the earl of Hertford, afterwards duke of Somerset, and proceeded to model the church of England according to the notions of Zuinglius, rather than those of Luther. By his instrumentality the liturgy was drawn up and established by act of parliament, and articles of religion were compiled, the validity of which was enforced by royal authority, and for which infallibility was claimed. Under Cranmer's ecclesiastical government, Joan Bocher and George van Paris were burnt as heretics; and the fate of the former is rendered peculiarly striking by the fact that the primate, by his spiritual authority and pressing importunity, constrained the young king to sign the death warrant for the *auto-de-fé* of the unhappy criminal, which he would not do till he had disburdened his own conscience by telling the archbishop that, if the deed were sinful, he should answer for it to God. The exclusion of the princess Mary from the crown, by the will of her brother, was a measure in which Cranmer joined the partisans of Lady Jane Grey, apparently in opposition to his own judgment. With others who had been most active in her elevation he was sent to the Tower on the accession of Mary. That princess had personal obligations to Cranmer, who is said to have preserved her from the anger of her father, which menaced her with destruction for her pertinacious adherence to



the Catholic faith; but she could not forget or forgive the disgrace of her mother and herself, in effecting which the archbishop had been so important an agent. He was therefore destined to become the victim of Catholic ascendancy. He was tried before commissioners sent from Rome, on the charges of blasphemy, perjury, incontinence, and heresy, and cited to appear within eighty days at Rome, to deliver in person his vindication to the pope. To comply with this mandate was impossible, as he was detained in prison; nevertheless he was declared contumacious for not making his appearance, and sentenced to be degraded and deprived of office. After this flattering promises were made, which induced him to sign a recantation of his alleged errors and become in fact a Catholic convert.

The triumph of his enemies was now complete, and nothing was wanting but the sacrifice of their abused and degraded victim. Oxford was the scene of his execution; but, to make the tragedy more impressive, he was placed on a scaffold in St. Mary's church the day he was to suffer, there to listen to a declaration of his faults and heresies, his extorted penitence, and the necessity of his expiating, by his death, errors which Heaven alone could pardon, but which were of an enormity too portentous to be passed over by an earthly tribunal. Those who planned this proceeding accomplished but half their object. Instead of confessing the justness of his sentence, and submitting to it in silence, or imploring mercy, he calmly acknowledged that the fear of death had made him belie his conscience, and declared that nothing could afford him consolation but the prospect of extenuating his guilt by encountering, as a Protestant penitent, with firmness and resignation, the fiery torments which awaited him. He was immediately hurried to the stake, where he acted with the resolution of a martyr, keeping his right hand, with which he had signed his recantation, extended in the flames, that it might be consumed before the rest of his body, exclaiming, from time to time, "That unworthy hand!" He was executed on the 21st of March, 1556.

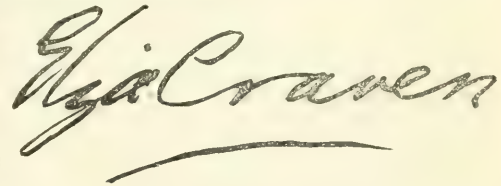
The fate of Cranmer has shed a false lustre over his character and procured him the reputation of a Protestant martyr, while he was in reality the victim of party malice and personal revenge. Successively a Catholic, a Lutheran, a Zuinglian, a defender of transubstantiation, and then a persecutor of those who believed that doctrine, the soundness, if not the sincerity, of his faith may fairly be questioned. Even the purity of his motives, as a reformer, is rendered somewhat doubtful by the fact of his having obtained, on very advantageous terms, numerous grants of estates which had belonged to suppressed monasteries. His private character, however, was amiable; and, whatever may have been his principles, no doubts can exist as to the eminence of his talents. His continued favour with the capricious Henry is a decisive proof of his mental superiority. He steadily pursued his grand object—the independence of the English church, to the establishment of which he contributed far beyond any other individual.

CRASHAW, RICHARD, a celebrated English poet. He was educated at Cambridge, from which university he was ejected, in 1644, for refusing to take the covenant. Crashaw afterwards proceeded to France, where he died in 1650. Milton and other

poets have borrowed liberally from Crashaw, whose works have been published in a variety of forms, but the best selection appeared in 1785.

CRAVEN, ELIZABETH LADY, MARGRAVINE OF ANSPACH, was the youngest daughter of the earl of Berkeley, born in 1750, and married in 1767 to William last earl of Craven, by whom she had seven children; but, after a connexion of fourteen years, a separation was agreed upon in 1781, and Lady Craven after this, lived successively at the courts of Versailles, Madrid, Lisbon, Vienna, Berlin, Constantinople, Warsaw, St. Petersburg, Rome, Florence, and Naples, then in Anspach, where she became acquainted with the margrave Christian Frederic Charles Alexander, a nephew of Frederic the Great. On this tour, in 1787, she was persuaded by the Count Choiseul-Gouffier, French ambassador to Constantinople, to descend into the grotto of Antiparos, which no woman had ever before visited.

After the death of Lord Craven at Lisbon, in 1791, the margrave married her, surrendered his estates to the king of Prussia for a yearly pension, and went with his consort to England, where he purchased an estate not far from Hammersmith, and died in 1806. From that time till her death Lady Craven lived partly in England and partly in Naples. The account of her travels through the Crimea to Constantinople, in a series of letters, was first published in 1789. A new enlarged edition appeared in 1814. Besides these she wrote poems, plays, and romances, also her own memoirs. These are interesting on account of her intercourse with Catharine II., Joseph II., and other princes. We subjoin the autograph of this lady.



CRAWFORD, ADAIR.—This eminent natural philosopher was born in 1749. He early in life directed his attention to the nature of heat, on which subject he published a work which has been very popular. He was physician to St. Thomas's Hospital, and pursued his medical labours till the time of his death in 1795.

CRAWFURD, DAVID.—This eminent Scottish historian was born at Drumsoy, near Glasgow, in 1665. He was highly distinguished by Queen Anne, and under her patronage published memoirs intended to brighten the worst features of the reign of Mary. In support of his view he quoted some works as authorities that had never existed, and materially perverted many others. He died in 1726.

CREBILLON, PROSPER JOLYOT DE, the elder, a writer of tragedy, who is compared by his countrymen even to Æschylus. He was born at Dijon on the 15th of February, 1674, and early manifested considerable talent at the school of the Jesuits in his native town, but, at the same time, a boisterous and heedless temper. Being designed for the legal profession, he was placed with an attorney named Prieur at Paris; but they were both lovers of the theatre, so that the youth made little progress in his studies.

The attorney perceived, too, that his pupil was disqualified for the profession by his passionate temperament, but showed penetration and judgment in his criticisms on dramatic performances. He therefore advised him, though he had as yet written nothing but some trifling songs and scraps of verse, to apply himself to dramatic composition. Crébillon did so; but his first piece, "*La Mort des Enfants de Brutus*," was rejected by the players. He burnt the manuscript and resolved to have no more to do with the drama; but subsequently, at the persuasion of Prieur, he wrote "*Idoménée*," which in 1705, was brought upon the stage. The faults of the play were overlooked in consideration of the youth of the author, and the promising talent which it displayed; and the promptness with which the author in five days wrote anew the last act, which had displeased at the first representation, drew the attention of the public to the young poet, whose talents, after the appearance of his "*Atree*" in 1707, were loudly applauded. Prieur, though sick, requested to be carried to the theatre, and said to the young tragedian, "I die content; I have made you a poet, and leave in you a man who belongs to the nation." A strange taste for unnatural declamation had been excited by the "*Rhodogune*," and this style was carried to excess by Crébillon, in the "*Atree*." In 1709 appeared his "*Electre*," which is as declamatory and as intricate as his earlier plays; yet it suited the taste of the age. His chef d'œuvre, at least according to La Harpe, is his "*Rhadamiste*." But Boileau on his death-bed, hearing the first scenes of this tragedy read to him by Leverrier, could not help exclaiming to his friends, "Heavens! do you wish to hasten my death? Why, the Boyers and Pardons were suns to this author! I shall be more willing to leave the world since our age is becoming inundated with silly trash." Most persons of the present day would probably agree with Boileau. In eight days the "*Rhadamiste*" passed through two editions, and Paris and Versailles vied with each other in admiring it. Crébillon had been told that his talent lay in the terrible, and thought, therefore, that he could not exert himself too much in scenes of horror, and hence was called the *terrible*. "*Xerxes*," which appeared in 1714, exceeded in this respect all that he had before written, but soon disappeared from the stage. It was not till several years after this that his "*Pyrrhus*" appeared, and met with a good reception contrary to the expectation of the author, who, in this work, had abstained from the frightful and shocking. Domestic distress and poverty seem, from this time, to have crippled the powers of his genius. His small patrimony was absorbed by debts and law expenses. A father and a beloved wife were taken from him within a short time.

Amidst the embarrassments in which he was involved, he refused, with characteristic inflexibility, all the offers of assistance which were made him. When Madame de Pompadour wished to humble Voltaire, Crébillon was thought of as a fit instrument for her purpose. The king gave him the office of censor of the police, a yearly pension of 1000 francs, and an appointment in the library. Thus freed from anxiety he finished his "*Catiline*," which was represented at the king's expense in 1749, with all the pomp that the court theatre could display. This piece, overrated by the party opposed to Voltaire, is undervalued by La Harpe. To make some

atonement to the character of Cicero, which was thought to have been wronged in his "*Catiline*," he wrote the "*Triumvirate*, or the death of Cicero," which was brought upon the stage in his eighty-first year. The defects of the piece were overlooked from respect to the age of the author. Thus much for his dramatic compositions. In general Crébillon shows none of the true elevation of the tragic art, but only an imitation, sometimes a happy one, of the manner struck out by Corneille. He was a man of a proud and independent character, disdained to flatter the great, and passed much of his life in a condition bordering on poverty. Crébillon died in June, 1762. Louis XV. erected a magnificent monument to him in the church of St. Gervais, which, however, was never entirely completed till it was removed to the museum of French monuments. Besides the splendid edition of Crébillon's works published by order of Louis XV. for the benefit of the author, after the successful performance of "*Catiline*," there is another published by Didot.

CREBILLON, CLAUDE PROSPER JOLYOT DE, the younger, son of Prosper Crébillon, was born at Paris in 1707, and succeeded as an author in an age of licentiousness. By the exhibition of gross ideas, covered only with a thin veil, and by the subtleties with which he excuses licentious principles, Crébillon contributed to diffuse a general corruption of manners, before confined to the higher circles of Parisian society. In later times the French taste has been so much changed, especially by the revolution, that such indelicacies as are found in his works would not be tolerated at the present day. His own morals, however, appear to have been the opposite of those which he portrayed. We are told of his cheerfulness, his rectitude of principle, and his blameless life. In the circle of the "*Dominicaux*" (a Sunday society) he was a favourite; and the *caveaux* where Piron, Gallet, and Collé, wrote their songs and uttered their jests was in some sort made respectable by his company.

CRESCENZI, D. JUAN BAPTISTA, MARQUIS DE LA TORRE.—This artist was born at Rome towards the end of the sixteenth century, and studied the art of painting under Pomerancias. Some of his early compositions attracted the attention of the pope, Paul V., who entrusted him with the decoration of Pauline chapel. Cardinal Zapata took him to Spain, in 1617, where he obtained the favour of Philip III. Some splendid paintings of flowers occasioned his receiving the commission to build the sepulchral monument in the Escorial, the splendour and finished elegance of which place is among the most remarkable monuments of Europe. The bronze figures were executed by Roman artists. Philip IV. made him a grandee of Castile, with the title of *marquis de la Torre*, and conferred upon him other marks of distinction. His house, which contained rich treasures in every branch of art, was ever open to artists. He died in 1660.

CREECH, THOMAS, a scholar of some eminence for his classical translations, who was born in 1659. He took the degree of M. A. at Oxford in 1683, having the preceding year established his reputation as a scholar by printing his "*Translation of Lucretius*." He also translated several other of the ancient poets, wholly or in part, comprising selections from Homer and Virgil, nearly the whole of Horace, the thirteenth satire of Juvenal, the "*Idyls of Theocritus*," and several of "*Plutarch's Lives*." He



likewise published an edition of "Lucretius" in the original, with interpretations and annotations. He put an end to his life at Oxford, in 1700. Various causes are assigned for this rash act, but they are purely conjectural. He owes his fame almost exclusively to his "Translation of Lucretius," the poetical merit of which is very small, although in the versification of the argumentative and mechanical parts some skill is exhibited. As an editor of "Lucretius" he is chiefly valuable for his explanation of the Epicurean philosophy, for which, however, he was largely indebted to Gassendi.

CRESCIMBENI, GIOVANNI MARIA, a scholar and poet, was born at Macerata, in the Mark of Ancona, October the 9th, 1663. When but a child he displayed an inclination for poetry, Ariosto's verses, in particular, were impressed on his memory by an edition of "Orlando Furioso," with copperplates, in which he used to search for and peruse the passages to which the engravings referred. In the Jesuits' college, at Macerata, he wrote a tragedy—"Darius;" and at the age of fifteen he was a member of an academy, and at sixteen doctor of laws. His father sent him, in 1681, to Rome, to perfect himself in the knowledge of law; but he applied himself with still more zeal to poetry. Some canzoni of Filicaja, in 1687, gave him correct views of the character of the poetry then in vogue. Dissatisfied with all that he had formerly attempted, he felt himself at once constrained to imitate only the ancient models, and to recommend their simple and natural manner to his contemporaries. Crescimbeni belonged to all the three academies in Rome, which rivalled each other in wretched verses. Out of these he selected certain members whose views harmonized with his own, and formed a new academy, which was sportively called the Arcadia, in allusion to the rural taste of the founder. He was the first custode of this academy, under the name of Alfesibeo Cario, and was re-elected to the office for several successive Olympiads. Crescimbeni, delighted with the success of his plan, was not the least active among his fellow poets. In 1698 appeared his "Istoria della Volgar Poesia"—a work of vast industry, but destitute of method and criticism. He next published his "Trattato della Bellezza della Volgar Poesia," which passed in a short time through three editions. The favour of Clement XI. placed him in an easy situation. In the tranquillity of his canonicate, disturbed only by the disputes of the Arcadians, the number of his works rapidly increased. He made a translation of "Nostradamus's Lives of the Provençal Poets," with additions, enlarged his own "Commentaries" with four valuable volumes, and wrote a "History of Arcadia," and "Lives of the Arcadian Poets." About this time also appeared the first two volumes of verses of his Arcadia, which were well received. Both Clement and Benedict rewarded his labours with ecclesiastical honours; and John V. of Portugal presented the Arcadia with some funds. The society erected a theatre, still existing, on the Janiculum, and their first Olympic games were celebrated on the 9th of September, 1726, in honour of the king of Portugal. The poems which Crescimbeni read on that occasion were received with lively approbation. Meanwhile his constitution was yielding to a disorder of the breast. After being admitted at his request into the order of the Jesuits, in whose garb he wished to die, he expired March 8, 1728.

CRESPI, GIUSEPPE MARIA, surnamed il Spagnuolo, a painter of considerable talents, who was born at Bologna, 1655, studied the masterpieces in the monastery of San Michael in Bosco, and particularly imitated the Caracci, whose works he also copied. He received instruction from Canuti, then from Cignani, afterwards studied in Venice and Parma, and finally came out with his own productions in his native city. His first work was the Combat of Hercules with Antæus. From this time he had continual employment. He painted for Cardinal Ottoboni the Seven Sacraments, now in the Dresden Gallery, several pieces for Prince Eugene of Savoy, for the elector of the Palatinate, for the grand-duke of Tuscany, and for Cardinal Lambertini, his patron, who afterwards when Pope Benedict XIV. conferred on him the honour of knighthood. Crespi, however, has been frequently censured for the singular ideas which he often introduced into his paintings; as for instance, he represents Chiron giving his pupil Achilles a kick for some fault that he had committed. Moreover he painted every thing a prima, with strong bold strokes in the manner of Caravaggio, and has become a mannerist from a desire to be constantly new. He had many scholars, among whom were his two sons, Antonio and Luigi Crespi. The latter distinguished himself by his writings on painting. Crespi died in 1747.

CREVENNA, PIETRO ANTONIO, commonly called Bolongaro Crevenna, a bibliographer, born in the middle of the eighteenth century, at Milan. He received from his father-in-law Bolongaro (whose name he took) a large fortune, and lived mostly in Holland. Love for the sciences, in particular for literary history, induced him to devote his hours of leisure from an extensive commercial business to literary pursuits, and to collect a choice library. The learned catalogues of his books, prepared by himself and others, have given to the works which belonged to him great value in the eyes of amateurs, and the catalogues themselves have bibliographical authority. His "Catalogue Raisonné de la Collection des Livres de M. Crévénna" contains an exact description of the "Incunabula," with collations of rare books, and letters of many learned men of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, printed there for the first time. In 1790 he sold the greatest part of his library by public auction. Towards the end of his life he left Holland, and died at Rome in 1792.

CRICHTON, JAMES, a celebrated individual who was born in Scotland in 1551, or, according to some accounts, in 1560, of a noble family. On account of his remarkable endowments, both of body and mind, he obtained the surname of the "admirable." He was educated at the university of St. Andrew's, and, before his twentieth year, had run through the whole circle of the sciences, could speak and write to perfection ten different languages, and was equally distinguished for his skill in riding, dancing, singing, and playing upon all sorts of instruments. Thus accomplished he set out on his travels, and is said to have gone to Paris, where he offered to dispute in any art or science, and to answer whatever should be proposed to him in either of the following languages:—Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Greek, Latin, Spanish, French, Italian, English, Dutch, Flemish, and Slavonic, and this either in prose or verse, at the option of his antagonist. On the day fixed he is said to have maintained the contest from nine o'clock

in the morning until six at night, to the great admiration of the spectators, who saluted him as the "admirable Crichton." Before and after the dispute he was engaged in tilting, vaulting, &c., or in balls, concerts, and other similar amusements.

This account is probably derived from the following letter, which has generally been applied to Crichton:—"There came to the college of Navarre a young man of twenty years of age, who was perfectly well skilled in all the sciences, as the most learned masters of the university acknowledged. In vocal and instrumental music none could excel him. In painting and drawing in colours none could equal him. In all military feats he was most expert, and could play with the sword so dexterously with both his hands that no man could fight him. When he saw his enemy he would throw himself upon him at one jump of twenty or twenty-four feet distance. He was a master of arts, and disputed with us in the schools of the college, in medicine, the civil and canon law, and theology; and, although we were above fifty in number, besides above 3000 that were present, so pointedly and learnedly he answered to all the questions proposed that none but eye-witnesses can believe. He spoke Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and other languages most politely. He was a most excellent horseman, and, truly, if a man should live a hundred years without eating, drinking, or sleeping, he could not attain to this man's knowledge, which struck us with a panic; for he knew more than human nature can well bear. He overcame four of the doctors of the church, for, in learning, none could contest with him; and he was thought to be Antichrist."

After similar exhibitions at Rome and Venice we find him in 1581 at Padua, exposing the errors of Aristotle, astonishing his hearers with his ingenuity and elegance in an extempore oration in praise of ignorance, and finally, to confound his enemies, offering to prove the fallacies of Aristotle and the ignorance of his commentators, to dispute in all the sciences, to answer all that should be proposed or objected, in the common logical way, or by numbers and mathematical figures, or in a hundred sorts of verses, and during three days sustaining this contest with a spirit and energy, with such learning and skill, as to obtain the praises and admiration of all men.

The duke of Mantua, in consequence of his wonderful performances, chose him preceptor to his son—a youth of a dissolute life and riotous temper. To amuse his patron, Crichton composed a comedy, ridiculing the weaknesses of men in all employments, and sustained fifteen characters in his own play, "setting before the eyes of the spectators the overweening monarch, the peevish swain, the superficial courtier, the proud warrior, the dissembling churchman, the cozening lawyer, the lying traveller, the covetous merchant, the rude seaman, the pedantic scholar, and the tricky servant," &c. During the carnival of 1583, while amusing himself with his guitar, he was attacked by several persons in masks. He defended himself, and, disarming their leader, found him to be his own pupil. Crichton fell on his knees and presented his own sword to the prince, who immediately stabbed him to the heart. The motives which impelled his pupil to the commission of so savage a deed are unknown.

CRILLON, LOUIS DE BALBE, one of the greatest

warriors of the sixteenth century, who was born in 1541 at Murs in Provence. Being a younger son, the name of Crillon was given him from an estate belonging to the family—a name which he so ennobled by his exploits and virtues that the heads of the Balbe family adopted it for their own. The army called Crillon "the man without fear." Charles IX., Henry III., and Queen Margaret called him simply *le brave*; but Henry IV. gave him the surname of *le brave des braves*. He was distinguished in five successive reigns—those of Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., and, above all, in that of Henry IV. In his first campaign he contributed much to the speedy conquest of Calais, by a bold deed of arms. He was the first to storm the breach. Here he encountered the commander of the fort, grappled with him, and threw him into the moat. The English had employed eleven months in the reduction of the place; and the French, principally through the bravery of Crillon, retook it in eight days. Crillon subsequently distinguished himself in the battles of Dreux, Jarnac, and Moncontour against the Huguenots.

The massacre of St. Bartholomew, the preparations for which had been carefully concealed from Crillon, was loudly reprobated by him; and we find him the following year, at the celebrated siege of Rochelle, and subsequently in various military operations, where there was need of courage and enterprise. Henry III. ventured to propose to him the murder of the duke of Guise, which had been resolved upon by the estates of Blois. "I cannot stain my honour with a deed of shame," was his answer. He fought heroically for Henry IV. against the league, and he succeeded in throwing himself into Quillebœuf, which was defended by a small force against Marshal Villars. Villars summoned the city to surrender, representing to Crillon that it was impossible for him, in an almost open place, with a comparatively feeble garrison, to hold out against his army. Crillon's answer was, "*Crillon est dedans, et Villars est dehors.*" Villars ordered an assault, but was repulsed, and the siege was raised. The young duke of Guise, who was with Crillon at Marseilles when a Spanish fleet was cruising before the place, indulged in a frolic, which afforded new proof of the heroism of Crillon. Guise rushed with some of his young friends, about midnight, into the warrior's sleeping apartment. They hastily awoke him, and exclaimed that all was lost,—that the Spaniards had made themselves masters of the harbour, and of all the important points of the city: rescue was impossible. The young duke then proposed to Crillon to make their escape together. Crillon rejected the proposal with indignation. "It is better," he said, "to die with arms in our hands than to survive the loss of this place." He then armed himself and rushed down stairs, when the laugh of the young duke discovered the jest that had been played upon him. Crillon turned with a serious air, seized the duke by the arm, and said, "Young man, never amuse yourself with trying the courage of a brave man. By heavens, had you found me weak, I would have plunged this dagger into your breast!" Finally, when the wars which had shaken Europe were terminated by the peace with Savoy, Crillon returned to Avignon, where he died in 1615.

CRÆSUS, the last king of Lydia, lived in the sixth century before Christ. He was brave, and



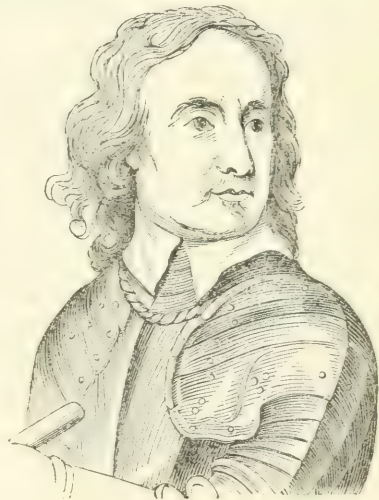
augmented his empire by the conquest of many provinces of Asia Minor. His riches, which he obtained chiefly from mines and the gold dust of the river Pactolus, were greater than those of any king before him; and the expression "riches of Cræsus" came to signify unbounded wealth. Proud of his treasures, he carried his love of splendour to extravagance, and thought himself the happiest of men. Herodotus tells us that Solon visited him at his court, and, on being asked by him who was the happiest man he knew, mentioned first Tellus, then Cleobis and Biton, all three humble individuals of Greece, who had died in the midst of a virtuous career. The story of these individuals, as related by Solon, is one of the most affecting and charming passages in the work of the father of history. Cræsus manifested displeasure that the choice of the sage had not fallen upon him, but Solon reminded him that no one can be safely pronounced happy until his death, and Cræsus was soon forced to acknowledge the truth of the reflection, having lost two beloved sons by violent death, and having been conquered himself by Cyrus, against whom he had waged war for the benefit of the Babylonians. He was taken prisoner in his capital, Sardis; and, having been placed on a pile in order to be burnt, he three times exclaimed, "Oh, Solon!" Cyrus, having learned the meaning of his exclamation, was much moved, and ordered him to descend, took him as his companion in his wars, and treated him well. The time of the death of Cræsus is not known. He was alive in the reign of Cambyzes, the son and successor of Cyrus.

**CROFT, WILLIAM**, an eminent musician, who was born in 1677. He was organist to the Chapel Royal, and was made doctor of music in the university of Oxford about the year 1715. Dr. Crofts died in 1727. His principal work is entitled "*Musica Sacra*."

**CROMWELL, OLIVER**.—This celebrated statesman and general, who, with the Bible in one hand and the sword in the other, raised and ruled the stormy elements of political and religious fanaticism, was born at Huntingdon on the 25th of April, 1599. He was educated with great care by his father, Robert Cromwell, who was proprietor of the borough of Huntingdon, but at the same time, to support a large family, carried on a considerable brewing establishment. It is said that Oliver Cromwell was early impressed with the idea that he should, at some period of his life, be raised to high rank; and this feeling was confirmed by his escaping, during his childhood, almost supernaturally from accidents which threatened his life. While at school he performed with great enthusiasm, in the old play of *Lingua*, the part of Tactus, who finds a crown and purple mantle. He retained an impression, in after life, of having seen in his youth an apparition of a gigantic woman at his bed-side, who told him that he would become the greatest man in the kingdom. In his seventeenth year he went to Cambridge, where he studied with zeal, but, at the same time, carried his fondness for athletic exercises even to a love of brawls and combats. After staying there a year his mother sent him to study law in London, where he became a member of Lincoln's Inn, and spent most of his time in dissipated company. After remaining here a short time he returned to reside upon his paternal property, where he continued his dissolute habits, and

had a quarrel with his uncle. There was a restlessness in his nature which made strong excitements necessary to him; but he early renounced the vices and follies of his youth; and when only twenty-one years of age he married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir James Bourchier, a woman whose conduct was ever irreproachable.

His change of character was owing however, in a great measure, to his close connexion with a religious sect, which afterwards became formidable, in a political point of view, under the name of Puritans, and Independents. At the same time he became a student of theological and military works. In 1625 he became member of parliament, under the reign of Charles I., for the borough of Huntingdon. Here he saw with indignation the abuses of public administration, and, by the persuasion of the celebrated Hampden and St. John, his relations, took the side of the opposition. Both of them hated the established church, and their sentiments were embraced by Cromwell, whose spirit was early inclined to enthusiasm. His heated imagination often made him believe that he was dying, but the physicians pronounced him a "vaporious and fanciful hypochondriac." No one but the penetrating Hampden had a correct idea of his great talents.



In the parliament of 1628 he distinguished himself by his zeal against the Catholic religion; but he afterwards retired to a farm, made restitution of some money that he had won in earlier years by gambling, and from 1635 devoted himself wholly to agriculture at Ely, where he had inherited an estate. While in this place he prevented the draining of the fens; and by this and other acts of the same character he made himself so popular with the people of the place that they gave him the title of "lord of the fens." He afterwards patronised this measure during his protectorate. But the storm was already at hand which was to shake the repose of England. The king wished to reign without a parliament, and the arbitrary manner in which he imposed taxes, assisted by the prevailing religious feeling and sectarian animosity, inflamed the passions of men and urged them into political conflict. The opponents of the arbitrary measures of the government had so little idea of the impending

convulsion, that several of them were making arrangements to embark with their families for New England. Among those already engaged in this scheme were Cromwell, Hampden, Pym, Haselrigg, and other men afterwards so formidable in the revolution; but the government forbade their emigration, as the king was fearful that they would help to widen the breach that already existed between the colonies and the English church. Thus did Charles himself counteract the movements of fortune in his favour. Cromwell returned to Ely, where he lived for a time a quiet and pious life. It was at this period that he wrote to his friend St. John that "he was ready to do and to suffer for the cause of his God." He also held meetings of the sectaries at his house, and not unfrequently preached and prayed himself before them. At length the king was compelled, by the state of affairs in Scotland, to summon a parliament. Cromwell, who was returned member for the town of Cambridge, and others were so loud in their complaints of abuses in church and state that Charles prorogued the parliament, but six months after, November 1640, was obliged to reassemble it.

In this parliament, called the "long parliament," Cromwell attracted notice chiefly by his rustic and slovenly dress, and by the vehemence of his oratory, often degenerating into coarseness. "That sloven," said Hampden of him, "that sloven hath no ornament in his speech, but he will be the greatest man in England, if we should ever come to a breach with the king." In the declaration of grievances called the "Remonstrance," which was passed by a small majority and which brought on the civil war, Cromwell took an active part. On the breaking out of the war in 1642, being appointed captain and afterwards colonel, he raised a troop of horse composed of zealous Puritans, who were ready to risk all for the cause of God. The address with which he infused his own spirit into his soldiers, and the strict discipline which he maintained, gave proof of the sagacity with which he afterwards ruled three kingdoms. His first military exploit was the occupation of Cambridge, where, with Puritanical zeal, he seized the university plate, "in the name of God," to defray the expenses of the war. He then routed the royalists and made himself master of their supplies. This success very much facilitated the parliament's levies, while it had the opposite effect on those of the royalists; and his troops behaved with remarkable order, except on occasions when their religious feelings were excited.

At Marston Moor, July 2, 1644, the cavalry which he had trained, and which was commanded by Fairfax and himself, decided the victory. And now his political influence began. Both a Puritan and a republican, he thought with Ireton and Hampden, but spoke out more boldly and distinctly, and thus became the prominent leader of the party that was resolved to carry matters to the last extremity. But, amid all his real and feigned honesty, he was already beginning to play the secret part, for which his sagacity and knowledge of human nature soon suggested the most politic course. He constantly served, as Hobbes remarks, the strongest party as well as he was able, and carried matters with it as far as it wished. Once, indeed, when he had charged Lord Manchester with cowardice before parliament, because after the battle of Newbury he would not per-

mit the cavalry to charge the enemy on their retreat, from fear that if routed they would all be treated as rebels and traitors, the earl publicly accused him of an intention of putting himself at the head of the army, and giving the law to king and parliament. Fortunately for Cromwell the influence of the Independents prevented a thorough investigation of the matter.

From that time, however, the English Presbyterians regarded him as a dangerous man; and the commander-in-chief, Essex, joined with the Scots, who hated Cromwell for his contemptuous treatment of them, in seeking his downfall. Upon this Cromwell, in concert with his friends, planned a measure which may be regarded as his masterstroke. On fast day he induced the London clergy to preach on the necessity of the parliament freeing itself from the charge of selfish ends, which could be done only by its members resigning all their lucrative offices, civil and military, and leaving it to the Lord to choose other instruments for bringing to a conclusion so glorious a work. In consequence of this the parliament passed what was called the "Self-denying Ordinance," in accordance with which Sir Harry Vane, Cromwell, and others, gave in their resignations, because the army, as they said, stood in need of a stricter discipline, and, above all, of more Christian leaders. The project was carried through; Essex was dismissed, and the zealous but irresolute Sir Thomas Fairfax was put in his place. As the honourable but weak Fairfax did not feel himself qualified for the duties of general, he obtained an exemption from the above-mentioned ordinance for Cromwell, who, uniting ability with boldness, was again placed under him, with the command of the cavalry. Cromwell now introduced into the whole army the excellent discipline in which he had already trained a part of it, and gained the decisive battle of Naseby in 1645, in which the king was routed with great loss. Cromwell got possession of the correspondence of Charles I. with the queen, from which the parliament published all the passages which would injure the king and queen in public opinion. After this victory and the capture of Bristol, Cromwell wrote to the parliament in that affectedly humble and sanctified strain with which he disguised his ambitious designs: "This is none other but the hand of God, and to him alone belongs the glory." The spirit in the army which the officers, and especially Cromwell, excited by their sermons and prayers had now risen to fanaticism, at the same time that good order and morality were so well maintained that profanity, drunkenness, robbery, and the like offences, hardly ever occurred.

By this course Cromwell succeeded in crushing the last efforts of the royal party. Charles I. at last took refuge with the Scotch army; but was sold by them to the parliament on the 5th of May, 1646, for their arrears of pay, on which occasion Cromwell was one of the commissioners. Contrary to the expectations of the people Charles was treated as a prisoner by the leaders of the war-party and the Independents, who carried their cruelty so far as even to deny him the consolation of having one of his chaplains with him. The parliament was now in possession of the supreme power. It distributed rewards to its adherents, and Cromwell received 2500*l.* a year from the estates of the marquis of Worcester. But when the parliament wished to disband the army, which was infected with the fanatical spirit of the Inde-



pendents, the soldiers conducted themselves with so much boldness that the parliament ordered their arrest, on which occasion Cromwell not only supported the house, but, with tears in his eyes, deplored the seditious temper of the troops, which he said had even put his own life in danger. Some of the members, however, saw in him the secret mover of those measures, and accordingly proposed his apprehension; but on that very day Cromwell repaired to the army, in order, as he wrote to the Lower House, to restore the deluded soldiers to their duty, and at the same time requested that Fairfax and the other officers would co-operate with him to this end. On the same day one of the agitators, Joyce, forcibly carried off the king from Holmby, and delivered him into the hands of the army.

Cromwell seems at this time to have contemplated the restoration of the king. But he was convinced, on a nearer view of the fanatical spirit that reigned in the army, that he could not venture such a measure without danger of his life; besides, he was only second in command, and could not reckon on the assistance of the most influential men. They were all zealous republicans, and firmly resolved to destroy monarchy with the monarch. Cromwell seems, too, to have feared the political principles of his son-in-law, Ireton. Thus he was finally obliged to continue in the course which he had begun, and, in order to preserve the favour of the army, to make a hypocritical show of sentiments which he no longer felt. He is said to have personally respected the king as an upright and conscientious man. He is said to have connived at his flight from Hampton Court, and to have wished that he might escape from the kingdom, and spoke with tears of his first meeting with his children; for Cromwell, in private life, was mild and noble in his temper. At last, yielding to the force of circumstances, he united himself entirely to the commonwealth party, and, in their deliberations about the future form of government, feebly advocated a monarchy, which this party called a mischief and a sin, because they regarded God alone as their Lord and King. Cromwell had now learned the disposition of his people; and, with that coarse levity which was a leading trait in his character, he concluded a conference by throwing a cushion at Ludlow's head, and running down-stairs, when another was thrown after him in return. The following day he said to Ludlow that he thought the abolition of the monarchy was desirable, but hardly practicable. Soon after Cromwell had a proof of the strength of his party. Major Huntingdon accusing him in parliament of a design to raise, in concert with Ireton, an army against the parliament, and establish a military government under the name of the king, the influence of the Independents outweighed that of the Presbyterians; and, as the insurrections of the Welch and Scotch were to be subdued, the parliament did not dare to condemn or dismiss a general whose services were so necessary.

Cromwell shortly reduced Wales by a sudden attack; and, as Fairfax, from Presbyterian scruples, declined the command of the expedition against Scotland, he undertook it with more eagerness, as he knew the weak condition of the Scotch army, and had for many years hated the Scotch people. With a much inferior force, he defeated them at Preston, and was received in Edinburgh as a deliverer. Now followed the tragedy of the king's execution, who

was beheaded January 29, 1649. Cromwell was induced to consent to this act by the advice of Ireton, and took a conspicuous part in it, as he had not the courage or the power to prevent it. He carried his want of feeling so far as not only to be a spectator of the execution from a window fitted up for him, but even to have the body in the coffin shown to him. The republic was established; and Cromwell, as a proof of his republican virtue, resolved on the death of Lord Capel, because, as he said, the friendship which he felt for this loyal adherent of the king must be sacrificed to public duty. Yet Cromwell was not naturally cruel. He shed blood from a politic calculation of his own interest. He was more afraid of his old friends, the levellers, than of the royalists. At last he succeeded in putting down the former by strong measures; and then, to the astonishment of his enemies, who wished for nothing more than his absence, he led his army to Ireland.

Victory was now to raise him still higher in the favour of the people. He took Drogheda by storm in 1649, where he gave orders that nothing should be spared. "This bitterness," he said, "will save much effusion of blood, through the goodness of God." Most of the cities opened their gates without resistance; and Cromwell trusting to the terror of his name, though his army was greatly weakened by sickness, marched boldly into the interior, where cowardice and treachery every where yielded him a submissive welcome. Within six months the royalist party in Ireland was wholly crushed. Resigning the command to Ireton, he now undertook, at the request of the parliament, a similar expedition against Scotland, where Charles Stuart, afterwards Charles II., had been proclaimed king. Cromwell had at first desired that Fairfax should take the command of the army; but Fairfax had taken the covenants and would not fight against the Scotch. Cromwell was therefore appointed commander-in-chief, and marched into Scotland. Being ignorant of the nature of the country and of the situation of the Scotch forces, his supplies were cut off, his army became sickly, his retreat was intercepted, and he must have been forced to surrender at Dunbar, had the Scotch avoided a battle. When he saw them advance he exclaimed, "The Lord hath delivered them into our hands!"

The victory at Dunbar rid the fortunate general of his enemies the Presbyterians. He then marched into Edinburgh. Meanwhile king Charles had collected new forces; but Cromwell, by skilful marches near Stirling, cut him off from his points of support, when, contrary to his expectation, the king entered England and threatened London itself. Every thing was done to strengthen the army of Cromwell, who conducted like an active and resolute general, while in the royal camp irresolution and discord prevailed; and the result was that Charles was totally defeated at Worcester, Sept. 3, 1651. This victory, which Cromwell called the "crowning mercy of God," gave the commonwealth-party full power over the three kingdoms. Cromwell already exerted a weighty influence on the supreme direction of public affairs. He succeeded in restoring the continental relations of England, which had been almost entirely dissolved, and regulated them so as to promote the interests of commerce. The navigation act, from which may be dated the rise of the naval power of England, was framed upon his suggestion, and passed in 1651.

At the same time the general, who was honoured by the city of London as the father of his country, was aiming at sole sovereignty. The only man whom he feared, Ireton, was dead. At a consultation with some members of parliament, and the most distinguished officers, on the form of government to be established, he recommended a species of monarchy, but was silent when some lawyers in the convention proposed the young duke of Gloucester for king.

Meantime the long parliament, which was aiming to establish its own power, was growing more and more unpopular, in consequence of its undisguised tyranny, the war which it had provoked with the Dutch, and its treatment of the prisoners taken at Worcester, some of whom were put to death in prison, and others sold for slaves in the colonies. A frightful tempest, too, which occurred on the day of the execution of a London clergyman named Love, made a deep impression on the people. And now Cromwell broke silence. He spoke openly to his friends of the ambition, the godlessness, and injustice of the parliament. Encouraged by their support he at last hazarded a decisive step, and with 300 soldiers dispersed that body "for the glory of God and the good of the nation." He then summoned a council of war, in which the officers finally chose a parliament of 128 persons, selected from the three kingdoms, which from Praise-God Barebone, one of the principal characters in it, by trade a leather-seller, was nicknamed Praise-God Barebone's parliament. Cromwell himself opened the session with a speech, in which he said that the day had come on which the saints were to commence their reign upon earth.

Fifteen months after a new annual parliament was chosen; but after a session of five months Cromwell prevailed on this body, who were totally incapable of governing, to place the charge of the commonwealth in his hands. The chief power now devolving again upon the council of officers, they in 1653 declared Oliver Cromwell sole governor of the commonwealth, under the name of lord protector, with an assistant council of twenty-one men. The new protector behaved with dignity and firmness. With the aid of General Lambert he formed a constitution called the "Instrument of Government," by which the protector was invested with the power of peace and war, and was to summon a parliament once every three years, which he should not dissolve under five months; bills presented to him were to have the force of laws if not ratified by him within twenty days; and on the other hand he had power to enact laws with the consent of his council, which should be binding in the intervals of the sessions of parliament. In case of his death the council were immediately to choose a new protector; but no protector after him was to command the army.

Cromwell, having concluded peace with Portugal, turned the resources of the state to the enlargement of its navy and commerce. France and Spain courted the friendship of the fortunate protector, who at length united with Cardinal Mazarin, in order to increase the colonial power of England. To make a thorough reduction of Scotland, he gave orders to General Monk to plunder every place that made resistance, and put the garrison to the sword—orders which were so rigorously executed by Monk that terror ensured the most implicit submission. The nobles feared, the clergy hated, the protector; while the people, whom he treated with equity and

kindness, loved him because they enjoyed much more liberty under him than before. The protector treated Ireland with great severity. His act of pardon was in reality a desperate remedy for a desperate evil. The surviving inhabitants of an island wasted by fire, sword, and pestilence, were compelled to remove, on penalty of death, to a barren tract of the province of Connaught, which was divided among them; the rest of the island became the property of the conquerors: such was the bitter hatred occasioned by the unceasing quarrels of the Protestants and Catholics. Here however, as in Scotland, the protector established an equitable form of government, which, in the course of a few generations, would have very much improved the state of the island.

In England the situation of the protector was far from being secure. A member of parliament loudly declared that he could not brook, after the overthrow of one tyrant, to see the liberties of the nation shackled by another, whose prerogative had no measure but the length of his sword; and Cromwell met with so much opposition that after the first five months he dissolved the parliament. On the whole his political administration was masterly, and adapted to the circumstances of his situation. He established large magazines of provisions. The pay of the soldiers was regularly delivered to them a month in advance. The public revenues were strictly and economically managed without any additional imposts. He appointed for judges the most upright and distinguished men. Among these was the famous Sir Matthew Hale. He never interfered with the proceedings of the courts of justice. In religion he acted on the principle of toleration. Every man had liberty of conscience. In other things too Cromwell, as his own correct judgment prompted, would have governed with mildness and justice, promoted the arts and sciences, and healed the wounds of the nation; but he was obliged to maintain his power, as he had acquired it, against his better will, by a severity often amounting to tyranny. Equally afraid of the royalists and the levellers, he could not rely upon the officers of the army; he did not place confidence even in the soldiers, and would have taken a regiment of Swiss for his body-guard, had he not been fearful of making himself unpopular and betraying his suspicions by so doing. With the help of the fanatics, he kept the royalists in check; and the latter served as a counterpoise to the former. For this reason he rejected, as much from policy as from principle, the proposition, which was repeatedly made in the council of war, to massacre all the royalists. They were obliged however to give up a tenth part of their property, were always looked upon as enemies, and were denied the common privileges of a court of justice. In order to collect the fines imposed on the royalists, to prosecute those whom he suspected, perhaps also to disunite the army, the protector divided England into twelve military jurisdictions, and placed over each a major-general with absolute power, from whose decisions there was no appeal, except to the protector himself; but he speedily broke up this odious form of government.

On the other hand, he strengthened the British navy. The famous Admiral Blake, and other naval heroes, fought several well-contested battles with the Dutch fleets under De Ruyter, Tromp, and others.



At the peace with Holland, in 1654, England maintained the honour of her flag, and the navigation act gave a new impulse to the colonial trade. The skilful and fortunate conduct of the war with Spain, from 1655 to 1658, in which Jamaica and Dunkirk were taken, made the new parliament, from which Cromwell had carefully excluded all republicans, so obsequious that they at last offered him the title of king. Some individuals, among whom was Lambert, the second in command of the army, who was in hopes of being protector after Cromwell, and the majority of the officers, opposed the measure so resolutely that Cromwell fearing the fate of Cæsar declined the title. His brother-in-law, Desborough, and his son-in-law, Fleetwood, also dissuaded him from accepting it. For this the parliament, by an act entitled "Humble Petition and Advice," gave him the title of highness, and the right of appointing his successor; and he was a second time solemnly invested by the speaker with the ensigns of his office—a velvet mantle of purple colour, symbolical of justice and mercy, the Bible, the staff, and the sword.

*Cromwell*

Cromwell received from all quarters marks of the highest respect; yet the incense of admiration did not intoxicate his understanding: he saw things in their true light, with a calm, clear, and careful eye. Shakspeare himself has portrayed no situation more dramatic than that of Cromwell; but, unlike the stupified and despairing Macbeth, the protector rose in spirit as he rose in fortune. He renounced the principles with which he had set out as untenable. Gladly would he have repaired the past mischief; but the men whom he had hitherto used as instruments were opposed to him, and the blood of the king was inextinguishable. Charles Stuart, the son of the late king, offered to allow him to make his own terms, if he would place him on the throne; and Cromwell's wife urged him to accept the proposal; but he answered, "If Charles Stuart can forgive me all that I have done against him and his family, he does not deserve to wear the crown of England." Cromwell, the lord of three kingdoms, the mightiest potentate in Europe, the greatest man in an age of great men, and worthier than any other of his high station had he risen by upright means, was unhappy in the last years of his life. In his heart he wished to govern on mild and constitutional principles; but self-preservation compelled him to be severe and suspicious. A usurper must be a despot. He at last governed without a parliament, since none was pliant enough for him; and the bigots who once extolled him now called him a shameful tyrant. Their conspiracies against his life kept him in continual alarm. He never went out without a guard. No one knew what route he would take. He usually turned back after starting, and took another direction. He wore a shirt of mail under his dress, and seldom slept two nights successively in the same room.

According to Ludlow's account, Cromwell ex-

pressed, on his death-bed, some fears that his memory would be insulted, and his remains trampled upon. He asked his preacher whether it was true that the elect could never finally fall; and, when assured that it was so, Cromwell rejoined, "Then I am safe; for I am sure that once I was in a state of grace." The powerful medicines which were administered to him, while his body was weakened by the tertian ague, brought on a kind of insanity. He assured his physicians, as the fanatics about him had persuaded him to believe, that he should not die, whatever they might think of his situation; for "God was far above nature, and God had promised his people his recovery." His last words appeared to be those of a person interceding with God for the people. Cromwell died Sept. 3, 1658, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Most of the European courts went into mourning for him, even that of Versailles.



Great as a general, Cromwell was still greater as a civil ruler. He lived in a simple and retired way, like a private man, without any parade or ostentation, which is well illustrated by his residence exhibited in the above cut. He was abstemious, temperate, indefatigably industrious, and exact in his official duties. His figure had neither dignity nor grace. His conversation and manners were rude and vulgar. In his public speeches he expressed himself with force and fire, but without method or taste. On the other hand, he possessed extraordinary penetration and knowledge of human nature; no one knew so well as he the art of winning men and using them to his purposes. He devised the boldest plans with a quickness equalled only by the decision and intrepidity with which he executed them. No obstacle deterred him; and he was never at a loss for expedients. Cool and reserved, but full of great projects, he patiently waited for the favourable moment, and failed not to make use of it. Under the guise of piety and virtue he practised the most subtle Machiavellism; yet he was in truth an upright and tolerant Calvinist. As his political interest was often at variance with his real sentiments, he sometimes showed himself cruel, sometimes moderate, even towards his avowed enemies. In his intercourse with others he often indulged in low and scurrilous jests, frivolity, and coarseness, which agreed as ill with his iron sternness of character as with the noble spirit which breathes in some of his speeches, and with the force of his oratory, which swayed not only the ignorant and fanatical soldiery, but also the more enlightened parliament.

Cromwell had appointed his eldest son, Richard, his successor; but the republican and religious fanaticism of the army and officers, with Fleetwood at their head, now subverted, as it had formerly served, the projects of Cromwell. The mild and virtuous Richard was compelled by the mutinous officers to dissolve the parliament; and a few days after, conscious of his incapacity, he voluntarily abdicated the protectorship, April 22, 1659. His brother Henry who had talent, bravery, and mildness of temper, and who from 1654 had governed Ireland in tranquillity, improved its trade, and won the affections of the people by his upright administration, followed the example of Richard, and died in privacy in England. Richard lived in narrow circumstances, his property being nearly exhausted in the expenses of his father's funeral. At the restoration he went to the continent, and returned to England in 1680, and, assuming the name of Clark, passed the remainder of his days in tranquil seclusion, at Cheshunt, in Hertfordshire. He died in 1712, at the age of eighty-six.

Richard Cromwell's autograph during the short time he held the office of lord protector is given in the accompanying fac-simile.

*Richard C*

**CROMWELL, OLIVER.**—This gentleman was the great grandson of Henry Cromwell, son of the protector. He practised as a solicitor in London for several years, and was clerk to St. Thomas's Hospital. He succeeded to the estate of Theobald's, which descended to him through the children of Richard Cromwell, eldest son of the protector, and died at Cheshunt Park, Hertfordshire, May 31, 1821, aged seventy-nine. He wrote the "Memoirs of the Protector, Oliver Cromwell, and his Sons Richard and Henry, illustrated by Original Letters and other Family Papers."

**CROMWELL, THOMAS, EARL OF ESSEX,** was the son of a blacksmith at Putney, in Surrey, and was born about the year 1490. In his youth he was employed as clerk to the English factory at Antwerp. In 1510 he went to Rome, and on his return to England became the confidential servant of Cardinal Wolsey. On his master's disgrace, Cromwell defended him with great spirit in the House of Commons, of which he was then a member, and effectually opposed the articles of treason brought against Wolsey. After the cardinal's death he was taken into the king's service, into which he entered with zeal, but with little consideration or regard for others. He was knighted and made a privy counsellor, and in 1534 became principal secretary of state and master of the rolls.

In 1535 Cromwell was appointed visitor-general of all the monasteries in England, in order to sup-

press them. In this office he acted with great severity and injustice. His services were rewarded by the situation of lord keeper of the privy seal, and a seat in the House of Peers, with the title of Baron Cromwell of Okeham. On the abolition of the pope's supremacy he was created king's vicar-general, and used all his influence to promote the reformation. He caused articles of religion to be published by the royal authority, acknowledging only three sacraments, and speaking doubtfully of



purgatory. He was made chief justice itinerant of the forests beyond Trent, knight of the garter, and finally, in 1539, earl of Essex and lord high chamberlain. He at length fell into disgrace with the king for the interest he took in promoting his marriage with Anne of Cleves. Her person proved disagreeable to Henry, who fell in love with Catharine Howard, a lady allied to the principal Catholic families; and, in consequence of her influence and the royal displeasure, Cromwell was arrested at the council table on a charge of treason, committed to the Tower, and condemned without a hearing. He was beheaded on Tower Hill, July 28, 1540, declaring that he died in the faith of the Catholic church, from which he confessed he had been seduced. He bore his good fortune with moderation, was charitable to the poor, and willing to benefit even the undeserving. The Protestants praise him for his industry and solidity, and all the qualities which fitted him for the management of important affairs; while the Catholics dwell on his violence, ambition, and injustice. He always gratefully returned any favours he had received while in an humble condition. He left a son, who was created Lord Cromwell, which title remained in the family for several generations.

**CROWE, WILLIAM,** a poetical and dramatic writer of considerable talent who flourished towards the close of the last century. He was born at Winchester and educated at New College, Oxford. His principal work, entitled "Lewesdon Hill," is written in blank verse; and he published a general collection of his poems in 1827. Mr. Crowe died in London February 9th, 1829.

**CROZAT, JOSEPH ANTONY, MARQUIS DU CHATEL,** a distinguished lover and collector of



works of art, who was born in 1696 at Toulouse, and inherited a large fortune from his father, who was a financier during the last years of the reign of Louis XIV. The whole of his life was dedicated to the works of art which he had collected and to the artists who wished to profit by them. The sketches in his collection exceeded 19,000, and he had expended above 450,000 livres in this particular branch. During the sixty years which he employed in collecting no cabinet was sold in any part of Europe of which some part was not purchased by him. Crozat went to Italy, in 1714, for the purpose of increasing his collection; and Vermeulen came yearly from Antwerp to Paris, to bring him the works of the artists of the Netherlands. He was also presented with several valuable collections. His cabinet of antiques and sculpture, particularly of gems, was equally valuable and contained about 1400 pieces. This treasure became more celebrated from the description which Mariette gave of it, when in the possession of the duke of Orleans in 1742. On Crozat's death, which took place in 1740, his collection went into the possession of his brother, the marquis du Châtel.

CRUDEN, ALEXANDER.—This singular individual was born in 1701 at Aberdeen in Scotland, where his father was a respectable tradesman. In 1732 he came to London and opened a bookseller's shop under the Royal Exchange, devoting his leisure to the compilation of a "Concordance of the Old and New Testament," which was published in 1737, and dedicated to Queen Caroline, who had led the editor to expect her patronage; but her majesty unfortunately died a few days before the work could be published. The author's affairs were now embarrassed. He had none to look to for assistance, and in a fit of despondence he gave up his trade, and became a prey to melancholy. Shortly after this he assumed the title of "Alexander the Corrector," maintained that he was divinely commissioned to reform the manners of the age and restore the due observance of the sabbath, appealing to prophecy, in which he fancied he saw his own character delineated. He sought however for earthly honours, and requested of his majesty the dignity of knighthood, and earnestly solicited his fellow-citizens to elect him member for the city of London. Both were deaf to his entreaties; and he turned from public offices to duties for which he was better qualified. He laboured almost incessantly, sometimes in works of pure benevolence and at others as corrector of the press, and seldom allowed himself more than four or five hours for sleep.

In 1770, after paying a visit to Aberdeen, he returned to London, and took lodgings at Islington, where he died November the first.

In private life Mr. Cruden was courteous and affable, ready to assist all that came within his reach, as well with his money as with his advice, and most zealous in serving the distressed. One of his boldest efforts of this kind was in the case of Richard Potter, a poor ignorant sailor who was condemned at the Old Bailey for uttering a forged seaman's will, and who, in Mr. Cruden's opinion, was so justly an object of the royal clemency that he never ceased his applications to the secretary of state until he had obtained a pardon. The following year he published a very interesting account of this affair under the title of "The History of Richard Potter." His other

publications were "An Account of the History and Excellency of the Scriptures," prefixed to a "Compendium of the Holy Bible," and "A Scripture Dictionary, or Guide to the Holy Scriptures," printed a short time after his death. He also compiled that very elaborate index which belongs to Bishop Newton's edition of Milton. Early in life Mr. Cruden was believed to be subject to fits of insanity, and he was for some time confined in the Bethnal Green mad-house. He afterwards brought an action against the parties, but was non-suited. He however proved that great cruelty had been practised on him.

CRUIKSHANK, WILLIAM, a clever surgeon and anatomist, who was a native of Edinburgh, but received his education in the university of Glasgow. Early in 1771 he became librarian to the celebrated Dr. William Hunter, and afterwards officiated as his assistant in delivering lectures on anatomy. On the death of Dr. Hunter he was associated as a lecturer with the late Dr. Baillie, a connexion which was subsequently dissolved. In 1786 Mr. Cruikshank published a valuable work entitled "The Anatomy of the Absorbent Vessels of the Human Body." He was also the author of "Experiments on the Insensible Perspiration of the Human Body," and of several scientific essays and papers in the transactions of the Royal Society, of which he was chosen a fellow in 1797. Mr. Cruikshank died in 1800, just as he had completed the fifty-fifth year of his life.

CUDWORTH, RALPH, a learned divine and scholar, who was born at Aller in Somersetshire in 1617. He was admitted a pensioner of Emanuel College, Cambridge, at the age of thirteen. His diligence as an academical student was very great; and in 1639 he took the degree of M. A., and was elected fellow of his college. He became so eminent



as a tutor that the number of his pupils exceeded all precedent; and in due time he was presented by his college to the rectory of North Cadbury in Somersetshire. In the year 1642 he published a "Discourse respecting the True Nature of the Lord's Supper," and "The Union of Christ and the Church shadowed, or in a Shadow." The first of these productions, which maintained that the Lord's supper is a feast

upon a sacrifice, produced considerable controversy long after the author's death. In 1644 he took the degree of B.D. and was chosen master of Clare Hall, and in the following year was made regius professor of Hebrew. In 1651 he was made D.D., and in 1654 chosen master of Christ's College, Cambridge, where he spent the remainder of his days.

In 1678 he published his grand work entitled "The True Intellectual System of the Universe (the First Part), wherein all the Reason and Philosophy of Atheism is confuted, and its Impossibility demonstrated." This work, which is an immense storehouse of ancient learning, was intended, in the first instance, to be an essay against the doctrine of necessity only; but, perceiving that this doctrine was maintained by several persons upon different principles, he distributed their opinions under three different heads, which he intended to treat of in three books; but his "Intellectual System" relates only to the first, viz. "The Material Necessity of all Things without a God, or Absolute Atheism." It is a work of great power and erudition, although the attachment of the author to the Platonism of the Alexandrian school has led him to advance some opinions which border on incomprehensibility and mysticism. The moral as well as intellectual character of this eminent scholar stood very high; and he died universally respected in the seventy-first year of his age.

**CUFF, HENRY.**—This distinguished scholar was born about 1560, and after finishing his education at college became secretary to the celebrated Robert earl of Essex, when that nobleman was made lord lieutenant of Ireland. When the earl was tried and condemned he charged Mr. Cuff with being the author of all his misfortunes, and the person who had persuaded him to pursue violent measures. He was consequently tried and condemned, and was executed at Tyburn March 30, 1601, dying with great constancy and courage. A short time before his death he wrote a book which was not printed until six years after; it was entitled "The Differences of the Ages of Man's Life, together with the Original Causes, Progress, and End thereof." It is a curious and philosophical production. He was also the author of many unpublished works. Camden says that "he was a man of most exquisite learning and penetrating wit, but of a seditious and perverse disposition."

**CULLEN, WILLIAM**, a celebrated physician and medical writer, who was born in the county of Lanark in Scotland in 1712. He was apprenticed to a surgeon and apothecary at Glasgow, after which he made some voyages to the West Indies as surgeon to a merchant vessel. He subsequently settled as a medical practitioner at Hamilton, where he formed a partnership with William Hunter, who afterwards became so distinguished. The object of their connexion was not so much present emolument as professional improvement. Each therefore in turn was allowed to attend metropolitan lectures, whilst the other prosecuted the business for their joint benefit.

In 1740 Cullen took the degree of M. D.; and, settling at Glasgow, he was in 1746 appointed lecturer on chemistry at the university there. In 1751 he was chosen regius professor of medicine; and in 1756 he was invited to take the chemical professorship in the university of Edinburgh. In 1760

he was made lecturer on the *materia medica* there, and subsequently resigned the chemical chair to his pupil Dr. Black. From 1766 to 1773 he gave, alternately with Dr. Gregory, annual courses of lectures on the theory and practice of physic, an arrangement which continued till the death of Dr. Gregory in 1773 left his rival in complete possession of the medical chair. As a lecturer on medicine Dr. Cullen exercised a great influence over the state of opinion relative to the mystery of that science. He successfully combated the specious doctrines of Boerhaave depending on the humoral pathology; though he has not been equally successful in establishing his own system, which is founded on an enlarged view of the principles of Frederic Hoffmann. His death took place in February 1790. His principal works are "Lectures on the *Materia Medica*," "Synopsis Nosologiæ Practicæ," and "First Lines of the Practice of Physic," which must be considered as his magnum opus, and which, amidst all the recent fluctuations of opinion on medical theory, has retained its value.

*William Cullen*

**CUMBERLAND, RICHARD.**—This celebrated prelate was born in London and educated at Cambridge, where he took his degrees and obtained a fellowship. In 1658 he was presented to the rectory of Brampton in Northamptonshire, which he retained after the restoration of Charles II., conforming without any scruple to the episcopal establishment. In 1667 Sir Orlando Bridgeman gave him the more valuable living of Allhallows Stamford. In this situation he continued many years sedulously applying himself to his duties, and in preparing several professional works of importance. In 1691 he was raised to the bishopric of Peterborough, without, as it is asserted, any solicitation on his part; so completely unexpected it seems was the dignity that the first notice of its having fallen to his lot was derived from the casual perusal of a newspaper. He filled his high station with great respectability, and held it to the advanced age of eighty-six, his death taking place in October, 1718. Bishop Cumberland was the author of a great many works, but his most important literary performance was entitled "De Legibus Naturæ Disquisitio Philosophica."

**CUMBERLAND, RICHARD**, a dramatic and miscellaneous writer, son of the reverend Denison Cumberland, bishop of Clonfert, by the daughter of Dr. Bentley, who was born on the 19th of February 1732. He received his early education at Westminster, and in his fourteenth year was admitted of Trinity College, where he studied very closely and obtained his bachelor's degree at the age of eighteen, and soon after was elected fellow. He became private secretary to Lord Halifax, and made his first offering to the press in a small poem entitled an "Elegy written on St. Mark's Eve," which obtained but little notice. His tragedy entitled "The Banishment of Cicero" was rejected by Garrick, and printed by the author in 1761. In 1769 he was married; and, his patron being made lord lieutenant of Ireland, he accompanied him to that kingdom. When Lord



Halifax became secretary of state he procured nothing better for Cumberland than the clerkship of reports in the office of trade and plantations. In the course of the next two or three years he wrote an opera entitled "The Summer's Tale," and his comedy of "The Brothers." His "West Indian," which was brought out by Garrick in 1771, proved eminently successful. The "Fashionable Lover," not obtaining the success of the "West Indian," he exhibited that soreness of character which exposed him to the satire of Sheridan, in his sketch of "Sir Fretful Plagiary," and which induced Garrick to call him the man without a skin. The "Choleric Man," the "Note of Hand," and "The Battle of Hastings," were his next productions.

On the accession of Lord George Germaine to office he was made secretary to the board of trade. In 1780 he was employed on a confidential mission to the courts of Lisbon and Madrid, which, owing to some dissatisfaction on the part of the ministry, involved him in great distress, as they withheld the reimbursement of his expenses to the amount of 5000*l.*, which rendered it necessary for him to dispose of the whole of his hereditary property. To add to his misfortune the board of trade was broken up, and he retired with a very inadequate pension and devoted himself entirely to literature. The first works which he published after his return from Spain were his entertaining "Anecdotes of Spanish Painters," and the most distinguished of his collection of essays, entitled "The Observer." To these may be added the novels of "Arundel," "Henry, and John de Lancaster," the poem of "Calvary," the "Exodiad" (in conjunction with Sir James Bland Burgess), and lastly a poem called "Retrospection," and the "Memoirs of his own Life." He also edited the "London Review," in which the critics gave their names, and which soon expired. His latter days were chiefly spent in London, where he died on the 7th of May 1811. The comic drama was his forte; and, although he wrote much even of comedy that was very indifferent, the merit of the "West Indian," the "Fashionable Lover," the "Jew," and the "Wheel of Fortune," is of no common description.

CUNNINGHAM, ALEXANDER, an historical writer of the last century. He was the son of a Presbyterian minister, and was born at Ettrick near Selkirk in Scotland. He was probably educated in one of the universities of that country, though according to some accounts he passed the early part of his life in Holland, and came to England at the revolution with William III. He afterwards became tutor to some young nobleman, with whom he travelled on the continent. Returning home in 1703 he was employed in some political affairs by Queen Anne's whig ministry; but on the triumph of the Tory party he went to Italy. In the reign of George I. he was appointed resident at Venice; and, coming home in 1702, he appears to have passed the remainder of his life in literary occupation. He died in London in 1737, and left in manuscript a "History of Great Britain, from the Revolution to the Accession of George I.," written in the Latin tongue.

CURTIVS, MARCUS, a celebrated Roman, who devoted his life to his country. Livy gives the following account of him. He says that "in the year of Rome 392, the ground in the midst of the forum, either from an earthquake or some other cause,

opened and left a vast chasm which could not be filled up by the throwing in of earth. The oracle consulted on the occasion pronounced that the Roman state would endure for ever, provided that was thrown into the gulf in which the Romans were most powerful. During the consultation about the sense of this response, Curtius arose and asked if the Romans possessed any thing so valuable as their arms and courage? Silence ensuing, Curtius turned his eyes towards the capitol, and the temples of the gods overlooking the forum, and, stretching his hands first towards heaven and next towards the bottom of the gulf, solemnly devoted himself. He then fully armed mounted his horse, decorated in all his caparisons, and plunged into the chasm, the applauding people of both sexes throwing after him fruit and flowers." This tradition was current among the Romans, and a lake or pool continued to bear the name of the Curtian. Some say that this name was still more ancient, and was derived from Mutius Curtius, a Sabine chief, who, in a battle with Romulus, leaped on horseback into a deep muddy pool, and was taken out alive.

CURRAN, JOHN PHILPOT, a celebrated Irish advocate of humble origin, was born at Newmarket near Cork in 1750. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, after which he repaired to London and studied at one of the inns of courts. In due time he was called to the bar, shortly after which he married Miss O'Dell, an Irish lady of a very respectable family. By the influence of his talents he gradually rose to great reputation; and, during the administration of the duke of Portland, he obtained a silk gown. In 1784 he was chosen a member of the Irish House of Commons. His abilities now displayed themselves to advantage, and he became the most popular advocate of his age and country. During the distracted state of Ireland, towards the close of the last century, it was often his lot to defend persons accused of political offences, when Mr. Fitzgibbon (afterwards Lord Clare) then attorney-general was his opponent. The professional rivalry of these gentlemen degenerated into personal rancour, which at length occasioned a duel, the result of which was not fatal to either party. On a change of ministry, during the vice-royalty of the duke of Bedford, Mr. Curran's patriotism was rewarded with the office of master of the rolls. This situation he held till 1814, when he resigned it and obtained a pension of 3000*l.* a year. With this he retired to England and resided chiefly in the neighbourhood of London. He died, in consequence of a paralytic attack, at Brompton, on the 13th of November 1817.

Curran possessed talents of the highest order. His wit, his drollery, his eloquence, his pathos, were irresistible; and the splendid and daring style of his oratory formed a striking contrast with his personal appearance, which was mean and diminutive. As a companion he could be extremely agreeable; and his conversation was often highly fascinating. In his domestic relations he was unfortunate; and he seems to have laid himself open to censure. The infidelity of his wife, which was established by a legal verdict, is said to have been a subject on which he chose to display his wit in a manner that betrayed a strange insensibility to one of the sharpest miseries which a man can suffer. Mr. Curran appears never to have committed any thing to the press, but he is

said to have produced some poetical pieces of considerable merit. The "Recollections of Curran" is an amusing book.

**CURTIUS, RUFUS**, a Latin historian, who is only known by his work devoted to the life of Alexander the Great. The age in which he lived is unknown, but his style proves it to have been in one of the best periods of the Latin language.

**CUSHING, THOMAS**.—This distinguished American was born at Boston in 1725, and finished his education at the College of Cambridge in New England. Both his grandfather and father had spent a considerable portion of their lives in public service, the latter having been, for several years previous to his death, speaker of the House of Representatives in Massachusetts. He engaged early in political life, and was sent by the city of Boston as its representative to the general court, where he displayed such qualifications for the despatch of business that when governor Bernard in 1763 negatived James Otis, as speaker, he was chosen in his place, and continued in the station for many years. Whilst he was in the chair he had frequent opportunities of evincing his patriotism and aversion to the arbitrary course of the English government; and, as his name was signed to all the public documents in consequence of his office, he acquired great celebrity, and was generally supposed to exert a much greater influence in affairs than he actually did. This circumstance led Dr. Johnson, in his pamphlet "Taxation no Tyranny," to make this foolish remark—"One object of the Americans is said to be to adorn the brows of Mr. Cushing with a diadem." Though decidedly patriotic in his principles, Mr. Cushing was moderate and conciliatory in his conduct, by which he was enabled to effect a great deal of good as a mediator between the two contending parties. He was an active and efficient member of the first two continental congresses, and on his return to his state was chosen a member of the council. He was also appointed judge of the courts of common pleas and of probate in the county of Suffolk, which stations he occupied until the present constitution was adopted, when he was elected lieutenant-governor of the state, and continued so until his death, which took place in 1788.

**CUSTINE, ADAM PHILIP, COUNT OF**, a military commander of considerable eminence, who was born at Metz, 1740, and served as captain in the seven years' war. Through the influence of the duke of Choiseul, he obtained in 1762 a regiment of dragoons, which was called by his name; but in 1780 he exchanged this for the regiment of Saintonge, which was on the point of going to America to the aid of the North American colonies. On his return he was appointed *maréchal de camp*. In 1789 he was made deputy of the nobility of Metz, and was one of the first who declared for the popular party. He subsequently entered the army of the North, and in May, 1792, made himself master of the pass of Porontury. Shortly after he received the command of the army of the Lower Rhine, and opened the campaign by taking possession of Spire. Meeting with feeble opposition he took Worms, and soon after the fortress of Mentz capitulated. He also took possession of Frankfurt on the Maine, on which he laid heavy contributions. Thence, escaping the surprise of the Prussians, he threw himself on Mentz. With the opening of the campaign of 1793 he left

Mentz, which the allies were besieging, and retired to Alsace. He was now denounced, and received his dismissal; but the convention invested him with the command of the northern army, but he had hardly time to visit the posts. Marat and Varennes were unceasing in their accusations against him, and at last prevailed on the committee of safety to recall him to Paris, and he was placed at the bar of the revolutionary tribunal. He made a spirited defence, but his death was determined upon. He was condemned, and guillotined on the 28th of August, 1793.

**CUVIER, GEORGE**.—This distinguished naturalist and physiologist was born at Montbéliard in 1769. His father was a Protestant, who gave him a good education, and he early in life exhibited a strong predilection for the natural sciences. Cuvier when a boy made some very interesting collections, and prepared the osteological remains of a great many animals. He soon perceived that zoology was far from that perfection to which Linnæus had carried botany, and to which mineralogy had been carried by the united labours of the philosophers of Germany and France. The first desideratum was a careful observation of all the organs of animals, in order to ascertain their mutual dependence, and their influence on animal life, then a confutation of the fanciful systems which had obscured rather than illustrated the study. Examinations of the marine productions with which the neighbouring ocean abundantly supplied him served him as a suitable preparation.

A natural classification of the numerous classes of *vermes* was his first labour, and the clearness with which he gave an account of his observations and ingenious views procured him an acquaintance with all the naturalists of Paris. Geoffroy St. Hilaire invited him to Paris, opened to him the collections of natural history over which he presided, took part with him in the publication of several works on the classification of the *mammalia*, and placed him at the central school in Paris, May 1795. The institute, being re-established the same year, received him as a member of the first class. For the use of the central school he wrote his "*Tableau Élémentaire de l'Histoire Naturelle des Animaux*," by which he laid the foundation of his future fame. From this time he was considered one of the first zoologists of Europe. He soon after displayed his brilliant talents as professor of comparative anatomy. His profound knowledge was not less remarkable than his elevated views, and the elegance with which he illustrated them before a mixed audience. In the lecture room of the *Lycee*, where he lectured several years on natural history, was assembled all the accomplished society of Paris, attracted by the ingenuity of his classifications, and by his extensive surveys of all the kingdoms of nature.

In January 1800, Cuvier justly received the place formerly occupied by D'Aubenton, in the *college de France*. His merits did not escape the sagacity of



Napoleon. In the department of public instruction, in which, one after another, he filled the most important offices, he exercised much influence by his useful improvements and indefatigable activity. He delivered a report very honourable to Germany, in 1811, when he returned from a journey in Holland and Germany as superintendent of instruction. In the same year the emperor appointed him *maître des requêtes* to the council of state, and committed to his care the most important affairs in Mentz. Louis XVIII. confirmed him in his former offices, and raised him to the rank of counsellor. As such he belonged at first to the committee of legislation, and afterwards to that of the interior. As a politician he drew upon himself the reproaches of the liberals. In general, the political course of Cuvier forms such a contrast with his scientific one, and is, besides, of so little importance, that we are very willing to pass it by in silence. The measures of the abbé Frayssinous, then chancellor of the university of Paris, determined him to resign the office of university-counsellor in December 1822. Notwithstanding his political engagements, Cuvier devoted himself continually to the study of natural history, which he has extended by his discoveries. We mention only his "*Recherches sur Reptiles Ossements Fossiles*," also "*Le Règne Animal*," "*Leçons d'Anatomie Comparée, recueillies per Duméril et Duvernoy*," "*Recherches Anatomiques sur les têtes regardées encore comme douteuses*," "*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de l'Anatomie des Mollusques*." This illustrious naturalist died May 15, 1832, and it is right to add that he retained the full possession of his faculties to the last moment of his life.

CYPRIAN, THASCIUS CÆCILIOUS, a celebrated father of the Christian church. He was born at Carthage in Africa, about the beginning of the third century. We know nothing more of his parents than that they were heathens; and he himself continued such till the last twelve years of his life. He applied himself early to the study of oratory; and some of the ancients, Lactantius in particular, inform us that he taught rhetoric at Carthage with the highest applause. Tertullian was his master, and Cyprian was so fond of reading him, that, as St. Jerome tells us, seldom a day passed without his saying to his amanuensis, *Give me my master*. Cyprian, however, far excelled Tertullian as a writer.

In the year 246 Cyprian was prevailed on to embrace Christianity, at Carthage, by Cæcilius, a priest of that church, and between whom there ever after subsisted so close a friendship, that Cæcilius at his death committed to Cyprian the care of his family.

Cyprian's conduct both before and after his baptism, was so highly pleasing to the bishop of Carthage, that he ordained him priest a few months after, although it was rather irregular to ordain any person in his noviciate: but Cyprian was so extraordinary a person, and thought capable of doing such singular service to the church, that it might seem allowable in his case to dispense a little with the form and discipline of it. Besides his known talents as a man of learning, he had acquired a high reputation of sanctity since his conversion; having not only separated himself from his wife, but also consigned over all his goods to the poor, and given himself up entirely to the worship of God; and on this account, when the bishop of Carthage died none was judged so proper to succeed him as Cyprian.

Cyprian himself, as Pontius tells us, was extremely against it, and kept out of the way on purpose to avoid being chosen; but the people insisted upon it, and he was forced to comply.

In the year 249 the emperor Decius issued several very severe edicts against the Christians, which particularly affected those living upon the coasts of Africa; and in the beginning of the year 250 the heathens in the circus and amphitheatre at Carthage loudly insisted upon Cyprian's being thrown to the lions; a common method, as is well known, of destroying the primitive Christians. Cyprian upon this withdrew from his church at Carthage, and fled into retirement, to avoid the fury of the persecution; which step, however justifiable in itself, gave great scandal, and seems to have been considered by the clergy of Rome as a desertion of his post and pastoral duty. Cyprian was afterwards summoned to appear before Paternus, the proconsul of Carthage, by whom, after he had confessed himself a Christian, and refused to sacrifice to idols, he was condemned to be banished. He was sent to Curebis, a small town about fifty miles from Carthage. When he had continued in this place, where he was treated with kindness by the natives, and frequently visited by the Christians, for eleven months, Galerius Maximus, a new proconsul who had succeeded Aspasius, recalled him from his exile and ordered him publicly to appear at Carthage. Galerius, however, being retired to Utica, and Cyprian having intimation that he was to be carried thither, the latter absconded, and, when the soldiers were sent to apprehend him, was not to be found. Cyprian excuses this conduct in a letter, by saying, that "it was not the fear of death which made him conceal himself, but that he thought it became a bishop to die upon the spot, and in sight of that flock over which he presided." Accordingly, when the proconsul returned to Carthage, Cyprian came forth and presented himself to the guards who were commissioned and ready to seize him. He was carried to the proconsul, who ordered him to be brought again on the following day. Cyprian being introduced, the proconsul put several questions to him, which he replied to with great firmness, and the former pronounced upon him the sentence of death; to which the martyr answered, "God be praised!" He was then led away to the place of execution, where he suffered with great firmness and constancy, after he had been bishop of Carthage ten years.

CYRIL.—There are three celebrated fathers of the Christian church bearing this name. The first of these was bishop of Jerusalem in the middle of the fourth century. He was afterwards deposed, but ultimately reinstated in his see. He wrote several works in support of the Christian doctrines, and died in 386.

Cyril of Alexandria became bishop of that place in 412. He was a man of great zeal, and frequently involved in disputes with other bishops, especially with Nestorius. His published writings are principally confined to "*Commentaries*."

Cyril Lucar was born in 1572, and was ultimately made patriarch of Constantinople. He was condemned to death by the Grand Signior in 1638. His "*Confessions of Faith*" are well written.

CYRUS, a celebrated Persian conqueror. According to Herodotus he was the son of Cambyses, a distinguished Persian, and of Mandane, daughter

of the Median king Astyages. A short time before his birth, the soothsayers at the court of Astyages divined from a dream of his, that his future grandson was to dethrone him. Upon this he gave orders that Cyrus should be destroyed immediately after his birth. For this purpose he was delivered to a herdsman, who, moved with compassion, brought him up, and named him *Cyrus*. His courage and spirit betrayed his descent to the king. On one occasion, playing with other boys, being chosen by his companions, he caused the son of one of the first men in the nation to be beaten. The father of the boy complained to Astyages, who reprimanded young Cyrus. But he appealed to his right as king of his companions, and replied with so much boldness and good sense, that Astyages became interested in him, and instituted inquiries, which led to the discovery of his birth. The magicians having succeeded in quieting the uneasiness which the discovery occasioned him, he sent Cyrus to his parents in Persia, with marks of his favour. But the young man soon drew together a formidable army of Persians, and conquered his grandfather, B. C. 560. A similar fate befell Cræsus, the rich and powerful king of Lydia, and Nabonadius, king of Babylon, whose capital he took after a siege of two years. He also subdued Phœnicia and Palestine, to which he caused the Jews to return from the Babylonish captivity. While Asia, from the Hellespont to the Indies, was under his dominion, he engaged in an unjust war against the Massageteæ—a people of Scythia, north-east of the Caspian sea, beyond the Araxes, then ruled by a queen named Tomyris. In the first battle he conquered by stratagem; but, in the second, he experienced a total defeat, and was himself slain, B. C. 529, after a reign of twenty-nine years.

DACH, SIMON, a German poet, born at Memel in July 1605. He lived in humble circumstances until he was appointed professor of poetry in the university of Königsberg. He remained in this office until his death, which took place in April 1659. His secular songs are lively and natural, and his sacred songs are distinguished for deep and quiet feeling.

DACIER, ANDRÉ.—This learned individual was born at Castres, in Upper Languedoc, 1651, and studied at Saumur, under Tanneguy-Lefevre, whose daughter Anna was associated in his studies. After the death of Lefevre, in 1672, he went to Paris. The duke of Montausier, to whom his learning was known, entrusted him with the editing of Pompeius Festus. The intimacy growing out of their mutual love of literature led to a marriage between him and Anna Lefevre, in 1683, and, two years after, they both embraced the Catholic religion. They received from the king considerable pensions. In 1695, Dacier was elected a member of the academy of inscriptions, and of the French academy: of the latter he became afterwards perpetual secretary. He died in 1722. M. Dacier was the author of several works of merit.

DACIER, ANNA LEFEVRE.—This learned lady was born at Saumur in 1651. After the death of her father, who had instructed her and cultivated her talents, she went to Paris, where she displayed her learning by an edition of Callimachus, which she inscribed to Huet, the under tutor of the dauphin. The duke of Montausier, in consequence, entrusted her with the care of several editions of the classics.

She first edited Florus, with a commentary. Her learned works were not interrupted by her marriage. Her translation of Homer attracted a good deal of attention, and led to a dispute between her and Lamotte, in which it appeared that Madame Dacier understood much less of logic, than Lamotte of the Greek language. In her "*Considérations sur les Causes de la Corruption du Goût*," she defended Homer with the acuteness of a profound commentator, and Lamotte replied with a great deal of elegance; on which account it was wittily observed, Lamotte wrote like an ingenious woman, Madame Dacier like a learned man. Lamotte introduced her to the notice of Queen Christina, who persuaded her to embrace the Catholic religion. In her "*Homère défendu*," she showed little mercy to Hardouin, who had written a satirical eulogy of this poet; and on this occasion she was said to have uttered more invectives against the reviler of Homer, than the poet himself had placed in the mouths of all his heroes.

Madame Dacier translated Terence, and three pieces of Plautus, in the prologue of which she treats of the origin, the cultivation, and changes of dramatic poetry, with acuteness. Her translation of the *Plutus* and the *Clouds* of Aristophanes deserves indulgence, as the first translation of the Greek comic poet; and her translation of Anacreon and Sappho, with a defence of the latter, met with considerable success. She also wrote annotations on the Bible, but did not publish them. Indeed her life was entirely devoted to literature and her domestic duties. She died in 1720. Equally estimable for her character and her talents, she gained as many admirers by her virtue, her constancy, and her equanimity, as by her works.

DAENDELS, HERMANN WILLIAM, a Dutch general, born in 1762, at Hattem in Guelderland. He took an important part in the troubles which began in Holland, in 1787, on the side of the patriots, and with many of his countrymen of the same party was compelled to take refuge in France, where he engaged in commercial speculations, in Dunkirk. In 1793 he was appointed colonel in the new legion of volunteers, *Franc étranger*, and was of great service to Dumouriez in his expedition against Holland. He rendered still greater services to Pichegru in the campaign of 1794, which made the French commander master of all Holland. Daendels now became lieutenant-general in the service of the Batavian republic, and took an important part in the change of the government. When Louis Bonaparte ascended the throne, he loaded him with honours, and appointed him governor-general of Batavia. After the union of Holland with France Napoleon recalled him. Daendels employed his leisure time in publishing a "*Compte rendu*" of his government in Java, in which he throws much light on the statistics and general condition of that country. He was afterwards appointed by the king of the Netherlands to organize the restored colonies on the coast of Africa. Here he displayed his usual energy; he promoted peace between the neighbouring Negro states, encouraged the establishment of new plantations on the West India plan, and checked the slave-trade, until the time of his death.

DAGOBERT I., called the Great, on account of his military successes, became king of the Franks, of the Merovingian race, in 628. He succeeded his father, Clothaire II., who had reunited the divided members of the French empire. He waged war with great



success against the Slavonians, Saxons, Gascons, and Bretons; but he stained the splendour of his victories by violence and licentiousness. One remarkable instance of his cruelty was displayed to the conquered Saxons, when he caused all those whose stature exceeded the length of his sword to be put to death. He, however, deserves praise for his improvement of the laws of the Franks. He died at Epinay in 638, and was buried at St. Denis, which he had founded six years before.

DALAYRAC, NICHOLAS, an eminent French musician and composer, born of a noble family in Languedoc. In his youth he served in the royal gardes-du-corps, but having a strong taste for music, and being much struck with that of Gretry in particular, which was then much in vogue at Paris, he abandoned the army, and putting himself under Langelé, followed the science as a profession. His first composition, "*L'Eclipse Totale*," brought out at the Opera Comique, gained him great credit, which his subsequent productions increased rather than diminished. Sweetness, rather than originality or strength, is the leading characteristic of his compositions. He died in 1809.

DALBERG, the name of a celebrated German family. "Is there no Dalberg present?" the imperial herald was formerly obliged to demand, at every coronation of the German emperors; and the Dalberg present bent his knee before the new sovereign, and received the accolade as the first knight of the empire. So illustrious were the ancestors of the present Dalbergs, the ancient chamberlains of Worms! The family obtained the rank of barons of the empire in the seventeenth century.

DALBERG, CHARLES THEODORE ANTHONY MARIA, one of the most distinguished members of this family, was chamberlain of Worms, elector of Mentz, arch-chancellor, and subsequently prince-primate of the confederation of the Rhine, and grand-duke of Frankfort; and finally became archbishop of Ratisbon and bishop of Worms and Constance. He was born in 1744, at Hershheim, near Worms, and in 1772 he became privy-counsellor and governor at Erfurt. During many years' residence in that place, he was distinguished for industry, regularity, and punctuality in the discharge of his duties. An incorruptible love of justice, and inflexible firmness in maintaining what he considered just and politic, animated him. He encouraged science and the arts by his patronage of learned men and artists, and wrote several learned treatises and ingenious works. In 1802, after the death of the elector of Mentz, he was made elector and arch-chancellor of the German empire. By the new political changes in Germany in 1803, he came into possession of Ratisbon, Aschaffenburg, and Wetzlar; and in 1806 he was made prince-primate of the confederation of the Rhine. At Ratisbon he erected the first monument to the famous Kepler. In 1810 he resigned the principality of Ratisbon to Bavaria, and obtained, as compensation, a considerable part of the principalities of Fulda and Hanau, and was made grand-duke. In 1813 he voluntarily resigned all his possessions as a sovereign prince, and returned to private life, retaining only his ecclesiastical dignity of archbishop. His works are mostly philosophical. Among them are the "*Reflections on the Universe*," the "*Principles of Æsthetics and Pericles*," or the influence of the Liberal Arts on Public Happiness."

He is also the author of several legal treatises. Although he was fond of theoretical speculations, yet he devoted his attention more particularly to practical studies, such as the philosophy of the arts, mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, mineralogy, scientific agriculture, &c. He died on the 10th of February, 1817.

DALE, RICHARD, an American naval commander, who was born in Virginia on the 6th of November, 1756. In 1776 he entered, as a midshipman, on board of the American brig of war Lexington, commanded by Captain John Barry. In her he cruised on the British coast the following year, and was taken by a British cutter. After a confinement of more than a year in Mill prison, he effected his escape into France, where he joined, in the character of master's mate, the celebrated Paul Jones, then commanding the American ship Bon Homme Richard. Jones soon raised Dale to the rank of his first lieutenant, in which character he signalized himself in the sanguinary and desperate engagement between the Bon Homme Richard and the English frigate Serapis. He was the first man who reached the deck of the latter when she was boarded and taken. In 1781 he returned to America, and, in June of that year, was appointed to the Trumbull frigate, commanded by Captain James Nicholson, and soon afterwards captured. From 1790 to 1794 he served as captain in the East India trade; and at the end of this period, the government of the United States made him a captain in the navy. In 1801 he took the command of the American squadron of observation, which sailed, in June of that year, from Hampton roads to the Mediterranean; and his broad pendant was hoisted on board the frigate President. Efficient protection was given by Dale to the American trade and other interests in the Mediterranean. He passed the latter part of his life in Philadelphia, in the enjoyment of a competent estate, and of the esteem of all his fellow-citizens. He died on the 24th of February 1826. Captain Dale was a thoroughly brave and intelligent seaman. He was several times severely wounded in battle. The adventures of his early years were of the most romantic and perilous cast; and no man could lay claim to a more honourable and honest character.

DALEMILE, one of the oldest poets and historians of Bohemia. He was a native of Mezriz, and canon of the collegiate church of St. Boleslane. He wrote a Bohemian chronicle, in verse, from the birth of Christ to the year 1314, which was published at Prague in 1620. This work is curious and valuable, not only on account of the fidelity with which the author has related facts, but also as being the earliest written monument existing, of the language and literature of the "Slavonian Bohemians."

DALIN, OLOF.—This well-known and learned individual is justly considered the father of modern Swedish literature. He exerted much beneficial influence by his periodical paper, "*The Swedish Argus*," and still more by his spirited poems, songs, epigrams, and fables. He acquired equal reputation by his able history of Sweden, on which account he was appointed historiographer of the kingdom in 1756. He also participated in the foundation of the Academy of Belles Lettres by Ulrica Eleonora, 1753. He died chancellor of the court of Sweden, in 1763.

DALIBARD, THOMAS FRANCIS, a French botanist of considerable merit, who lived in the middle

of the last century. In 1749 he published a work entitled "*Floræ Parisiensis Prodrromus*," which was the first treatise, by a Frenchman, in which the Linnæan system was adopted. Linneus rewarded his disciple by bestowing the appellation of Dalibarda on a plant from Canada. Dalibard made a discovery relative to the odour of the mignonette, contained in "*Observations sur le Réséda à Fleur Odorante*," which appeared in the "*Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences*." The experiments of Franklin on the electricity of the atmosphere, and the preservation of buildings from lightning by conducting rods, were first repeated in France by Dalibard.

DALLAS, ALEXANDER JAMES, was born in June 1759, in the island of Jamaica. His father was an eminent and wealthy physician in that island. In 1781 the death of his father took place, and it was found that the whole of Mr. Dallas's property was left at the disposal of his widow, who married again, and no part of it ever came to the rest of the family. The subject of this article left Jamaica in April 1783, and proceeded to New York. In July 1785 he was admitted to practise in the supreme court of Pennsylvania, and, in the course of four or five years, became a practitioner in the courts of the United States. During this period, his practice not being extensive, he prepared his Reports for the press, and occupied himself in various literary undertakings. He wrote much in the magazines of the day, and of the "*Columbian Magazine*" he was at one time editor. His essays will bear a comparison with those of his contemporaries; and this is no small praise, for Franklin, Rush, and Hopkinson were of the number. In 1791 he was appointed secretary of Pennsylvania by Governor Mifflin, and in December 1793 his commission was renewed. Not long after, he was appointed paymaster-general of the forces that marched to the west, and he accompanied the expedition to Pittsburg. In December 1796 the office of secretary was again confided to him. While he held this office, he published an edition of the laws of the commonwealth, with notes. Upon the election of Mr. Jefferson, in 1801, he was appointed attorney of the United States for the eastern district of Pennsylvania, and he continued in this office until his removal to Washington, when he was appointed secretary of the treasury of the United States. The circumstances under which he entered this difficult situation, the boldness with which he assumed its responsibilities, his energy of character, and the general confidence and approbation with which his career was accompanied, belong to the history of the times. In March 1815 he undertook the additional trust of secretary of war, and performed with success the delicate task of reducing the army. In November 1816, peace being restored, the finances arranged, the embarrassment of the circulating medium daily diminishing, and soon to disappear under the influence of the national bank, which it had so long been his effort to establish, Mr. Dallas resigned his honourable station, and returned to the practice of the law in Philadelphia. His business was considerable, and his talents as an advocate were employed, not only at home, but in almost every quarter of America. In the midst of his brilliant prospects, exposure to cold, and great professional exertions in a very important cause, brought on an attack of the gout in his stomach, at Trenton, of which he died on the 16th of January, 1817.

DALLAUS, RALPH, an English organ builder of considerable skill, who was much employed after the Restoration, as many of the finest instruments had been destroyed during the commonwealth. He built new organs for St. George's Chapel, Windsor; New College Chapel, Oxford; and also for many other large edifices. Mr. Dallaus died in 1672.

DALRYMPLE, ALEXANDER, an eminent hydrographer, who was born in 1737. In 1752 he went out to India as a writer in the service of the East India Company, and while there he made the science of hydrography his peculiar study. In 1763 he returned to England; and when it was determined to send an expedition to the South Sea to observe the transit of Venus, Mr. Dalrymple would have been employed to conduct it, but he insisted on having the command of the vessel engaged for the occasion; which, as he had never served in the navy, could not be allowed, and his place was supplied by Captain Cook.

In 1775 Mr. Dalrymple went to Madras, whence he returned in 1780. In 1795 he obtained the appointment of hydrographer to the Admiralty, as well as to the East India Company. The former situation he lost a short time before his death, which took place in 1808. He published several works of importance, among which we may enumerate the "*Oriental Repertory*," a "*Collection of South Sea Voyages*," "*Journal of the Expedition to the North of California*," &c.

DALRYMPLE, SIR HUGH WHITEFORD.—This distinguished military commander was born in 1750, and served on the continent under the duke of York as early as 1793. At the end of the campaign he returned to England, in 1806 was advanced to the rank of lieutenant-general, and in 1808 he was sent to take the command of the British army in Portugal. He arrived just after the battle of Vimiera; and the convention of Cintra which he entered into with the French general Junot, subjected the English commander to great but perhaps unmerited censure. He was made a general in 1812 and a baronet in 1814, and died in 1830. Shortly after his death his memoirs were published. They are entitled "*Memoirs written by Sir H. W. Dalrymple, Bart., of his proceedings as connected with the Affairs of Spain and the Commencement of the Peninsular War*."

DALRYMPLE, DAVID.—This distinguished Scottish lawyer was born in 1726, and, after completing his studies, he was in 1748 called to the Scottish bar, where, notwithstanding the elegant propriety of the cases which he drew, his success did not answer the expectations which had been formed of him. This was not owing either to want of science or to want of industry, but to certain peculiarities which, if not inherent in his nature, were the result of early and deep-rooted habits. He possessed on all occasions a sovereign contempt, not only for verbal antithesis, but for well-rounded periods, and every thing which had the semblance of declamation; and indeed he was wholly unfitted, by an ill-toned voice and ungraceful elocution, for shining as an orator. It is not surprising, therefore, that his pleadings, which were never addressed to the passions, did not rival those of some of his opponents, who, possessed of great rhetorical powers, did not, like him, employ strokes of irony too fine to be perceived by the bulk of his audience, but expressed themselves in full, clear, and harmonious periods.



Even his memorials, though classically written, and often replete with valuable matter, did not on every occasion please the court; for they were always brief, and sometimes, it was said, indicated more attention to the minutiae of forms than to the merits of the cause. Yet on points which touched his own feelings, or the interests of truth and virtue, his language was animated, his arguments forcible, and his scrupulous regard to form thrown aside. He was on all occasions incapable of misleading the judge by a false statement of facts, or his clients by holding out to them fallacious grounds of hope. The character indeed which he had obtained for knowledge and integrity in the Scotch law, soon raised him to an eminence in his profession. Accordingly, in March 1766, he was appointed one of the judges of the court of session, and in May 1770 he succeeded to the place of a lord commissioner of the judiciary on the resignation of Lord Coalston, his wife's father. Upon taking his seat on the bench he assumed the title of Lord Hailes, in compliance with the usage established in the court of session.

In 1771 he composed a very learned treatise on the disputed peerage of Sutherland. He was one of the trustees of the Lady Elizabeth, the daughter of the late earl, and being then a judge, the names of two eminent lawyers were annexed to it. In that case he displayed the greatest accuracy of research, and the most profound knowledge of the antiquities and rules of descent in that country; which he managed with such dexterity of argument, as clearly established the right of his pupil, and formed a precedent, at the same time, for the decision of all such questions in future. In 1773 he published a work entitled "Remarks on the History of Scotland." These appeared to be the gleanings of the historical research which he was making at that time, and discovered his lordship's turn for minute and accurate enquiry into doubtful points of history, and at the same time displayed the candour and liberality of his judgment.

In 1786 Lord Hailes came forward with the excellent Dr. Watson, and other talented writers, to repel Gibbon's attack on Christianity, and published a volume entitled "An Enquiry into the Secondary Causes which Mr. Gibbon has assigned for the Rapid Progress of Christianity," in which there is a great display of literary acumen, and of zeal for the cause he espouses, without the rancour of theological controversy. This was the last work he sent from the press; except a few biographical sketches of eminent Scotsmen, designed as specimens of a "Biographia Scotica," which he justly considered as a desideratum, and which, it is much to be regretted, the infirmities of age, increasing fast upon him, did not allow him to supply; for he was admirably qualified for the undertaking, from the extent and accuracy of his literary and biographical knowledge. Although his lordship's constitution had been long in a declining state, he attended his duty on the bench till within three days of his death, which took place on the 29th of November, 1792.

DALTON, JOHN, a celebrated poet, who was born in 1709. After completing his education he was presented to the living of St. Mary Hill, London, by the duke of Somerset. He wrote several poems of merit, a considerable number of which were inserted in Pearch's collection, and he also adapted the "Comus" of Milton for the stage. Dr. Dalton died in 1763.

DAMASCENUS, JOHN, or JOHN OF DAMASCUS, was the author of the first system of Christian theology in the Eastern church, or the founder of scientific dogmatics. He first endeavoured to give a full system of dogmatics, founded on reason and the Bible, which had hitherto been elaborated in the Greek church only in parts, as ecclesiastical controversies arose. His "Explanation of the Orthodox Faith," in four volumes, enjoyed in the Greek church a great reputation; and he also wrote "Dialectics," a system of logic on the principles of Aristotle, and prepared a collection of philosophical passages, extracted from ancient works, in alphabetical order. The best edition of his Greek works is that by Lequien, published at Paris, in two volumes folio. After being in the service of a caliph, he became a monk in the convent of Saba, near Jerusalem, and died about 760.

DAMER, ANNE SEYMOUR. — This talented lady was the daughter of Field-Marshal Conway, and in 1767 was married to the Honourable John Damer, who left her a widow in 1776 without any children. From that period she devoted her time and talents to the cultivation of her taste for the fine arts. Among the best known of her works may be mentioned a bust of Lord Nelson in Guildhall, a statue of George III. in the Register Office at Edinburgh, and a bust of Sir Joseph Banks, of fine bronze, in the British Museum. This lady died on the 28th of May, 1828, in the eightieth year of her age.

DAMIENS, ROBERT FRANCIS. — This notorious individual was born in 1715 in the village of Tieulloy. His vicious inclinations early obtained him the name of *Robert le diable*. He twice enlisted as a soldier, but afterwards became a servant in the college of the Jesuits at Paris, but in 1738 left this service in order to marry. He then served in different houses of the capital, poisoned one of his masters, stole 240 louis-d'or from another, and saved himself by flight. He then lived at St. Omer, Dunkirk, and Brussels, and, while there, expressed his opinions with great violence on the subject of the dissensions between the king and the parliament. At Poperingue, a little village near Ypres, he was heard to say, "If I return to France I shall die; but the first of the land will die also, and you will hear of me." His mind was evidently disordered when he returned to Paris, at the end of 1756. In the beginning of the following year he went to Versailles, took opium for two or three days, and prepared for the crime which he attempted on the 5th of January 1757. As Louis XV. was on the point of getting into his carriage to return from Versailles to Trianon, Damiens stabbed him, although he was surrounded by his train, in the right side, with a knife. The assassin was seized. The most cruel tortures he bore with resolution, and could not be induced to confess that he had any accomplices; indeed he asserted that he should not have committed the act had he been bled as he requested, and that he thought it meritorious. He was condemned to be torn in quarters by horses, and the sentence was executed on the 28th of March, 1757, on the *Place de Grève* at Paris.

DAMPIER, WILLIAM, a celebrated English navigator, who was born in 1652. He was descended from a good family in Somersetshire; but, losing his father when young, he was sent to sea, and soon distinguished himself as an able mariner. In 1673

he served in the Dutch war, and was subsequently an overseer to a plantation in Jamaica. He next visited the bay of Campeachy as a logwood-cutter, and after once more visiting his native country engaged in a band of privateers, as they called themselves, although in reality pirates, with whom he roved on the Peruvian coasts. He next engaged, in Virginia, in an expedition against the Spanish settlements in the South Seas. They accordingly sailed in August 1683, and, after taking several prizes on the coasts of Peru and Chili, the party experienced various fortune, but no very signal success. Dampier, wishing to obtain some knowledge of the northern coast of Mexico, joined the crew of a captain Swan, who cruised in the hopes of meeting the annual royal Manila ship, which however escaped them. Swan and Dampier were resolved to steer for the East Indies, and they accordingly sailed to the Pescadores, to Bouton island, to New Holland, and to Nicobar, where Dampier and others were left ashore to recover their health. Their numbers gave them hopes of being able to navigate a canoe to Achin, in which they succeeded, after encountering a storm, which Dampier has described with great force and nature. After making several trading voyages with a captain Weldon, he entered as a gunner the English factory at Bencoolen. Upon this coast he remained until 1691, when he found means to return home, and, being in want of money, sold his property in a curiously painted or tattooed Indian prince who was shown as a curiosity, and who ultimately died of the small-pox at Oxford. He afterwards became a commander in the king's service of a sloop of war, of twelve guns and fifty men, probably fitted out for a voyage of discovery. After experiencing a variety of adventures with a discontented crew, this vessel foundered off the Isle of Ascension, his men with difficulty reaching land. They were released from this island by an East India ship, in which Dampier came to England. Here ends his own account of his extraordinary adventures; but it seems that he afterwards commanded a ship in the South Seas, as also that he accompanied the well-known expedition of Captain Woodes Rogers as pilot. Dampier's "Voyages," in three volumes, have been many times reprinted. They are written by himself in a strongly descriptive style, bearing all the marks of fidelity; and the nautical remarks display much professional and even philosophical knowledge. His observations on natural objects are also extremely clear and particular; and he writes like a man of good principles, although he kept so much indifferent company.

**DANCOURT, FLORENT CARTON**, a French actor and comic poet, who was born in 1661, at Fontainebleau. At the age of twenty-three he became enamoured of an actress, and left every other employment for the stage. Although he personated the first characters in high comedy, he succeeded best, as an author, in low comedy. He displayed much ingenuity and wit in introducing upon the stage amusing subjects of real occurrence in his time. Louis XIV. was very fond of humorous pieces, and Dancourt often used to read his productions to the king before they were played. He left the theatre in 1718, and died in 1726. A good edition of his complete works appeared in twelve volumes in 1760.

**DANDOLO, HENRY**, one of the most illustrious of the doges of the republic of Venice. He was

raised to that office in 1192, at the advanced age of eighty-four, and had at that period a defect of sight, approaching nearly to blindness; but neither that circumstance nor his age impaired the vigour of his administration, the events of his government being among the principal causes of the Venetian greatness. On the formation of the league for the fourth crusade, under Baldwin, earl of Flanders, Dandolo induced the senate to join in it, and by his policy the first hostilities of the armament were directed against Zara, which had revolted from Venice. On the storming of Constantinople the aged doge, standing on the prow of his galley, with the great standard of St. Mark borne before him, commanded his men to run up to the walls, and was the first who leaped on shore. After various changes in the imperial throne, succeeded by a second siege, in which Constantinople was stormed and pillaged by the crusaders, the latter proceeded to the election of an emperor, and Dandolo was first nominated, although, in consequence of his age, and the incompatible character of doge, the choice ultimately fell on Baldwin. In the sharing of the imperial dominions, Venice obtained a full moiety, and Dandolo was solemnly invested with the title of "despot of Romania." He ended his eventful life at Constantinople in 1205, at the advanced age of ninety-seven.

**DANDOLO, ANDREW**, a celebrated doge of Venice, and one of the earliest Italian historians. He was born about 1310, and made doge in 1343. He carried on a war against the Turks with various success, and greatly extended Venetian commerce, by opening a trading connexion with Egypt. The jealousy entertained by the Genoese of this new trade produced a war between the two states, which gave rise to a correspondence between the doge and Petrarch, who pressed him to make peace. He died in September 1354. To Andrew Dandolo is ascribed the compilation of the sixth book of Venetian statutes; but he is most distinguished for his "Chronicle of Venice," which is written in Latin, and comprehends the history of the republic from its commencement to 1342. It is praised for its impartiality and for its judicious use of authentic documents, and was first published by Muratori in his collection of original Italian writers of history.

**DANIEL, GABRIEL**, a French historian, born at Rouen in 1649. At the age of eighteen he entered the Jesuits' college, lectured in several places with much success, and died in 1728. "He sought," as Bouterwek says of him, "in his history of his own country, which has earned him his reputation, to connect the flattery of the court, the nobility, and the clergy, with the duties of a historian." But we often feel the want of profound research and historical fidelity in his work. His thoughts on the proper mode of writing history he has given to the world in the somewhat tedious introduction to his prolix narrative.

**DANIEL, SAMUEL**, an English historian and poet, who was born in 1562. He had an appointment at the court of Queen Elizabeth, and also of Anne wife of James I.; but he generally lived in the country, employed in literary pursuits. As a historical poet, he seems to have taken Lucan for his pattern. He employed his brilliant talents in writing an epic on the most remarkable occurrences in the history of his country, and bestowed much labour on the poem which describes, in eight books, the



civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster. The poetical value of this work, as of *Lucan's*, consists in a beautiful style; and he contributed much to the improvement of the poetical diction of this country. His stanzas, formed with a careful attention to the Italian octave, have more dignity and euphony than most verses of this sort in English literature in the first half of the seventeenth century.

He was also the author of some poetical epistles, pastorals, sonnets, and a few tragedies. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth, he wrote a sketch of the "History of England, till the time of Edward III."—a work learned and clear, without ostentation, and containing useful and acute views. Daniel died in 1619.

DANNECKER, JOHN HENRY VON, one of the most eminent of modern sculptors. He was born at Stuttgard, in October 1758, of poor parents, as his father was a groom of the duke of Wirtemberg, and the son grew up without any other education than the condition of his parents would allow. He early exhibited a strong inclination for drawing, which he secretly indulged, and, being destitute of paper, covered the materials of a neighbouring stone-cutter with his designs. Providence, however, unexpectedly afforded this remarkable genius an opportunity for rising from obscurity. On Easter-day 1771, Dannecker's father came home, and mentioned that the duke would receive the children of his servants into his military school, and added angrily that he had cast his eyes on the boy. The child declared that he would go to the duke that very day, and, to prevent him, his father shut him up in a closet. Having collected the boys in the street before the apartment in which he was confined, he jumped out of the window, and, without hesitation, went with them straightway to the castle, where the *Eierlesen*, a national feast of the people, had assembled in the court. They addressed themselves to the servants with this request, "We should like to be received into the Charles's school." The duke was informed of their petition, and came immediately forth to examine the little band. He looked at them keenly, and at length took one after the other from the crowd, and placed him to the right of himself; finally, there remained only Dannecker with two others on the left. The poor boys believed themselves rejected, and Dannecker would willingly have sunk into the earth. But these three were in fact the selected ones, and the others were dismissed. After an examination of his talents, young Dannecker was destined to be an artist. In his sixteenth year he obtained a prize for his *Milo of Crotona*, a composition which would not disgrace his ripened ability. In this academy Dannecker formed an intimate friendship with Schiller, then one of the most distinguished scholars at that place, and to whom, in later days, he erected a monument. He left the academy at the same time with him in 1780, and was appointed statutory to the court by the duke, with a yearly salary of 300 florins.

Three years afterwards he obtained permission to travel to Paris, yet without any further assistance than an increase of 100 florins to his salary during his second year in Paris, and with this small provision, Dannecker in 1783 travelled on foot to Paris. Love for his art enabled the young man to bear with content the severest privations, and the contemplation of splendid works of genius often caused him to forget his hunger. Dannecker found here, in the celebrated

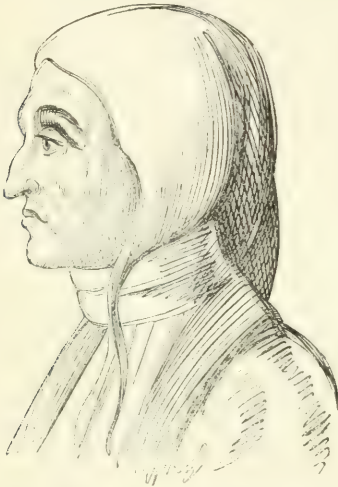
and honest Pajou, a valuable master. In 1785 he left Paris, and proceeded on foot to Rome, where he became acquainted with Canova, who at that time was beginning to obtain distinction, and was employed on Ganganelli's monument. Canova soon conceived an affection for the German artist, was serviceable to him in his studies, visited him often in his labours, and improved him by his remarks.

Dannecker commenced his labours in marble at Rome, where he made a *Ceres* and a *Bacchus*. These statues procured his admission into the academies of Bologna and Milan. He returned to his country in 1790, after an abode of five years in Rome, and Duke Charles made him professor of the fine arts in his academy. The first work which he completed for the patron of his youth was a *Maiden mourning over a Bird*. In 1796 he began again to work in marble, and, among other things, produced a *Sappho*, in 1797 two *Priestesses* of plaster, and many studies. The elector Frederic II. (afterwards king) now employed him upon a greater work, *Weeping Friendship leaning upon a Coffin*, for the monument of his noble friend the Count Zeppelin. This he finished in marble in 1804, and it was long the object of admiration, in the mausoleum of the count, in the park at Louisberg. While he was modelling this figure the idea of his *Ariadne* suggested itself to his mind. He had in 1797 executed a bust after nature, and as large as life, of his friend Schiller, during his residence in Stuttgard. He now prepared a second, of colossal size, of Carrara marble, an offering of love and grief to his deceased friend. This bust long adorned the artist's study, and only casts in plaster have been given to the world, of which one adorns the library of the university of Gottingen.

After many other works, he at length began in marble, in 1809, his *Ariadne* riding upon a Panther as the *Bride of Bacchus*; and in 1816 this was sent to M. de Bethmann, at Frankfort. It is one of the most beautiful works of modern times. In 1812 the artist was again employed by King Frederic upon a new work. This was a *Cupid*, the design of which was furnished by the monarch. The head of the little god was to be inclined towards the earth in a meditating embarrassment, with an empty quiver and an unstrung bow. But the artist threw into the piece a more ideal character. Under his chisel, it became a heavenly *Cupid*, represented at the moment when *Psyche* has let fall the heated oil upon his shoulder. General Murray saw this exquisite specimen of sculpture, finished in marble in 1814, and wished it to be repeated for himself. Instead of complying with this wish, Dannecker offered to complete for him a pendant, and executed his *Psyche*, a pure being, intended to represent heavenly innocence. But the favourite subject of the artist, which for eight years occupied his thoughts, is his *Christ*. This colossal statue was finished in 1824, and sent to St. Petersburg to the empress-mother of Russia, who made a present of it to the emperor Alexander. Dannecker wished in this statue to represent the Mediator between God and man. He was afterwards employed in 1825, upon a statue of the evangelist John, seven feet in height, for the royal chapel at Rothenberg.

DANTE, one of the most distinguished men and talented poets of whom history makes mention. He was born in Florence in 1265. Of the first years of

this greatest and earliest of the modern poets of Italy we know little more than that, as he himself tells us in his "*Inferno*," he was a scholar of Brunetto Latini, a Florentine, who was distinguished as a poet, a scholar, and a politician. His very early love for Beatrice Portinari aroused his spirit, and afforded images and figures to his poetical mind as long as it existed. He studied philosophy at Florence, Bologna, and Padua, and afterwards theology at Paris; and he was also familiar with Latin literature, and wrote the language well for the period in which he lived. While he cultivated his mind he at the same time served his country as a soldier and a statesman, as in 1289 he fought in the memorable battle at Campaldino against the Ghibelines of Arezzo, and in 1290 at Caprona against the Pisans. He went on several embassies from the Florentine republic to Rome, and to the courts of different sovereigns. In 1291 he married Gemma, the daughter of Manetto Donati, by whom he had several children; but this marriage was not happy, and a separation finally ensued.



In 1300 Dante was, unfortunately for himself, made one of the priors, or superior magistrates, of his native city. Florence was at that time divided between two parties—the Bianchi and Neri, or the White and Black. The former, being the weaker, sought assistance from Pope Boniface VIII., and the pope determined to send Charles of Valois, brother of Philip IV. of France, who was at that time in Rome, to quiet the troubles in Florence. Dante, as prior of the city, resisted this interference, apprehending dangerous consequences to the state, and was therefore banished in 1302, together with the leaders of the Bianchi, and his property confiscated because he was unable to pay a fine of 8000 lire which was imposed upon him. From this period his life presented an almost uninterrupted series of misfortunes. He and his companions in adversity, according to some writers, joined the party of the Ghibelines or adherents of the emperor, through whose assistance alone they could hope to return to their country. The proofs of this are found in numerous passages in his poems, which contain the bitterest invectives against Boniface, who was then at the head of the church. Dante then lived some

time in Arezzo; but the attempt of the Bianchi, in 1304, to force their way back to Florence having failed, he left Tuscany and took refuge in Verona with Alboin della Scala, who had gained among his contemporaries the name of the Great, from the support which talent and merit always found in him. But Dante, constantly in a state of inquietude and in expectation of his recall, could not, as Petrarch relates, conceal his dejection and bitterness from his benefactors; and this seems to be the reason why he nowhere found a permanent residence. He speaks in a very touching manner in his "*Inferno*" of the pain of having to "ascend the stairs of other men," as he describes his state of dependence. On this account several cities could pretend to the honour of having had the "*Divina Comedia*" composed within their walls, for, besides visiting many places in Italy, Dante went to Paris.

He endeavoured at length to effect his restoration to Florence by means of the emperor Henry VII., then in Italy, on which occasion he wrote a work on monarchy, "*De Monarchiâ*," about the year 1309, but this hope was disappointed. During the last years of his life he resided at Ravenna with Guido Novello da Polenta, the lord of that city, who, as a friend of the Muses, willingly afforded him protection. His death took place in this city on the 14th of September, 1321, and he was buried in the church of the Minorites, where, in 1483, a Venetian nobleman, Bernardo Bembo, father of the celebrated cardinal of that name, erected a splendid monument to his memory.

The Florentines, who had banished and persecuted their great countryman, now, like the Athenians after the execution of Socrates, endeavoured to expiate their injustice by paying that honour to his memory which they had denied to him during his life. They caused his portrait, painted by Giotto, to be hung up in a public place in the city, demanded, although in vain, his remains from the inhabitants of Ravenna, and appointed distinguished scholars to lecture on his poem. Boccaccio in his "*Vita di Dante*," describes him as a man of firm but yet gentle and engaging character, altogether different from the account of Giovanni Villani. Of the six children whom Dante left, his two eldest sons, Pietro and Jacopo, made themselves known as scholars, and, among other works, wrote a commentary upon the poem of their father. This great poem, since the year 1472, has passed through nearly sixty editions, and has had a greater number of commentators than any other work since the revival of letters. Early in the seventeenth century an edition was projected in a hundred volumes by Cionacci, a Florentine noble, in which he purposed, by appropriating a volume to each canto, to comprise in chronological order all the commentaries then existing, together with a Latin translation in the Strozzi Library, and since that period new editions have repeatedly made their appearance.

The greatness of Dante is very often measured by the immense variety of commentators on his work, and their declaration that they believe Dante yet imperfectly understood. We do not think so, nor conceive that the passages which are most unintelligible shed the greatest lustre on the author. A passage which has been differently understood by every interpreter for centuries, and allows every one to assign a new meaning to it, naturally induces a doubt whe-



ther the writer himself attached to it any clear idea, or whether the idea was not so distorted as not to admit of being traced. Should we consider the Sibylline books as containing profound treasures of wisdom, because their obscure prophecies admitted of any interpretation? or the Koran, because it has had thousands of commentators? or do we think that law in a code the wisest, about the meaning of which there has been most dispute? The poem of Dante, like so many productions of antiquity, is, on the whole, a grand exhibition of genius; and, therefore, commentators have felt themselves obliged to seek perseveringly for a meaning to every passage; and a commentary, once made, was a fruitful source of more, by stimulating men's vanity to discover new interpretations, the human mind, as we all know, being often much more busily employed in displaying its ingenuity than in sincerely seeking for truth. Dante describes, in his Hell, the sufferings of the damned with an inexhaustible ingenuity and a truly poetical penetration into human life and character. In the Purgatory he portrays the state of souls between heaven and hell, and in his Heaven the state of the happy. The poem, like every great poetic production, bears a decisive stamp of the most characteristic features of the time when it was composed. It is essentially allegorical: it displays an ardent love for the learning of the ancients, and treats the Romans as forefathers, with whom the Italians of the author's age were in views and sentiments still intimately connected. Hence arises the frequent reference to the ancient mythology, and the constant blending of it with the sacred writings. Why he chose Virgil as his guide through hell and purgatory is easy to explain. It was because he was a Roman, and the greatest epic poet then known (Homer being comparatively little read, and it being not then understood how much Virgil copied from Homer), and because Virgil manifests a constant reverence for the emperor—an important point in Dante's view, who, as an inveterate Ghibeline, wished all power and splendour to centre in the emperor, and hated the Guelphs and the pope. Not a single pope or cardinal has been admitted into his Heaven, whilst hosts of them are to be found in the Hell. Virtue and vice are the basis upon which reward and punishment are distributed in the poem, but the standard by which Dante measures these, the forms in which he clothes them, the images under which the poet represents his abstract ideas, are taken from the character of his time, or his personal character and theological views.

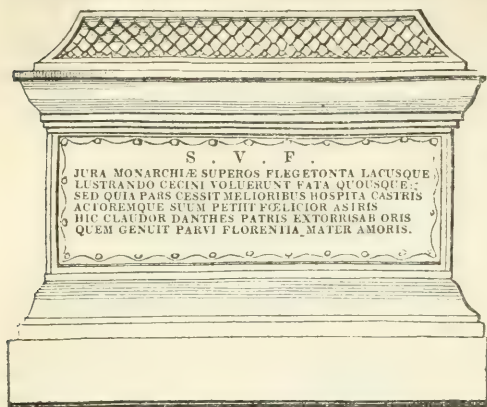
Dante showed immense power in the composition of an epic on an entirely imaginary subject, and filled with learning, which yet keeps the interest of the reader awake throughout. Other great epics are founded on tales or historical facts, preserved in the memory of the poet's countrymen; but, with him, the whole was fiction, at least every thing beyond the common dogma of hell, purgatory, and heaven. At the same time, it cannot be denied that his learning sometimes, though seldom, renders him unpoetical; for instance, when he gives long astronomical descriptions. It has often been said, and often denied, that, in his Heaven, the interest diminishes. We must assent to the first opinion, which is founded, indeed, on human nature; for evil and suffering are far more exciting, and, on this account, more interesting, than tranquil happiness. The poem of Dante has been considered by some persons, but, in our

opinion, unworthily, to have taken its rise from the author's circumstances. We may also mention the opinion maintained in 1753 by Bottari, that Dante made use of the "Vision of Alberico," a monk who lived in the first part of the twelfth century, in a monastery on Monte Cassino, in Naples. There have been many such visions, from the earliest ages of Christianity; as, for instance, the vision of a monk, which Matthew Paris mentions in his "History of England."

There is no poet who bears so distinctly the impress of his age, and yet rises so high above it, as Dante. The Italians justly regard him as the creator of their poetical language, and the father of their poetry, which, regulated and controlled by his genius, at once assumed a purer and far nobler form than it had previously worn. The *terzina* first reached its perfection in the time of Dante, on which account he has been erroneously regarded as the inventor of it. His lyric poems, sonnets, and canzoni, of which some are beautiful, others dull and heavy, were written at different periods of his life. We have yet to mention his "*Banquet*," a prose work worthy to stand by the side of the best works of antiquity. It contains the substance of all his knowledge and experience, and thus illustrates his poetry and his life.

In one respect Dante stands unrivalled by any man, as he, we might almost say, created the language, which he elevated at once to its highest perfection. Before him very little was written in Italian, Latin being the literary language; but no one attempted to use the *lingua volgare* for the purposes of dignified composition. The poet indeed thought it necessary to excuse himself for having written in Italian after having attempted to compose his poem in Latin. Thus he is to be regarded as the founder of Italian literature. One of the strangest productions of Dante is his "*De Monarchiâ*," in which he labours to prove that the emperor ought to have universal authority, and draws his arguments from the sacred scriptures and from profane writers, which in this book appear very often with equal authority. The dialectics of the schoolmen are here exhibited in a most characteristic way. The "*De Monarchiâ*" is valuable as a source of information respecting the great struggle of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, and its influence upon the Christian world at that time. This struggle was a part of the great convulsion attending the separation of the civil power from the ecclesiastical, with which in the earliest ages it is always united. On the whole, Dante's works are important chiefly in three respects—as the productions of one of the greatest men that ever lived, as one of the keys to the history of his time, and as exhibiting the state of learning, theology, and politics in that age. To understand Dante it is necessary to be acquainted with the history and spirit of his time, particularly with the struggle of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, the state of the north of Italy, and the excitement caused by the beginning of the study of the ancients; also to have studied the Catholic theology and the history of the court of Rome, and to keep always in mind that Dante was an exile deprived of home and happiness. Italy abounds with monuments to the memory of this distinguished poet, and all the sculptors of eminence have been employed in the preparation of busts and figures of his person; but, as we have

already given a portrait, it may be advisable to confine ourselves to a sketch of his original monument.



**DANTON, GEORGE JAMES.**—This celebrated revolutionist was born at Arcis-sur-Aube in 1759, and played a very important part during the first years of the French revolution, of which he was an active and zealous promoter. His external appearance was striking; his stature was colossal; his frame athletic; his features harsh, large, and disagreeable; his voice shook the dome of the chamber of the assembly; his eloquence was vehement; and his imagination was as gigantic as his person, which made every one recoil, and "at which," says St. Just, "Freedom herself trembled." These qualities contributed to extend his influence, and he became one of the founders of the club of the Cordeliers. After the imprisonment of Louis at Varennes, he took the lead in the meeting of the Champ-de-Mars, which demanded the dethronement of the king. After the fall of Louis XVI., Danton was a member of the provisional executive council, was made minister of justice, and usurped the appointment of officers in the army and departments. He thus raised up a great number of creatures entirely devoted to his views. Money flowed from all sides into the hands of the minister, and was as profusely squandered on his tools and partisans. His violent measures led to the bloody scenes of September. He endeavoured, by the terrors of proscription, to annihilate all hope of resistance on the part of the royalists. The invasion of Champagne by the Prussians spread consternation through the capital, and among the members of the government. The ministers, the most distinguished deputies, and even Robespierre himself, who was at that time in fear of Brissot, now assembled around Danton, who alone preserved his courage. He assumed the administration of the state, and prepared measures of defence. He called on all Frenchmen, capable of bearing arms, to march against the enemy, and prevented the removal of the assembly beyond the Loire. Danton showed, on this occasion, undaunted courage. From this time he was hated by Robespierre, who could never pardon the superiority which Danton had shown on that occasion.

Being called on to render an account of the secret expenditures during his ministry, Danton maintained that the ministers should give in their reports collectively; and this view was adopted. He voted for the capital punishment of all returning emigrants, and

undertook the defence of religious worship. The contest between the Girondists and the Mountain daily assumed a more serious aspect, and Danton appeared to fear the consequences of these dissensions. On the occasion of the festival of reason, in which the adherents of Hébert acted a conspicuous part, he declared himself anew against the attack on the ministers of religion, and subsequently united with Robespierre to bring Hébert and his partisans to the scaffold. But their connexion was not of long duration, and the secret hate which had long existed between them soon became public. Danton wished to overthrow the despotism of Robespierre, and the crafty Robespierre endeavoured to undermine him in order to get rid of a dangerous rival. St. Just denounced him to the committee of safety, and Danton was arrested, together with those who were called his accomplices. Being thrown into prison in the Luxembourg, he maintained the appearance of serenity; but when he was transferred into the Conciergerie, his countenance became dark, and he appeared mortified at having been the dupe of Robespierre. At his trial he answered with perfect composure, "I am Danton, sufficiently known in the revolution; I shall soon pass to nothingness, but my name will live in the Pantheon of history." April 5, the revolutionary tribunal condemned him to death, as an accomplice in a conspiracy for the restoration of monarchy, and confiscated his large property. He mounted the fatal car with courage and without resistance; but before ascending the scaffold, he was, for a moment, softened: "O my wife, my dear wife, shall I never see you again?" he exclaimed; but checked himself hastily, and, calling out, "Danton, no weakness," ascended the scaffold. Danton was one of the most remarkable characters of the French revolution; a strange mixture of magnanimity, ability, and courage, with cruelty, avarice, and weakness. He suffered death on the 4th of April, 1794.

**DARCET, JOHN**, an eminent French physician and chemist, born in 1725, at Douazit, in Guienne. He preferred the study of medicine to that of the law; in consequence of which, having been discarded by his father, he was obliged to teach Latin for his support, while pursuing his studies at Bordeaux. He accompanied the celebrated Montesquieu to Paris in 1742, and remained with him till his death as a literary assistant. He afterwards devoted himself to chemistry, and went to Germany, in 1757, with the count de Lauraguais, and visited the mines of the Hartz, in Hanover. On the restoration of peace, they applied themselves to technical chemistry, especially to the improvement of the manufacture of porcelain. Darcet made many experiments with this view, of which he drew up an account in several memoirs presented to the Academy of Sciences in 1766 and 1768. He tried the effect of fire on the various kinds of earths, and demonstrated the combustibility of the diamond; on which subject he presented memoirs to the academy in 1770.

In 1774 Darcet travelled over the Pyrenees, to study the geology of those mountains, on which he delivered a discourse at the college of France, which was published in 1776. On the death of Macquer, he succeeded him as a member of the Academy of Sciences, and director of the manufactory of Sèvres. He was afterwards appointed inspector-general of the assay of coin, and inspector of the Gobelins manufactory.



He made several important chemical discoveries, and contributed much to the present improved state of the science. During the reign of terror, his life was preserved by Fourcroy, who procured the obliteration of his name from a list of persons destined by Robespierre to destruction. He died in 1801, at which period he was a member of the Institute, and of the conservative senate.

DARCET, JOHN PETER JOSEPH, an excellent practical chemist, born at Paris in 1787. His father, who died in 1801, in the office of director-general of the porcelain manufactory at Sèvres, also distinguished himself as a practical chemist; and his grandfather was the celebrated Rouelle, the restorer of chemistry in France. Darcet entered early upon his career, after having laid the foundation of his eminence by the study of mathematics and natural philosophy. In his twenty-fourth year he was made assayer of the mint; and, after introducing, among other discoveries, a new process for the preparation of powder on a large scale, he made experiments on the addition of sea-salt in the manufacture, and essentially improved the preparation of the hydrate of the protoxide of barytes. These experiments led to new discoveries respecting elective affinity; but the decomposition of sea-salt was of the greatest importance, and eventually led to the establishment of the manufacture of artificial natron. Among his other discoveries, we may notice the extraction of alkali from chestnuts, and the preparation of sugar from the same material, and the extraction of jelly from bones by means of an acid. The hospital of St. Louis at Paris is indebted to him for the excellent footing on which he put its baths and chimneys, and for the process which he introduced for bleaching the linen of the hospitals. He also made another discovery of great importance, by which he obtained the prize of 3000 francs, which Ravrio had provided for the discovery of the means of protection against the fine dust of quicksilver, which had been so unhealthy to the gilders. Darcet's discovery completely attained the object, and this branch of French industry has since increased greatly in importance.

DARIUS, the name of several Persian kings, or, according to some writers, the royal title itself. Among the most distinguished individuals of this name, are—1. Darius, the fourth king of Persia, the son of Hystaspes, satrap of Persia. He joined the conspiracy against the Pseudo-Smerdis, who had possessed himself of the Persian throne. After the conspirators had succeeded in getting rid of the usurper, they agreed to meet early the next morning, on horseback, and to appoint him king whose horse should neigh first after sunrise. In consequence of a stratagem, the horse of Darius neighed first the next morning, and he was, therefore, saluted king. His reign was marked by many important events. The city of Babylon revolted, partly on account of burdensome impositions of tribute, and partly because the royal residence, under Cyrus, had been transferred from thence to Susa. Darius besieged the city nearly two years without success, and was on the point of abandoning the siege, when Zopyrus, one of his generals, by a heroic sacrifice, placed the city in his possession. The mode was this: he mutilated himself in the most shocking manner, and fled to the Babylonians, pretending to them that he had suffered this cruel treatment from Darius, and that he wished for vengeance. The Babylonians gave

him a command; and, after many successful sallies, by which he gained their confidence, they entrusted to him the charge of the whole city, which he immediately surrendered to Darius. After the subjection of Babylon, Darius undertook an expedition, with an army of 700,000 men, against the Scythians on the Danube, who enticed him so far into their inhospitable country, by their pretended flight, that he succeeded with difficulty in extricating himself and his army, after suffering great losses. Leaving a part of his forces, under the command of Megabyzus, in Thrace, to conquer that country and Macedonia, he returned with the remainder to Asia, to recruit at Sardis. He next turned his arms against the Indians, part of whom he subjected.

In the year 501 B. C., a disturbance at Naxos, in which the Persians had taken part, occasioned a revolt of the Ionian cities, which the Athenians endeavoured to promote, but which was suppressed by the capture and punishment of Miletus. To revenge himself upon the Athenians, Darius sent Mardonius with an army, by the way of Thrace and Macedonia, against Greece, and prepared a fleet to make a descent upon its coasts; but his ships were scattered and destroyed by a storm, in doubling Mount Athos, and the army was almost entirely cut to pieces by the Thracians. Darius, however, collected another army of 500,000 men, and fitted out a second fleet of 600 ships. Naxos was conquered, and Eretria, in Eubœa, sacked. Thence the army, under Datis and Artaphernes, proceeded to Attica, and was led, by Hippias, to the plains of Marathon. The Athenians had in vain besought assistance from their neighbours, and were obliged to depend upon their own resources alone. They marched forth, 10,000 strong, under the command of Miltiades, to meet the Persian army, and, animated by the reflection that they were fighting for freedom and their country, obtained a complete victory. Darius now determined to take the command of a new army in person, but was prevented by domestic troubles, and died B. C. 485.

The next monarch bearing this name who distinguished himself was Darius III., surnamed *Codomanus*. He ascended the throne B. C. 336, when the kingdom had been weakened by luxury and the tyranny of the satraps under his predecessors, and could not resist the attacks of a powerful invader. Such was Alexander of Macedon; and the army which was sent against him by Darius was totally routed, on the banks of the Granicus, in Asia Minor. Darius then advanced, with 400,000 soldiers, to the plains of Mesopotamia. The Grecian mercenaries advised him to await the enemy here, as the level country would enable him to draw out his forces to advantage; but Darius hastened forward to meet Alexander in the mountains of Cilicia. Darius was a second time totally routed, near the Issus, B. C. 333. He himself escaped, under cover of the night, to the mountains. His mother, his wife, and three of his children, fell into the hands of the conqueror, who treated them with great generosity, and Alexander loaded 7000 camels with the spoil taken here and at Damascus. Darius was so far from being discouraged by these defeats, that he wrote a haughty letter to Alexander, in which he offered him a ransom for the prisoners, and invited him to a new engagement, or, if he did not choose that, granted him permission to retire into Macedonia. Alexander then laid siege to Tyre, on which Darius wrote him another letter, offering him

not only the title of king, which he had before refused to do, but also 10,000 talents ransom, and all the countries of Asia as far as the Euphrates, together with his daughter Statira in marriage. These propositions, however, were unavailing. Alexander subjected Egypt, and Darius found himself once more obliged to collect an army, which most writers estimate at 1,000,000 men. He led his forces from Babylon to Nineveh, while Alexander was encamped on the banks of the Tigris. The two armies met between Arbela and Gaugamela, and, after a bloody engagement, Darius was compelled to seek safety in flight. Alexander took possession of his capital, Susa, captured Persepolis, and reduced all Persia. Darius meanwhile arrived at Ecbatana, in Media, where he had another army of 30,000 men, among whom were 4000 Greeks, who remained true to the end, besides 4000 slingers and 3000 horse, commanded by Bessus, the governor of Bactria. With these he wished to march against the conqueror, but a conspiracy of Nabazanes and Bessus frustrated his plan. The magnanimous prince would not credit the report of the conspiracy which reached his ears, and, at the same time, observed that his death could not be premature if his subjects considered him unworthy of life. The traitors soon after took possession of his person, and carried him in chains to Bactria. Here he refused to accompany them any farther, and they transfixed him with their javelins, and left him to his fate. A Macedonian, named Polystratus, saw the chariot of Darius, and, as he was drinking at a neighbouring fountain, heard the groans of a dying person. He approached the chariot, and found the king in the agonies of death. Darius begged for some water, on receiving which he requested Polystratus to thank Alexander, in his name, for the generosity with which he had treated the captive princesses. Scarcely had Darius expired, when Alexander came up. He melted into tears at the sight of the corpse, caused it to be embalmed, and sent it to Sysigambis, that it might be deposited by the side of the other Persian monarchs. Darius died in the fiftieth year of his age, with the reputation of a humane, peaceful, and just sovereign.

DARU, PIERRE ANTOINE NOEL BRUNO, COUNT, a distinguished peer of France, and one of the ablest French statesmen of the school of the revolution and Napoleon, was born in the year 1767, at Montpellier. He commenced his military career in his sixteenth year, after having received an excellent education. At the breaking out of the revolution, he adopted its principles, like other young men of talent; but he never relinquished his poetical and literary pursuits, even in the camp, amidst the most uncongenial labours. His reputation as a poet was established by his masterly translation of Horace. The first edition appeared in 1800. About the same time appeared his "*Cléopédie, or Theory of Literary Reputation*"—a poem full of elegance and animation. The penetrating eye of Napoleon soon distinguished him from the multitude, and showed him peculiar favour, while Daru attached himself, with unbounded zeal, to that extraordinary man. He was entrusted with the most important affairs, and executed these trusts with fidelity to the interest of France and the emperor, by which he drew upon himself the hatred of the opposite party. This was particularly evident in his administration as general intendant, in 1805, 1806, and 1809, in Austria and Prussia. While in

the council of state, Daru was considered the most diligent and laborious member of that body except the emperor. There were few important posts in the higher departments of the administration which he did not fill; and the first restoration found him in possession of the port-folio of the department of war. Blucher displayed his enmity to him by sequestering his estate at Meulan; but this measure was immediately reversed by the allied monarchs. In 1818 Daru was called to the chamber of peers by Louis XVIII. In 1805 he was chosen a member of the national institute. Not having been called to any other public post after the restoration, Daru devoted himself particularly to historical studies; and we are indebted to him for two important works—the "*Life of Sully*," and the "*History of Venice*." The last of these is one of the most important productions of modern literature in the department of history. It appeared in 1819, in seven volumes; second edition, in 1821, in eight volumes; and the third edition in 1825. As a member of the chamber of peers, Daru was one of the most zealous defenders of the principles introduced by the revolution. He died near the end of 1829.

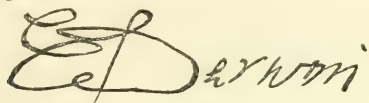
DARWIN, ERASMUS, a physician and poet, was born at Elton, near Newark, Nottinghamshire, December 12, 1721. He was educated at Cambridge, took his doctor's degree at Edinburgh, and commenced his practice as a physician at Litchfield. In 1781 he made himself known as a poet by the publication of his "*Botanic Garden*." This poem consists of two parts, in the first of which the author treats of the economy of vegetables, and in the second of what he calls "*The Loves of the Plants*," being a sort of allegorical exposition of the sexual system of Linnæus. The ingenuity and novelty of much of



the personification, and still more the brilliant and figurative diction in which it is conveyed, rendered this production very popular for a time; but its unvarying polish, want of light and shade, and of human interest, rapidly reduced its reputation. To this result, the pleasant ridicule of Mr. Frere's "*Loves of the Triangles*," also, in no small degree contributed. In 1793 Doctor Darwin published the first volume of his "*Zoonomia, or the Laws of Organic Life*," 4to., which work excited great expectation from the known originality of the author. It teaches that all



animated nature, as men, beasts, and vegetables, takes its origin from single living filaments, susceptible of irritation, which is the agent that sets them in motion. This doctrine was refuted by Brown and several other writers, and, being founded on a mere assumption, rapidly followed the fate of all such systems. The second volume, which completed the author's plan, was printed in 1796. In 1801 he published his "Phytologia, or Philosophy of Agriculture and Gardening." Various papers in the "Philosophical Transactions" are likewise from the pen of Doctor Darwin, who died suddenly April 18, 1802, leaving behind him the character of an able man, of considerable eccentricity both in opinion and conduct. The bias of his politics, and the tendency of his theories to materialism, excited a powerful feeling against him, which much exaggerated his peculiarities. We annex the autograph of this celebrated poet.



**DASCHKOFF, CATHARINE ROMANOWNA, PRINCESS OF.**—This celebrated lady, descended from the noble family of Woronzoff, and the early friend and confidant of the empress Catharine, was born in 1744, and became a widow at eighteen years of age. She endeavoured to effect the accession of Catharine to the throne, but, at the same time, was in favour of a constitutional limitation of the imperial power. In a military dress, and on horseback, she led a body of troops to the presence of Catharine, who placed herself at their head, and precipitated her husband from the throne. The request of the Princess Daschkoff to receive the command of the imperial regiment of guards was refused, and she did not long remain about the person of Catharine. Study became her favourite employment. From the Greek and Roman authors she had acquired the high spirit of antiquity, and after her return from abroad in 1782 she was made director of the academy of sciences and president of the newly established Russian academy. She wrote much in the Russian language; among other productions, some comedies. She also actively promoted the publication of the dictionary of the Russian academy. Her death took place in 1810, at Moscow.

**DAUBENEY, CHARLES,** a theological writer of eminence, was born in 1744, and educated at New College, Oxford. He was appointed prebendary of Sarum in 1784, and archdeacon in 1804; in addition to which he held the living of North Bradley in Wiltshire. His principal work is entitled "A Guide to the Church, in Several Discourses, with an Appendix." In addition to this he wrote several other works of considerable merit. He died in 1827.

**DAUBENTON, or D'AUBENTON, LOUIS JEAN MARIE,** a naturalist and physician, born at Montbar in 1716, and celebrated for his participation in the natural history of quadrupeds by his early friend and companion Buffon; the anatomical part of which was prepared by Daubenton with great accuracy, clearness, and sagacity. He refused his assistance in the latter part of the work, offended at the publication of an edition of the first part by Buffon, in which the anatomical portion was omitted. The cabinet of natural history, in Paris, of which he

was made keeper in 1745, was, by the united exertions of Daubenton and Buffon, rendered one of the most valuable institutions in the capital. In 1744 he was chosen member of the academy of sciences, and enriched its publications by a number of anatomical discoveries, and also by researches concerning the species of animals and their varieties, the improvement of wool, and the treatment of the diseases of animals. He threw much light upon mineralogy, botany, and agriculture, and proposed a new method for the classification of minerals. He contributed to the department of natural history in the "Encyclopédie." He is, besides, the author of numerous works of general utility; for example, "Instruction pour les Bergers." Unseduced by Buffon's hypotheses, he was a most faithful observer of nature. During the reign of terror, when every one was required to give some evidence of patriotic spirit, he was represented to his section as employed in introducing the Spanish flocks into France. He afterwards continued to apply himself quietly to his studies; and, though his constitution was naturally weak, the temperance and tranquillity of his life enabled him to reach the age of eighty-four years. December 31, 1799, he was present, for the first time, at the sitting of the senate, and fell senseless into the arms of his friends, from a stroke of apoplexy.

**DAUN, LEOPOLD JOSEPH MARIA, COUNT,** an Austrian general, who was born in 1705, and died in 1766. His grandfather and father had served with distinction in the Austrian army. He gained his first laurels in the Turkish war, which lasted from 1737 to 1739, in which he was major-general, and distinguished himself also in the war of the Austrian succession. His skilful passage of the Rhine, and his marriage with the countess of Fux, a favourite of Maria Theresa, procured for him the post of master-general of the ordnance, and, in 1757, that of general field-marshal. In this capacity he commanded the Austrian army during the seven years' war. He advanced to Kolin against the king of Prussia, who was at that time besieging Prague, and gave him battle in June 1757, compelling the king to raise the siege, and evacuate Bohemia. Although he conducted with the greatest prudence and precaution, he was defeated at Leuthen, Torgau, and several other places. Except the battle of Kolin, his most memorable achievement was the surprise at Hochkirchen, on the night of the 14th of October, 1758. Here he would have destroyed the whole Prussian army had not the prince of Durlach come up too late with his column. At Torgau in 1760, the victory, which seemed to be within his grasp, was snatched from him in consequence of his wounds and the resolution of Zethen. Daun's plan of delay, and of venturing on decisive steps rarely, and only on great occasions, has been unjustly censured. He could not better resist a general like Frederic the Great, who was not accountable to a superior, and who, surrounded by enemies whom he could oppose successfully only by a rapid succession of victories over the separate armies, was obliged to adopt the boldest expedients.

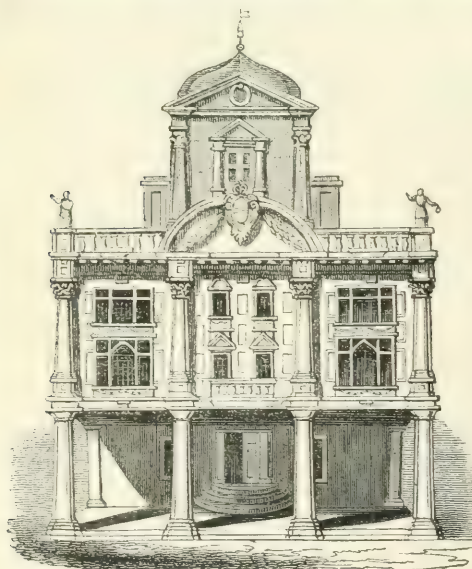
**DAVENANT, SIR WILLIAM,** an English poet of the 17th century, was the son of an innkeeper at Oxford, where he was born, in 1605. After some previous education at a grammar school, he became a student at Lincoln College; but he soon left the university, and obtained the office of page to the

duchess of Richmond, from whose household he removed into that of Greville, Lord Brooke, a nobleman eminent for his literary attainments. He was employed in preparing several masques for the entertainment of the court; and, on the death of Ben Jonson, in 1637, he succeeded to the vacant laurel. On hostilities breaking out between Charles I. and the parliament, Davenant displayed his attachment to the royal cause. Being suspected of a conspiracy against the authority of the parliament in 1641, he was arrested, but, making his escape, went to France. Thence he returned, with military stores sent by the queen, and was made lieutenant-general of ordnance, under the duke of Newcastle—a post for which he does not appear to have been qualified by any previous service. At the siege of Gloucester in 1643, he was knighted by the king; and, on the subsequent decline of the royal cause, he again retired to France, where he became a Roman Catholic. In 1646 he was sent to England on a mission from the queen; and on his return to Paris he began the composition of his principal work, a heroic poem, entitled “Gondibert.” An attempt which he afterwards made to lead a French colony to Virginia had nearly proved fatal to him. The ship, in which he had sailed from Normandy, was captured by a cruiser in the service of the English parliament, and carried into the Isle of Wight, where Davenant was imprisoned in Cowes castle. In this forlorn captivity, from which he had but little hope of escaping alive, he composed the third book of Gondibert. In October 1650 he was removed to London for trial before the high commission court. His life is said to have been preserved by the interposition of Milton. There is a corresponding tradition, that Davenant repaid the good offices of Milton by protecting the republican poet after the restoration. After two years’ imprisonment Sir William was set at liberty, when, with the connivance of those in power, he set on foot, in the metropolis, a species of dramatic entertainments. On the return of Charles II. to England, the stage was

This edifice, which furnishes a fair specimen of the theatres of the period, is represented in the preceding sketch.

He continued to employ his pen and his talents as a theatrical writer and manager till his death, which took place April 17, 1668. “Gondibert,” the principal production of this writer, was never finished. It contains some truly poetical passages, but is, upon the whole, possessed of too little interest to require any particular notice.

DAVID, JACQUES LOUIS, the founder and greatest painter of the modern French school, which he brought back to the study of nature. David was born at Paris in 1750, and went in 1774 to Rome, where he devoted himself particularly to historical painting. He visited Rome a second time in 1784, and finished his masterpiece, the Oath of the Horatii, which Louis XVI. had commissioned him to design from a scene in the “Horaces” of Corneille. Connoisseurs declared that this piece was unequalled, and breathed the spirit of a Raphael. In the same year he painted his Belisarius; in 1787, the Death of Socrates; and in 1788, Paris and Helen. His reputation was now very great in Paris; and, having begun to be distinguished as a portrait painter also, he might have enjoyed a tranquil and brilliant career, if he had not taken an active part in the revolution. Seized with an ardent zeal for liberty, he finished, in 1789, a large painting, representing Brutus condemning his sons to death. He also furnished the designs of the numerous monuments and republican festivals of that time. In 1792 he was chosen an elector in Paris; afterwards a deputy in the national convention; and, during the reign of terror, he was one of the most zealous Jacobins, and wholly devoted to Robespierre. He proposed to erect a colossal monument of the nation, on the Pont-Neuf, from the materials of the king’s statue; and at the trial of Louis XVI. he voted for his death. In January 1794, he presided in the convention, but after the fall of Robespierre he was in great danger, and his reputation as a painter alone preserved him from the guillotine. Among the scenes of the revolution which David strove to immortalize by his pencil, are the murders of Marat and Lepelletier, and particularly the oath in the tennis-court, and the entrance of Louis into the national assembly on the 4th of February, which in 1790 he presented to the legislative assembly. In 1799 he executed the Rape of the Sabine Women (the masterpiece of his genius), from the exhibition of which he received, as it is said, 100,000 francs. In 1804 the emperor appointed him his first painter, and directed him to execute four pieces, among which the Coronation of Napoleon was particularly distinguished. Among his finest works of this period were many representations of the emperor; particularly that in which the first consul was represented on horseback, on mount Bernard, pointing out to his troops the path to glory. In 1814 David painted Leonidas, his last painting in Paris. When Napoleon returned from Elba, he appointed David a commander of the legion of honour. After the second restoration of Louis XVIII. he was included in the decree which banished all regicides from France. He then established himself at Brussels; and, upon the new organization of the Institute, he was excluded from that body in April 1816. In Brussels he painted Cupid leaving the arms of Psyche. The latest of his productions,—Venus,



re-established with renewed splendour, and Davenant became patentee of a theatre in Lincoln's-Inn-Fields.



Cupid, and the Graces, disarming Mars,—which he finished at Brussels in 1824, was much admired at Paris. David died in exile at Brussels, on the 29th of December, 1825. The opinions of the merits of this artist are various; but the praise of correct delineation and happy colouring is universally conceded to him. He found in the history of his time, in the commotions of which he took an active part, the materials of his representations. The most celebrated of his paintings, as the Oath of the Horatii and the Rape of the Sabine Women, have been purchased by the French government, and placed in the gallery of the Luxembourg.

**DAVIDSON, LUCRETIA MARIA.**—This young American lady was a remarkable instance of early genius. She was born at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, in 1808, and when she was only four years old, a number of her little books were found filled with rude drawings, and accompanied by a number of verses in explanation of them, written in the characters of the printed alphabet. As her parents were in straitened circumstances, she was, from an early age, much employed in domestic services, but every moment of leisure was devoted to reading. A tender heart, a warm sensibility, an ardent and vivid imagination, an eager desire for knowledge, characterized her earlier effusions; the later are marked with the melancholy traces of a wasting frame, and a dejected spirit feeling the fatal approaches of death. We know of no instance of so early, so ardent, and so fatal a pursuit of intellectual advancement, except in the cases of Chatterton and Kirke White. In October, 1824, a gentleman, who was informed of her ardent desire for education, placed her at a female seminary, where her incessant application soon destroyed her constitution, already debilitated by previous disease; and gradually sinking under her malady, she died on the 27th of August, 1825, before completing her seventeenth year.

**DAVIE, WILLIAM RICHARDSON,** was born in June 1756. He was taken to America at the age of six years, and received the rudiments of his education in North Carolina, and commenced the study of the law; but he soon yielded to the military spirit which was excited by the war of independence. He obtained the command of a company attached to Count Pulaski's legion, quickly rose in rank, and greatly distinguished himself by his zeal, courage, and talents as an officer. During the arduous and sanguinary war in the south, he was constantly useful and energetic, and a principal favourite of generals Sumpter and Greene. At the end of the revolutionary struggle, he devoted himself, with signal success, to the profession of the law. In 1787 he was chosen by the legislature of South Carolina to represent that state in the convention that met in Philadelphia to frame a federal constitution. Sickness in his family required his presence at home before the work was completed, and therefore his name is not in the list of the signers. In the state convention in North Carolina, assembled to accept or reject the instrument, he was the ablest and most ardent of its advocates. In the year 1799 he was elected governor of that state, and, soon after, appointed by President Adams envoy to France, along with Chief-justice Ellsworth and Mr. Murray. On his return, he fixed his residence at Tivoli, a beautiful estate on the Catawba river, South Carolina. He died at Camden in the year 1820.

**DAVIS, JOHN,** an enterprising English navigator, born at Sandridge in Devonshire. He went to sea when young, and in 1585 was sent with two vessels to discover a north-west passage. He was unable to land on the southerly cape of Greenland, on account of the ice, and, steering a north-west course, discovered a country surrounded with green islands, lat.  $64^{\circ} 15'$ , the inhabitants of which informed him that there was a great sea to the north and west. Under lat.  $66^{\circ} 40'$ , he reached a coast entirely free from ice, the most southerly point of which he called Cape of God's Mercy. Sailing west, he entered a strait from twenty to thirty leagues wide, where he expected to find the passage; but the weather being unfavourable and the wind contrary, after six days of unsuccessful effort he set sail for England. The strait has since received and retained his name. Davis made two more voyages for the same purpose, but was prevented by the ice from attaining his object, in the prosecution of which Baffin afterwards distinguished himself. In 1605 Davis was killed by Japanese pirates in the Indian seas.

**DAVIES, SIR JOHN,** an eminent lawyer and poet, who was born in 1570. After receiving a good education he was favourably noticed by Elizabeth and James; having been by the latter created a sergeant at law. His poetical and other tracts were much admired. He died in December 1626.

**DAVIES, JOHN,** a Welsh divine and antiquary, who left two works on the English and Latin languages. The first was published in 1621, and the second in the year following. He also assisted in the version of the Welsh Bible, which was published in 1620.

**DAVIES, THOMAS,** a miscellaneous writer and bookseller, who was born in 1712. He was educated at the university of Edinburgh, and after having been some time on the stage he became a bookseller. Mr. Davies published several biographical works, of which the best is a "Life of David Garrick." He died in 1785, and was buried in St. Paul's, Covent Garden.

**DAVILA, ARRIGO CATERINO,** an Italian statesman and historian, who was born in 1576. His father, who fled to Venice after the conquest of Cyprus by the Turks in 1571, introduced him to the French court, where he was made page; he afterwards entered the French service, in which he highly distinguished himself. At the desire of his father he returned to Italy in 1599, entered the Venetian service, gradually rose to the post of governor of Dalmatia, Friuli, and the island of Candia, and was esteemed at Venice the first man in the republic after the doge. While travelling in 1631, on public business, he was shot by a man from whom he demanded carriages to continue his journey. He is principally celebrated for his "History of the Civil Wars of France, from 1559 to 1598." This has been translated into several languages, and deserves a place near the works of Guicciardini and Machiavelli.

**DAVOUST, LOUIS NICHOLAS.**—This nobleman was one of Bonaparte's most skilful officers. He was born in 1770 at Amaux, and studied at the military school at Brienne. He distinguished himself under Dumouriez, in the battles of Jemappe and Neerwinden; and when Dumouriez, after the battle of Neerwinden, treated with Coburg, Davoust conceived the bold design of seizing the former in the midst of his army, and nearly succeeded in the

attempt. In June 1793 he was made general; but the decree which removed the ex-nobles from the service deprived him of his command, but he was afterwards restored to the army. He was present at the siege of Luxembourg, and afterwards on the Rhine, under Pichegru. He was taken prisoner in Mannheim, but was soon exchanged, and distinguished himself in 1797, at the passage of the Rhine, by his prudence and courage. In the Italian campaigns, under Bonaparte, he became zealously attached to that general, and he accompanied him to Egypt, where he distinguished himself by his intrepidity. It was he who, after the battle of Aboukir, attacked and conquered the village. He embarked for France from Alexandria, with Desaix, after the convention of El-Arish, but they were captured by an English frigate, near the Hières. Bonaparte afterwards gave him the chief command of the cavalry in the army of Italy. After the battle of Marengo, he was made chief of the grenadiers of the consular guard, which, from this battle, was called the *granite columns*. When Napoleon ascended the throne of France he created Davoust marshal of the empire, grand cross of the legion of honour, and colonel-general of the imperial guard of grenadiers. In the campaign of 1805 he showed himself worthy of his appointment, particularly at the battle of Austerlitz, where he commanded the right wing of the army. In 1806 he marched at the head of his corps into Saxony, and at Auerstadt, where he commanded the right wing, contributed so much to the success of the day by his skilful manœuvres, that Napoleon created him duke of Auerstadt. After the peace of Tilsit, he was commander-in-chief of the army of the Rhine. In the war of 1809 against Austria his marches through the Upper Palatinate, and the engagement at Ratisbon, were hazardous enterprises, and he had an important share in the victory at Eckmühl. In the battle of Aspern only one of his four divisions was engaged, the greatest part of which, with its general, St. Hilaire, perished on the left bank of the Danube. In the battle of Wagram, Davoust commanded the right wing, to the manœuvres of which the retreat of the Austrians was mainly owing. After the peace, Napoleon created him prince of Eckmühl, and in 1811 appointed him governor-general of the Hanseatic departments. In 1813 he commanded 50,000 men, French and Danes, in Mecklenburg; but was soon besieged in Hamburg, which suffered at that time very severely. Davoust was in a critical situation, and could support his army only at the expense of the citizens, and he lost, during the siege, as many as 11,000 men. In 1814 he published, at Paris, a defence of himself from the charge of cruelty towards Hamburg. On the return of Napoleon to Paris, in March 1815, he was made minister of war, and when the allies advanced to Paris, after the battle of Waterloo, Davoust, as commander-in-chief, concluded a military convention with Blücher and Wellington, in compliance with which he led the French army beyond the Loire. He submitted to Louis XVIII., exhorting the army to follow his example, and in obedience to an order of the king surrendered the command to Marshal Macdonald. For this service he was afterwards employed by the court. Davoust died on the 1st of June, 1823. Firmness of character, personal bravery, and a military rigour often approaching to cruelty, were his chief characteristics.

Davoust left two daughters, and a son who inherited the rank of a peer.

DAVY, SIR HUMPHREY, BART.—Chemical science is more indebted to this illustrious individual than to any other of his contemporaries in the same department of study. Like most of our really eminent men, he commenced his career in comparatively humble life, and explored for himself a path which ultimately placed him on the highest eminence of human ambition. He was born at Penzance in Cornwall, December 17th, 1779; and, after having received the rudiments of a classical education, he was placed with a surgeon and apothecary, who pronounced him an "idle and incorrigible boy." He had, however, already distinguished himself at school, and a taste for chemistry, which he displayed in some experiments on the air contained in sea-weed, attracted the attention of Mr. Gilbert and Dr. Beddoes. The latter, who had just established a pneumatical institution at Bristol, offered him the place of assistant in his laboratory. Here Davy discovered the respirability and exhilarating effect of the nitrous oxide. He published the results of his experiments, under the title of "Chemical and Philosophical Researches," &c. This work immediately obtained him the place of professor of chemistry in the Royal Institution.

It gives us a very favourable opinion of the character of Davy, that, flattered as he was in the lecture-room of the Royal Institution, by the admiration of courtiers and the nobility of the great metropolis, and honoured as he was throughout the scientific world with encomiums which were enough to turn the brain of any ordinary young man, he could still condescend to carry his observations and experiments into the tannery and the farm-yard, and unite his labours with those of the humblest of our race. This benevolent zeal to render himself useful to his fellow-men displayed itself on many other occasions; and the benefits which thus accrued from his labours to numerous classes of society were strikingly acknowledged in the homage that was afterwards paid to his memory by different orders of artisans.

The principal objects which Davy proposed to himself were, first, to ascertain the food of plants, and hence to learn the best method of supplying it; secondly, to investigate the nature of different soils, and thus to detect the latent causes of productiveness or sterility, with the view of promoting the one and applying the proper remedy to the other; and, thirdly, to examine the nature of manures, for the purpose of augmenting their fertilizing powers, preventing their waste, and multiplying their number and variety. We regard his efforts as having been by far the most successful on the last point. Inquiries respecting the food of plants, connected as they are with the functions of living vegetables, belong rather to physiology than to chemistry; the method of deciding on the qualities of a soil, from the knowledge of its constituent principles, is too refined for the simple art of husbandry; but since manures undergo various chemical changes, and owe their peculiar properties to these changes, they present inquiries which are strictly chemical, and which none but the chemist can satisfactorily answer. Had Davy, by his agricultural inquiries, ascertained nothing more than that the most fertilizing portions of many of the best manures are likewise the most volatile, and had he done nothing more than furnish



the rules which he established to prevent the waste of these portions, he would have conferred a benefit upon agriculture of the greatest importance. Although treatises had previously been written with the view of reducing several branches of husbandry to a science, yet the "Agricultural Chemistry" of Sir Humphrey Davy was the first, and continues to be the last work, that presents to the agriculturist a digested code of laws constituting the scientific principles of his art. Many of the members of the Board of Agriculture were practically acquainted with farming; and the high authority conceded to this work, not only by them but by all enlightened agriculturists, is a sufficient proof of the soundness of its doctrines, and its freedom from all visionary hypotheses incompatible with experience. Considering that when he commenced this course of lectures he was only twenty-two years of age, and had not been bred on the farm, but had spent his life chiefly with books and in the laboratory, we cannot but admire the facility with which he adapted himself to the circumstances of the practical agriculturist; and we recognise in him, as in Franklin, an uncommon union of the philosopher with the man of strong common sense.

The foregoing lectures, together with his public lectures as professor of chemistry at the Royal Institution, appear to have occupied a great share of his attention from 1802 to 1806, when we arrive at a new era in his life. It was during this and the following year that he made his brilliant discoveries in galvanism. The discovery of the metallic bases of the fixed alkalies, which has led also to the knowledge of the composition of the earths, was one of the most important discoveries hitherto made in chemistry, and deservedly ranks with the discovery of carbonic acid by Dr. Black, of oxygen gas by Dr. Priestley, and of the composition of water by Mr. Cavendish. Some men of intelligence, however, not particularly conversant with chemical science, have expressed their inability to comprehend the reason why so much importance has been attached to the galvanic discoveries of Davy, or why they have been rewarded with such unbounded applause,—to evolve from a piece of potash a metallic globule seems too inconsiderable a matter to deserve the popularity with which the achievement has been rewarded. But they do not reflect that it is one of the peculiarities of chemical analysis that discoveries, made with the minutest quantities of bodies, often lead to the grandest conclusions. Thus a drop of water was no sooner resolved into its constituent elements, oxygen and hydrogen, than a new flood of light beamed forth upon the world; not only displaying to the mind, in a new and more interesting view, the expanse of waters, but revealing at once the cause of innumerable phenomena of chemistry which depend on the agencies of water, and disclosing the mysterious constitution of the vegetable kingdom. In like manner, the knowledge of the composition of a particle of potash conducted us to a knowledge of the elementary constitution of the solid globe itself. To pass by the remarkable and brilliant physical properties of potassium, it became moreover, in its turn, a most powerful auxiliary in investigating the composition of many other bodies; for it was its strong affinity for oxygen, the strongest possessed by any known body, that had enabled it, under all previous trials, to disguise its metallic nature; but,

this oxygen being withdrawn from it, potassium itself now became a powerful agent of analysis, appropriating to itself as it does the oxygen of every other substance that contains it.

It is a far greater merit in science to discover new powers of nature, or new facts which admit of extensive generalization, than to arrive at the knowledge of new individual bodies or insulated facts. How widely have the Pythagorean proposition, and that of the similarity of equiangular triangles, extended the empire of mathematics! The discovery of Jupiter's satellites and of Saturn's ring was each an interesting occurrence in astronomy; but they were facts of comparatively small extent; while Newton's discovery of the law of gravitation was finding the true key which unlocked the system of the world. No higher proof could be given of the estimation in which the galvanic discoveries of Davy were held by the most competent judges than that which was given by the French Institute, in awarding to him the splendid prize offered by them for the greatest discovery in galvanism. The laws of nature, and the powers and properties of natural bodies, are the birthright of no nation or tribe, but belong in common to the whole family of man; and he who develops those laws, and extends the empire of man over matter, becomes a citizen of the world and a benefactor of the human race. Hence, it is reasonable that, in relation to discoveries of this kind, national partialities should give way to a feeling as enlarged as the laws of nature are universal. This doctrine is clear; but to see it when the prize is to adorn the crown and swell the triumphs of an ancient and hated rival, a rival no less in arts than in arms,—to see it through schemes of conquest designed to humble and destroy the nation itself,—evinces a magnanimity of which the records of science afford but few examples. The honour which this deed reflects on the memory of the late emperor of France, under whose sanction and appropriation the prize is understood to have been awarded, plainly shows how much shorter and surer a way ambition may find to distinction and renown, by splendid acts of justice and magnanimity, than by deeds of oppression and rapine.

The year 1810 marks another distinct epoch in the life of Sir Humphrey Davy. It was during this year that he brought forward his theory respecting the nature of chlorine or oxy-muriatic acid, which gave rise to the memorable controversy on this subject that agitated the schools of chemistry during the ten following years. At the commencement of this period, our philosopher saw himself standing alone with the whole army of chemists arrayed against him; at the close of it, he had the satisfaction of seeing nearly all of them on his side.

It has been said of Sir Isaac Newton that he was so well acquainted with nature and understood her analogies so fully that he always guessed right. The increasing probability which has followed many of the novel hints and suggestions thrown out by our philosopher, at a very early period (for example, those respecting the identity of chemical and electrical attractions, the geological agencies of the metallic bases of the earths and alkalies, and the simple nature of chlorine), almost persuades us to apply to Sir Humphrey Davy a similar remark.

In the year 1812, at the age of thirty-two, Davy stood on one of the proudest heights of science. By

his extraordinary discoveries he had extended the empire of man over matter; by strong powers of reasoning, united with great ingenuity of research, he had changed the features of chemical science, he had brought over to his own views nearly the whole chemical world, he had secured the homage of many scientific bodies in different countries, and commanded universal admiration. If we look over the "Philosophical Transactions," and "Scientific Journals," from 1798 to 1812, the rapidity with which we find his great achievements to have followed each other reminds us of nothing less than the victories of Alexander, which, it will be recollected, were gained within the same short period, and at nearly the same time of life. Nor did the Macedonian distinguish his youth by more extraordinary conquests over man than our philosopher signalized his by conquests over matter. Nor can we forbear to pursue the comparison, and remark how transient were the monuments which the hero erected for himself, for how short a space he broke the stream of time, which soon closed up again and flowed on as before, while the achievements of the philosopher, developing as they do the immutable laws of nature, are alike imperishable, and bear in themselves the elements of immortality. It was, therefore, with universal approbation that the prince regent, afterwards George IV., selected Mr. Davy as the first subject to receive at his hands the honours of knighthood.

Released now from the arduous duties of professor of chemistry at the Royal Institution, and having become the possessor at once of an amiable lady and a large fortune, he seems to have seated himself to take an account of his stock of science and to digest plans for a life of learned leisure. How far it proved to be the true *otium cum dignitate* his subsequent history will show. His "Elements of Chemical Philosophy" shortly appeared as the first fruits of this retirement, purporting to be, as was supposed, the first of a series of volumes to embrace the entire philosophy of the science. Although it advances no further in the system than to expound the "laws of chemical changes," and to give the history of "undecomposed bodies," which is all included in a small volume of less than three hundred pages, yet it comprehends so much of chemical science that Dr. Ure acknowledges that much of the purely chemical part of his dictionary is derived from this work alone. His "Lectures on Agricultural Chemistry" were published about the same time; and these works, along with the volume of "Researches" before mentioned, each of which has been a rich mine from which compilers have drawn, have made Sir Humphrey extensively known to the world as an author. The "Elements" are characterized by a strictness of method, and a purity and elegance of diction, not often to be found in the writings of those who, in early life, have been precluded from the advantages of an academic education. Retirement from the active and professional duties of science is frequently attended with the same inglorious sloth and barren inactivity as retirement from the active scenes of business; but from the variety of knowledge displayed in some of the subsequent writings of Sir Humphrey, particularly in his discourses before the Royal Society, we are induced to believe that he devoted much of the time now at his disposal to the cultivation of general science and literature.

But, among the privileges conferred by a learned leisure and an easy fortune, few could have been so gratifying to Sir Humphrey as the opportunity for foreign travel. Nature, and art, and the society of the greatest men of the age, severally offered their allurements. If he had become intimately acquainted with the laws and operations of nature in his laboratory, it was, like the sight of Belzoni's models of the eternal pyramids, only in those miniature representations which inspire a restless curiosity to see the grand originals. Art also conspires with nature to exemplify the principles which he had so faithfully studied: and the choicest productions of the one, and the most stupendous as well as delightful exhibitions of the other, invited him to the south of Europe. The continent also abounded with the luminaries of science, with which a mind like his would love to blend its light. A nation is interested in the travels of such a citizen. The whole world is to him an El Dorado; from every land and sea he gathers gold and pearls, and returns deeply freighted with the intellectual riches of other climes, to pour them into the lap of his country. The "Philosophical Transactions" bear ample testimony how justly this remark applies to Sir Humphrey Davy.

The beautiful remains of ancient painting at Rome and Pompeii suggested the means of ascertaining, by actual analysis, the nature of those pigments which have retained their freshness and brilliancy through so many centuries. By such means the artist is taught how to prepare for himself the azure of Egypt and the purple of Tyre. The manuscripts found in the ruins of Herculaneum, originally 1696 in number, excited the hopes of the scholar that, could some method be devised for unrolling them, we should find many of those works of the ancients (as the deficient parts of "Aristotle," or of "Livy"), the loss of which is so deeply deplored. Sir Humphrey had made a few experiments on certain fragments of papyri while in England in 1818, which encouraged the belief that chemical agents might be found, which could be so applied to the manuscripts as to separate their folds without destroying their texture. Lord Liverpool, Lord Castlereagh, and even the prince regent, afforded ample means for defraying the expenses of such an undertaking; and the experiments were prosecuted for two months upon the manuscripts belonging to the museum at Naples. During this period he succeeded in partially unrolling twenty-three manuscripts, and he examined about 120 more, which afforded no hopes of success. In addition to the labour, in itself difficult and unpleasant, he had to encounter unexpected obstacles thrown in his way by the jealous superintendents of the museum; and he was, therefore, induced to abandon the undertaking before he had fulfilled the anticipation he had inspired. The enterprise, however, does not appear to have been entirely abortive. Its results threw some light upon the character of this collection of manuscripts, and upon the modes of writing employed by the ancients.

The volcano of Vesuvius presented an object to his curiosity, unembarrassed by any impediments of human jealousy. It was the more interesting to our philosophic observer because it afforded peculiar facilities for comparing its phenomena with a conjecture he had thrown out in a paper on the decomposition of the earths, published in the "Philosophical Transactions" in 1812, that the metals of the



alkalies and earths might exist in the interior of the globe, and, on being exposed to the action of air and water, give rise to volcanic fires. The facts, as observed at Vesuvius, appeared to strengthen this supposition, and the opinion is evidently gaining ground among geologists.

The year 1815 was rendered memorable by the invention of the safety lamp. A species of carburetted hydrogen gas, called by the miners fire-damp, is extricated in the coal-mines, which, on being mixed with atmospheric air, takes fire from the flame of a lamp, and explodes with the violence of a magazine. The explosion that occurred at the Felling colliery, in the year 1812, when 101 persons suddenly lost their lives, under aggravated horrors, filled all the coal districts of England with terror and dismay. Several methods had been devised to obviate these formidable dangers, but they had all proved either ineffectual or inapplicable to common use. The poor miners were left to grope their way in the dark caverns of the coal-pits, with no other light than that derived from sparks of steel, or encounter the hazard of a sudden and awful death. Their families were on the rack of tormenting fears, and parted with them, as they left their homes in the morning, with sad and gloomy forebodings.

In such a state of things application was made to Sir Humphrey Davy, whose rare union of scientific knowledge with mechanical ingenuity marked him out as the man of all others most likely to afford relief. It seemed, however, a hopeless undertaking. It was like asking him to discover a method of making a coal of fire burn in the midst of a barrel of gunpowder, without inflaming it. The process by which he advanced to the discovery was so curious and instructive that we are induced to follow it step by step. First, he ascertained by full and exact inquiries all the facts of the case as known to the miners. Secondly, he proceeded to learn more fully the properties of the agent which he was to attempt to control. What is this fire-damp? He analyzed it and found it to be, as other chemists had said, a variety of carburetted hydrogen gas. And this dangerous enemy to our miners was shorn of half its terrors by the employment of a tissue woven of iron wire. It may be proper to add, that though explosions have since occurred, their frequency has been most materially diminished.

Such was his great celebrity at this period of his career that persons of the highest rank contended for the honour of his company at dinner, and he did not possess sufficient resolution to resist the gratification thus afforded, although it generally happened that his pursuits in the laboratory were not suspended until the appointed dinner hour had passed. On his return in the evening, he resumed his chemical labours, and commonly continued them till three or four o'clock in the morning; and yet the servants of the establishment not unfrequently found that he had risen before them. The greatest of all his wants was time, and the expedients by which he economised it often placed him in very ridiculous positions, and gave rise to habits of the most eccentric description. Driven to an extremity, he would in haste put on fresh linen, without removing that which was underneath; and, singular as the fact may appear, he has been known, after the fashion of the grave-digger in "Hamlet," to wear no less than five shirts and as many pair of stockings at the same

time, so that exclamations of surprise very frequently escaped from his friends at the rapid manner in which he increased and declined in corpulence.

But we must hasten to the close of his brief but brilliant career. In 1818 Sir Humphrey Davy was elected to the office of president of the Royal Society, and presided over that institution for several years. In 1825 his health assumed a very delicate character; and, after the lapse of some time, Sir Humphry determined to travel on the continent. He was in Rome early in 1829, and, with that restlessness which characterizes the disease under which Sir Humphrey Davy suffered, he became extremely desirous of quitting that city and of establishing himself at Geneva. His friends were naturally anxious to gratify every wish; and Lady Davy therefore preceded him on the journey, in order that she might prepare for his comfortable reception at that place. Apartments were accordingly in readiness for him at L'Hotel de la Couronne, in the Rue du Rhone; and at three o'clock on the 25th of May, having slept the preceding evening at Chambéry, he arrived at Geneva, accompanied by his brother, Mr. Tobin, and his servant.

At four o'clock he dined, ate heartily, was unusually cheerful, and joked with the waiter about the cookery of the fish, which he appeared particularly to admire; and he desired that, as long as he remained at the hotel, he might be daily supplied with every possible variety that the lake afforded. He drank tea at eleven, and, having directed that the feather-bed should be removed, retired to rest at twelve.

His servant, who slept in a bed parallel to his own, in the same alcove, was, however, very shortly called to attend him, and he desired that his brother might be summoned. On Dr. Davy's entering the room, he said, "I am dying," or words to that effect; "and, when it is all over, I desire that no disturbance of any kind may be made in the house; lock the door, and let every one retire quietly to his apartment." He expired at a quarter before three o'clock without a struggle.

The best specimen of Sir Humphrey Davy's literary labours is his "Salmonia," but the "Transactions of the Royal Society" abound with papers of the most elaborate kind, and frequently clothed in the most poetical language. We subjoin his autograph.

*H. Davy.*

DAVY, WILLIAM.—There are few more striking examples of the effects of persevering industry on record than is furnished in the life of this ingenious man. He received the rudiments of his education at Exeter, and afterwards took a degree at Balliol College. He early in life received the curacy of Lustleigh, in Devonshire, and shortly afterwards directed his attention to acquire a knowledge of the typographical art, that he might print a work entitled "A System of Divinity, in a course of Sermons on the First Institutes of Religion, on some of the most important Articles of the Christian Religion in connexion, and on the several Virtues and Vices of Mankind, with occasional Discourses, being a compilation from the best sentiments of the polite writers

and eminent sound Divines, both ancient and modern, on the same subjects, properly connected, with improvements: particularly adapted for the use of chiefs of families and students in divinity, for churches, and for the benefit of mankind in general." With a press which he constructed himself, and as many worn and cast-off types (purchased from a country printing office) as sufficed to set up two pages, he commenced his labours. Performing every operation with the assistance of his female domestic only, and working off a page at a time, he finished forty copies of the first 300 pages. Twenty-six copies he distributed among the universities, the bishops, the Royal Society, and the reviews, expecting to derive from some quarter or other that patronage and assistance to which he fancied himself entitled. But being disappointed, he would not abandon his project, but contracted his views, resolving in future to spare his expenses in paper. He had reserved only fourteen copies, and to that number he limited the impression of his entire work. After years of unremitting toil, he saw it completed in twenty-six volumes. Disdaining to get assistance, for which he could ill afford to pay, he put the books in boards with his own hands, and then took a journey to London for the express purpose of depositing a copy in each of the principal public libraries of the metropolis. Mr. Davy was ultimately rewarded for his persevering industry by a valuable living, but he continued his literary and mechanical pursuits to the time of his death, which occurred in 1826.

DAWES, RICHARD, a learned classical scholar, who was born in 1708, and educated at Cambridge in 1736. He published a proposal for publishing by subscription a translation into Greek verse of Milton's "Paradise Lost," but the plan proceeded no further. In 1738 he was appointed master of the free grammar-school at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and also of St. Mary's Hospital. In 1745 he published his "Miscellanea Critica," consisting of a collection of grammatical remarks on various Greek authors, intended as a specimen of what he intended to perform in an edition of all the Attic poets, with Homer and Pindar. The design was never completed; but the "Miscellanea" gained so great a reputation that a second edition of it, with great additions, was published in 1781, by the Rev. Mr. Burgess, of Oxford. He died in 1766.

DAWE, GEORGE, an eminent English painter, who was much patronized by the emperor of Russia. His pictures were also much admired in this country; and he painted till the time of his death, which occurred in 1809. Mr. Dawe wrote a "Life of George Morland."

DAY, THOMAS, an ingenious writer, of a benevolent, independent, but eccentric spirit, who was born at London in 1748. His father, who was a collector of the customs, died whilst he was an infant, leaving him a considerable fortune; and he was educated at the Charter House and at Oxford. With a view to study mankind, he resided in various parts of the continent, and, having been disappointed in an early affection, took under his protection two founding girls, with a view of educating them on a principle of his own, in order to make one of them his wife. His plan, which was kindred in spirit to some of the reveries of Rousseau, utterly failed, although both of the females turned out deserving women. He gave them small portions, and eligibly united

them to respectable tradesmen. In 1778 he married Miss Esther Milnes, a lady of a highly cultivated understanding. His principles led him to renounce most of the indulgences of a man of fortune, that he might bestow his superfluities upon those who wanted necessities; and he also expressed a great contempt for forms and artificial restraint of all kinds. He wrote several works in prose and verse on the struggle with America, also other political pamphlets of temporary interest, but finally dedicated himself to the composition of books for youth, of which the well-known work entitled "Sandford and Merton" is an able specimen, although it partakes too much of the theoretical spirit of Rousseau for general application. Mr. Day at length became a victim to his enthusiastic benevolence, being killed by a fall from a young horse, which he would not allow to be trained in the usual manner, in September 1789.

DEBURE, GUILLAUME and GUILLAUME FRANCOIS, two distinguished bibliographers.—The former prepared the first division of the catalogue of the excellent library of the duke de la Vallière in 1783, and the latter a bookseller, opened a new path for bibliographers, by reducing to a system what had before been left merely to tact, in his "Bibliographie instructive, ou Traité de la Connaissance des Livres rares et singuliers." Lemercier and others attacked the work severely; yet it must be considered of much value.

DECATUR, STEPHEN, a celebrated American naval officer, who was born in 1779, on the eastern shore of Maryland, whither his parents had retired while the British were in Philadelphia. He entered the American navy in March 1798, and was soon promoted to the rank of first lieutenant. While at Syracuse, attached to the squadron of Commodore Preble, he was first informed of the fate of the American frigate Philadelphia, which, in pursuing a Tripolitan corsair, ran on a rock about four and a half miles from Tripoli, and was taken by the Tripolitans, and towed into the harbour. Lieutenant Decatur conceived the project of attempting her recapture or destruction; and he accordingly on the 16th of February, 1804, at seven o'clock at night, entered the harbour of Tripoli, boarded the frigate, though she had all her guns mounted and charged, and was lying within half-gun-shot of the bashaw's castle and of his principal battery. Two Tripolitan cruisers were lying within two cables' length, on the starboard quarter, and several gun-boats within half-gun-shot on the starboard bow, and all the batteries on shore were opened upon the assailants. Decatur set fire to the frigate, and continued alongside until her destruction was certain. For this exploit the American congress voted him thanks and a sword, and the president immediately sent him a captaincy. The next spring, it being resolved to make an attack on Tripoli, Commodore Preble equipped six gun-boats and two bomb-vessels, formed them into two divisions, and gave the command of one of them to Captain Decatur. The enemy's gun-boats were moored along the mouth of the harbour, under the batteries, and within musket shot. Captain Decatur determined to board the enemy's eastern division, consisting of nine. He boarded in his own boat, and carried two of the enemy's boats in succession. When he boarded the second boat, he immediately attacked her commander, who was his superior in size and strength,



and, his sword being broken, he seized the Turk, when a violent scuffle ensued. The Turk threw him, and drew a dirk for the purpose of stabbing his opponent, when Decatur, having a small pistol in his right pocket, took hold of it, and turning it as well as he could, so as to take effect upon his antagonist, cocked it, fired through his pocket, and killed him. When Commodore Preble was superseded in the command of the squadron, he gave the frigate *Constitution* to Decatur, who was afterwards removed to the Congress, and returned home in her when peace was concluded with Tripoli.

He succeeded Commodore Barron in the command of the *Chesapeake*, after the attack made upon her by the British man-of-war *Leopard*. He was afterwards transferred to the frigate *United States*. In the war between Great Britain and the United States, while commanding the frigate *United States*, he fell in with the *Macedonian*, mounting forty-nine carriage-guns, one of the finest of the British vessels of her class, and captured her after an engagement of an hour and a half. When Captain Carden, the commander of the *Macedonian*, tendered him his sword, he observed that he could not think of taking the sword of an officer who had defended his ship so gallantly, but should be happy to take him by the hand. In a letter written five days after the capture, he says, "I need not tell you that I have done every thing in my power to soothe and console Captain Carden; for, really, one half the pleasure of this little victory is destroyed in witnessing the mortification of a brave man, who deserved success quite as much as we did who obtained it." In January 1814 Commodore Decatur, in the *United States*, with his prize the *Macedonian*, then equipped as an American frigate was blockaded at New London by a British squadron greatly superior in force. A challenge which he sent to the commander of the British squadron, Sir Thomas Hardy, offering to meet two of the British frigates with his two ships, was declined.

In January 1815 he attempted to set sail from New York, which was blockaded by four British ships; but the frigate under his command, the *President*, was injured in passing the bar, and was captured by the British squadron, after having maintained a running fight of two hours and a half with one of the frigates, the *Endymion*, which was dismantled and silenced. After the conclusion of peace he was restored to his country, in 1815. The conduct of the Barbary powers, and of Algiers in particular, having been insulting to the United States, on the ratification of peace with Great Britain, war was declared against Algiers, and a squadron was fitted out under the command of Commodore Decatur, for the purpose of obtaining redress. In the spring of 1815 he set sail, and on the 17th of June, off Cape de Satt, captured an Algerine frigate after a running fight of twenty-five minutes, in which the celebrated admiral Rais Hammida, who had long been the terror of the Mediterranean Sea, fell. The American squadron arrived at Algiers on the 28th of June, and in less than forty-eight hours Decatur terrified the regency into his own terms, which were, mainly, that no tribute should ever be required, by Algiers from the United States of America,—that all Americans in slavery should be given up without ransom,—that compensation should be made for American property seized,—that all citizens of the United

States, taken in war, should be treated as prisoners of war are by other nations, and not as slaves, but held subject to an exchange without ransom.

After concluding this treaty, he proceeded to Tunis, where he obtained indemnity for the outrages exercised or permitted by the bashaw. Thence he went to Tripoli, where he made a similar demand with like success, and procured the release of several captives, Danes and Neapolitans. He arrived in the United States in 1815, was subsequently appointed one of the board of naval commissioners, and was residing at Washington, in that capacity, when he was killed in a duel with Commodore Barron, in March 1820, occasioned by his animadversions on the conduct of the latter. Courage, sagacity, energy, self-possession, and a high sense of honour, were the characteristic traits of Decatur. From his boyhood he was remarkable for the qualities which presage eminence in naval warfare.

DECIUS MUS, PUBLIUS, a Roman consul, who in a war against the Latins, B. C. 340, devoted himself to death for his country. His example was followed by his son and his grandson. Such acts of self-devotion were not unusual at that time, when patriotism and piety exerted a powerful influence, and were performed with great solemnity. He who devoted himself, after performing certain religious rites, rushed into the midst of the enemy, clothed in splendid armour, to show his countrymen how a brave man ought to die for his country.—Decius was also the name of a Roman emperor, who reigned from A. D. 249 till December 251. He persecuted the Christians, and perished, with his army, in a bloody battle in *Moesia* against the Goths.

DECKER, THOMAS, a dramatic writer of considerable eminence, who lived in the reigns of Elizabeth and James the First. Many of the plays of this author possess considerable merit, particularly his comedy of "*Old Fortunatus*." This author appears to have taken a very great pleasure in giving strange titles to his works, which are highly valued by bibliomaniacs.

DEE, JOHN.—This celebrated professor of mathematics and astrology was born in 1527, and studied at Cambridge, where he became a fellow of Trinity College. Even at this early period of life he was accused of being a magician, a circumstance which induced him to go abroad to the university of Louvain, where he resided for two years and took the degree of doctor of civil law. In 1551 he returned to England, and was introduced at court, and King Edward granted him a pension of 100 crowns a year, which was in 1553 exchanged for a grant of the rectories of Upton upon Severn, and Long Lednam in Lincolnshire. In the reign of Queen Mary he was for some time very kindly treated, but afterwards came into trouble, and even danger of his life. At the very entrance of it, Dee entered into a correspondence with several of the lady Elizabeth's principal servants, while she was at Woodstock and at Milton, which being observed, and the nature of it not known, two informers charged him with practising against the queen's life by enchantments. Upon this he was seized and confined; but, being after several trials discharged, he was turned over to Bishop Bonner to see if any heresy could be found in him. After a tedious persecution he was, by an order of council, set at liberty, and thought his credit so little hurt by what had happened that in

1556 he presented "A Supplication to Queen Mary for the Recovery and Preservation of Ancient Writings and Monuments." The design was certainly good, and would have been attended with good consequences if it had taken effect; its failure cannot be too deeply regretted, as there was then an opportunity of recovering many of the contents of the monastic libraries dispersed in Edward's time. Dee also appears to have had both the zeal and knowledge requisite for this undertaking. The original of his supplication, which has often been printed, is still extant; and we learn from it that Cicero's celebrated work, "*De Republicâ*," was once extant in this kingdom, and perished at Canterbury.

Upon the accession of Queen Elizabeth, at the desire of the earl of Leicester, he selected a fit day for the coronation of the queen, from whom he received many promises; yet his credit at court was not sufficient to overcome the public odium against him on the score of magical incantations, which was the true cause of his missing several preferments. He was by this time become an author; but his books were such as scarce any pretended to understand, written upon mysterious subjects in a very mysterious manner. In the spring of 1564 he went abroad again, to present a book which he dedicated to the Emperor Maximilian, but shortly after returned to England. Whether he was an impostor practising on the credulity of the great for his own advantage, or whether he was the dupe of an ardent imagination, there can be no doubt but that he professed to have the power of invoking of spirits, and obtaining from them supernatural intelligence. He had a confederate in these magical operations, whose name was Edward Kelley, and they were afterwards joined by a Polish nobleman of large fortune, who took them to his own country; and when he had been sufficiently amused with their pretences to a conversation with spirits, and was probably satisfied that they were impostors, he contrived to send them to the emperor Rodolph II., who quickly declined all further interviews. Upon this Dee got introduced to Stephen, king of Poland; but, that prince treating him with contempt, he returned to the emperor's court at Prague, from whose dominions he was soon banished at the instigation of the pope's nuncio. At this time, and while these confederates were reduced to the greatest distress, one of their pupils gave them shelter in the castle of Trebona, where they not only remained in safety, but lived in splendour. Some jealousies afterwards took place between Dee and Kelly, that brought on at length an absolute rupture.

The celebrity which their adventures gave them induced Queen Elizabeth to invite Dee home, who, in May 1589, set out from Trebona to return to England. He travelled with great pomp, and was attended by a guard of horse. He presented himself at Richmond to the queen, who received him very graciously, and he then retired to his house at Mortlake, and collecting the remains of his library, which had been torn to pieces and scattered in his absence, he sat down to study. He had great friends, received many presents; yet nothing it seems could keep him from want. The queen, who certainly listened oftener to him than might have been expected from her good sense, sent him money from time to time: but all would not do. At length he resolved to apply in such a manner as to procure some settled subsistence; and accordingly, in 1592,

he sent a memorial to her majesty by the countess of Warwick, in which he very earnestly pressed her that commissioners might be appointed to hear his pretensions, and to examine into the justness of his wants and claims. This had a good effect, for two commissioners, Sir Thomas George, and Mr. Wolley, were actually sent to Mortlake, where Dee exhibited a book containing a distinct account of all the memorable transactions of his life, those which occurred in his last journey abroad only excepted; and, as he read this historical narration, he produced all the letters, grants, and other evidences requisite to confirm them, and where these were wanting named living witnesses. The title of this work was "*The Compendious Rehearsal of John Dee, his dutiful declaration and proof of the course and race of his studious life for the space of half a hundred years now by God's favour and help fully spent, and of the very great injuries, damages, and indignities which for these last nine years he hath in England sustained, contrary to her majesty's very gracious will and express commandment, made unto the two honourable commissioners by her most excellent majesty thereto assigned, according to the intent of the most humble supplication of the said John, exhibited to her most gracious majesty at Hampton Court, ann. 1592.*"

Upon the report made by the commissioners to the queen, he received a present and promises of preferment; but, these promises ending like the former in nothing, he engaged his patroness, the countess of Warwick, to present another short Latin petition to the queen, but with what success does not appear. In 1594, however, he obtained a grant of the chancellorship of St. Paul's. But this did not answer his end, upon which he applied himself next to Whitgift, archbishop of Canterbury, by a letter, in which he inserted a large account of all the books he had either published or written; and in consequence of this letter, together with other applications, he obtained a grant of the wardenship of Manchester College, and in 1596 he arrived with his wife and family in that town, and was installed in his new charge. In 1604 he presented a petition to King James, earnestly desiring that he might be brought to a trial, that by a formal and judicial sentence he might be delivered from those suspicions and surmises which had created him so much uneasiness for upwards of fifty years. But the king, although he at first patronized him, being better informed of the nature of his studies, refused him any mark of royal countenance and favour, which must have greatly affected a man of that vain and ambitious spirit, which all his misfortunes could never alter or amend. November the same year he quitted Manchester with his family, in order to return to his house at Mortlake, where he remained but a short time, being now very old, infirm, and destitute of friends and patrons, who had generally forsaken him. He died in 1608, and left behind him a very large family. The books which he published are very numerous, and principally in the Latin tongue.

DEFFAND, MARIE DU, a French lady, distinguished alike for her talents and her intercourse with the literati of the last century. She was born in 1696, of a noble family, and received an education suitable to her rank. Her acquirements were very considerable, but no care seems to have been taken to regulate her temper and disposition, which were



marked by a degree of selfishness which was conspicuous throughout her life. In 1718 she was married to J. B. J. du Deffand, marquis de la Lande, colonel of a regiment of dragoons; and during the latter part of her long life she became the centre of a literary coterie, which included some of the greatest geniuses of the age. Among the females remarkable for their wit and talents in the eighteenth century, Madame du Deffand claims a distinguished place, though she left no monument of her abilities except her epistolary correspondence, which has been highly praised by her friend D'Alembert as affording a model of style in that species of composition. She died in 1780, having reached the age of eighty-four, during the last thirty years of which she had been afflicted with blindness. Her letters to the celebrated Horace Walpole have likewise been printed.

DEFOE, DANIEL, a writer of great talent and originality, who was born in 1663, and received his education at an academy at Newington Green. He commenced author at the age of twenty-one by a work against the Turks, shortly after which he joined the insurrection of the duke of Monmouth, and had the good fortune to escape to London, where he engaged first as a horse-factor and then as a maker of bricks at Tilbury Fort. His commercial speculations, however, failing, he became insolvent; and it is to his credit that, having cleared his debts by a composition, he subsequently paid most of them in full when his circumstances were amended. In 1697 he wrote an "Essay on Projects," and in 1701 appeared his satire, the "True-born Englishman," the object of which was to show the folly of the popular objection to King William, as a foreigner, by a people who were themselves a mixture of so many races. In 1702, when the high Church party seemed disposed to carry matters strongly against the Dissenters, he published the "Shortest Way with the Dissenters," being an ironical recommendation of persecution, so gravely covered that many persons were deceived by it. It was, however, voted a seditious libel by the House of Commons; and, the author avowing himself to secure his printer and publisher, he was prosecuted to conviction, and sentenced to fine, imprisonment, and the pillory. He underwent the latter punishment with great equanimity, and was so far from being ashamed of it that he wrote a "Hymn to the Pillory," alluding to this circumstance.

In February 1703, while in Newgate, Defoe commenced the "Review," which is supposed to have given Steele the hint for his "Tatler." He was at length liberated from Newgate by the interposition of Harley, and the queen herself sent money to his wife and family. In 1706 he published his largest poem, entitled "Jure Divino," a satire on the doctrine of divine right. When the accession of the house of Hanover became an interesting topic, he wrote in its favour; but so obtuse was the public to his irony that he was imprisoned for his productions as libels in favour of the pretender. The accession of George I. produced him no further patronage, and he began another line of composition. In 1715 he published the "Family Instructor," a work inculcating moral and religious duties in a lively manner by narration and dialogue. To this work his well-known "Religious Courtship," published in 1722, formed a third volume.

In 1719 appeared the most popular of all Defoe's

performances—the "Life and Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe," the favourable reception of which was immediate and universal. It is unnecessary to dwell upon a work which every body has read, and which has been translated into all the languages of Europe; but it may be proper to mention that the imputation of his founding it upon the papers of Alexander Selkirk, the Scottish mariner, left on the island of Juan Fernandez, appears to be altogether untrue. The success of Defoe in this performance induced him to write a number of other lives and adventures in character, as "Moll Flanders," "Captain Singleton," "Roxalana," "Duncan Campbell," and the "Adventures of a Cavalier." In 1722 he published a "Journal of the Plague in 1665," in the person of a citizen supposed to have been a witness of it. The natural manner in which it is written deceived the celebrated Doctor Mead, who thought it genuine. In 1724 he published the "Great Law of Subordination," and in 1726 his "Political History of the Devil," to which he afterwards added, in the same style of reasoning, wit, and ridicule, a "System of Magic." He is also author of a "Tour through the Island of Great Britain," the "Complete English Tradesman," a "Plan of English Commerce," and various other productions. He died in April, 1731. His autograph, of which we attach a fac-simile, is rare and curious.

*Daniel Defoe*

DELABORDE, JEAN BENJAMIN.—This individual was first valet de chambre to Louis XV., and stood very high in the good opinion of that monarch. He was originally intended by his friends for a situation under the government in the department of the finance, and after the death of his royal master, in 1774, he recurred to the original intention with which he set out in life, and became a fermier general. Six years after he published an elaborate musical treatise, which did not however meet with much success. M. Delaborde was guillotined at an advanced age during the reign of terror.

DELAPEDE, BERNARD GERMAIN.—This celebrated French naturalist was born at Agen in 1756. In common with most persons of his rank he was destined for the profession of arms, and he entered young into the Bavarian service. But his love of science was stronger than his passion for military glory, and he forsook the camp to study the works of nature. He became the pupil of Buffon, who procured for him the post of keeper of the cabinets in the Jardin du Roi at Paris, which situation he held at the beginning of the revolution. He composed the "Natural History of Oviparous Quadrupeds and Serpents," as a continuation of the great work of Buffon, in which he avoided the faults of his master, carefully availing himself of the recent discoveries made in comparative anatomy by his own countrymen and others. He improved the royal cabinet under his care; and in 1798 he published the "Natural History of Fishes;" but the events of the revolution somewhat distracted his attention from science. At the commencement of the national commotions he became a member of the department of Paris, and in 1791 one of the deputies from that

city to the legislation. He was successively secretary and president of the National Assembly; and in the latter character he received the address of the whig club to the legislators of the French nation. Holding a middle course between the moderate party and that of the Jacobins, but rather leaning to the latter, he steered in safety through the storms which proved fatal to so many of his contemporaries. On the formation of the National Institute, he was chosen one of the first members; and on the 20th of January, 1796, he carried up an address from a deputation of that body to the council of 500, containing a declaration of hatred to royalty. In 1799 Buonaparte nominated him a member of the Conservative Senate; in 1801 he was president of the senate; in 1803 he was made grand chancellor of the legion of honour; in 1804 senator of Paris; and in 1805 he was decorated with the grand eagle of the legion. His office of president of the senate rendered it frequently necessary for him to make addresses to the emperor, to whom he manifested the utmost devotion. However, in January 1814, when the power of his master was tottering on its basis, he assumed a new tone, and at the head of the senate he recommended peace, though perfectly aware how unpalatable such council would prove. His political career terminated at the restoration of the Bourbons, and he returned to those studies which, for the credit of his character and the benefit of science, he ought never to have suspended. He died of the small-pox in October 1825.

DELAMBRE, a distinguished astronomer, who was born at Amiens in 1749, and studied under the abbé Delille, who always remained his friend. He first applied himself to the languages, particularly most of the living ones, and made himself one of the best Hellenists in France. His studies were not directed to astronomy until his thirty-sixth year, when he enriched the writings of Lalande with a commentary, and became the friend and pupil of the author, who proudly called him his best work. In 1790, eight years after the discovery of Herschel, Delambre published the tables of that planet, although in that period it had performed but a small part of its eighty years' course. He also constructed tables of Jupiter and Saturn, and of the satellites of Jupiter, which, with several treatises, procured him a reception into the National Institute. He was engaged with Méchain, from 1792 till 1799, in measuring an arc of the meridian from Barcelona to Dunkirk for the verification of which he measured two bases of 6000 toises, one near Melun, the other near Perpignan. In 1802 Napoleon appointed him *inspecteur-général des études*, which post he resigned when chosen perpetual secretary of the class of mathematical sciences in 1803. His first tables of the sun were published in 1792; in 1806 appeared his new ones. In 1807 he succeeded Lalande in the *Collège de France*, and wrote his "*Traité d'Astronomie Théorique et Pratique*," "*Histoire de l'Astronomie du Moyen Age*," "*Hist. de l'Astron. Moderne*," and "*Hist. de l'Astron. du 18me. Siècle*," a collection of works such as no other nation can show. Delambre also distinguished himself, as perpetual secretary of the institute, by the justice and elegance of his *éloges*. He died in 1822.

DELANY, PATRICK, a celebrated Irish prelate, who was born in 1686. Having completed the preparatory portion of his education, he became a member of Trinity College, Dublin, where he formed

several advantageous connections. In 1724 an affair happened in the College of Dublin, with regard to which Dr. Delany is represented as having been guilty of an improper interference. Two undergraduates having behaved very insolently to the provost, and afterwards refusing to make a submission for their fault, were both of them expelled. On this occasion Dr. Delany took the part of the young men, and (as it is said) went so far as to abuse the provost to his face in a sermon at the college-chapel. Whatever may have been his motives, the result of the matter was that the doctor was obliged to give satisfaction to the provost, by an acknowledgment of the offence. In 1727 Dr. Delany was presented by the university of Dublin to a small northern living, of somewhat better than one hundred pounds a year; and about the same time Lord Carteret promoted him to the chancellorship of Christ Church, which was of equal value. Afterwards, 1730, his excellency gave him a prebend in St. Patrick's cathedral, the produce of which did not exceed either of the other preferments. In 1729 Dr. Delany began a periodical paper called "*The Tribune*," which was continued through about twenty numbers. Soon after he engaged in a more serious and important work of a theological nature, the intention of publishing which brought him to London in 1731; it had for title, "*Revelation Examined with Candour*," the first volume was published in 1732. In 1734 appeared the second volume, and so favourable a reception did the whole work meet with that a third edition was called for in 1735. In 1738 Dr. Delany published a sermon, which he had preached at Dublin before the lord-lieutenant, William duke of Devonshire. The same year appeared one of the most curious of Dr. Delany's productions, which was a pamphlet entitled "*Reflections upon Polygamy, and the Encouragement given to that Practice in the Scriptures of the Old Testament*." "*An Historical Account of the Life and Reign of David king of Israel*." The first volume of this work appeared in 1740, the second in 1742, and the third in the same year. It would be denying Dr. Delany his just praise, were we not to say that it is written with spirit; there are some curious and valuable criticisms in it, and many of the remarks in answer to Bayle are well founded; but it has not been thought, on the whole, a very judicious production. It is not necessary to the honour of the sacred writings, or to the cause of revelation, to defend or to palliate the conduct of David, in whatsoever respects he acted wrong. It is peculiar to the Scriptures, in the biographical parts, to exhibit warnings as well as examples.

In May 1744 Delany was raised to the highest preferment which he ever attained, the deanery of Down, in the room of Dr. Thomas Fletcher, appointed to be bishop of Dromore. In 1757 he began a periodical paper called "*The Humanist*," which was carried on through fifteen numbers, and then dropped. In 1761 Dr. Delany published a tract, entitled "*An Humble Apology for Christian Orthodoxy*," and several sermons. It was in 1763, after an interval of nearly thirty years from the publication of his former volumes, that he gave to the world the third and last volume of his "*Revelation Examined with Candour*." In the preface the doctor has indulged himself in some peevish remarks upon reviewers of works of literature; but from complaints of this kind few writers have ever derived



any material advantage. With regard to the volume itself, it has been thought to exhibit more numerous instances of the prevalence of imagination over judgment than had occurred in the former part of the undertaking. In 1766 Dr. Delany published a sermon against transubstantiation, which was succeeded in the same year by his last publication, which was a volume containing eighteen discourses. Dr. Delany departed this life at Bath, in May 1768, in the eighty-third year of his age.

DELAUNEY, COUNT D'ANTRAIGUES, a French nobleman who figured during the revolutionary commotions of his native country. On several occasions he manifested a predilection for the popular party; but on the discussion of the very important question relative to the royal veto, he delivered a long and eloquent discourse in favour of it. He published several political tracts, including some memoirs on the states-general. During the tyranny of Robespierre he emigrated to Germany, and in 1797 he was employed in the service of Russia. While thus engaged in Italy he was arrested by the agents of France, and thrown into prison. He wrote a very indignant letter to the republican general, complaining of his detention as an infringement of the rights of nations; but this had no effect, and he owed his liberation to Madame St. Huberti, a celebrated actress belonging to the French opera, who afterwards became his wife. In 1806 he was sent to England, with credentials from the emperor of Russia, who had granted him a pension. Here he obtained letters of naturalization, was often employed by government, and resided in this country several years, till he fell a sacrifice to the insane fury of a domestic. He had a house at Barnes in Surrey, and on the third of July, 1812, as he was about to step into his carriage at Barnes to go to London with the countess, an Italian footman came upon the terrace where the coach was waiting, and fired a pistol at the count, which slightly grazed his hair. The assassin perceiving he had missed his aim, rushed into the house, and immediately returned with a pistol in one hand and a dagger in the other, with which he stabbed both the count and countess. The man then fled back up stairs, and put a period to his own life, by discharging a pistol in his mouth. The count survived about a quarter of an hour; but the countess died instantly.

DELILLE, JACQUES, the most distinguished of the French didactic poets of modern times. He was born in 1738, at Aigueperse in Auvergne, and strongly resembled Pope in personal deformity as well as in exquisite versification. In the college of Lisieux, at Paris, he distinguished himself by his precocious talents; and in the college of Amiens, he began his metrical translation of Virgil's *Georgics*. He had translated this work by the end of his twenty-third year, but spent many years in retouching it. It was published in 1770, with a *Discours préliminaire*, and numerous annotations, which gave him also an honourable place among the French prose writers. Notwithstanding the jealousy of his rivals, Delille was invited to Paris, and was made professor at the Collège de la Marche, and afterwards at the Collège de France, and his translations were ranked by the French among their classics. Delille translated, also, the *Æneid* of Virgil, and was received in his thirty-seventh year into the academy. Before this time he had produced his didactic poem, "Les

Jardins, ou l'Art d'Embellir les Paysages," in four cantos. This was considered the best didactic poem in the French language, though inferior to his translation of Virgil. Delille received the lower ordinations to be enabled to hold a benefice, from which, together with his salaries as professor and member of the academy, and his own fortune, he derived, before the revolution, an annual income of 30,000 livres, of which he preserved at a later period only 600. He was also made a member of the National Institute. Though an adherent of the old system, Robespierre spared him on every occasion. At his request Delille wrote, in twenty-four hours, the "Dithyrambe sur l'Immortalité de l'Âme," to be sung on the occasion of the public acknowledgment of the Deity. This performance made an impression even on the members of the committee of safety, but was not sung. In 1794 he withdrew from Paris, and gave himself up, in the sublime scenery of the Vosges, to meditations on the destiny of man and on the laws of poetry. In Switzerland he finished his "Homme des Champs," a didactic poem on the charms of rural life, called also "Géorgiques Françaises," which may be considered as a moral sequel to Virgil's *Georgics*. Delille laboured on it for twenty years, principally during the reign of terror, in the vales of the Vosges, in 1794 and 1795; hence the deep melancholy of many passages. The sufferings of his country produced "Le Malheur et la Pitié," four cantos full of lovely and touching pictures, in harmonious verse. At London he married Mademoiselle Vaudchamps, who had been for a long time the companion of his travels. Here he translated Milton's "Paradise Lost," perhaps the most poetical of all his works, but the exertion brought on a stroke of the apoplexy. After his return to France he wrote his "Trois Règnes de la Nature," and the admired poem "La Conversation," a subject of which he was master. Its poetical character is the same as that of his other works. Lively feeling, richness of conception, animated descriptions, purity and great elegance of expression, harmonious and easy versification, are its chief excellences. Delille composed in his head, without writing, even the 30,000 verses of his translation of the *Æneid*, and, like Tasso, trusted them with more confidence to his memory than to his tablets. But his bodily vigour diminished as his mental powers increased. He grew blind, and died on the first of May, 1813. In a poem not committed to paper, he had sung of old age and his approaching death—of the vanities of the present, and the happiness of the future life. He was universally lamented on account of his amiable character, as well as of his talents.

DELISLE, or DE LISLE, GUILLAUME, a geographer, born at Paris in 1675. He was instructed by Cassini, and soon conceived the idea of reforming the whole system of geography. He published, in his twenty-fifth year, a map of the world, maps of Europe, Asia, and Africa, a celestial and terrestrial globe of a foot in diameter. By rejecting Ptolemy's statements of longitude, or rather by comparing them with the astronomical observations and the statements of modern travellers, he founded the modern system of geography. His brother, Joseph Nicolas, born in 1688 at Paris, devoted himself in his earliest youth to astronomy under the direction of Lieutaud and Cassini, and was admitted into the Academy of Sciences. His

observations on the transit of Mercury over the sun in 1723, and of the eclipse of the sun in 1724, increased his reputation. The empress Catharine I. invited him to Petersburg to establish a school for astronomy, to which the fame of Delisle soon gave celebrity. His leisure time was employed in travelling, for the purpose of making interesting collections in natural science and geography. On his return his collections were purchased by the king, and Delisle himself was appointed inspector of them. He continued his observations till his death, which took place in 1768. Among his pupils were Lalande and Messier. His most important geographical work, "*Mémoires sur les Nouvelles Découvertes au Nord de la Mer du Sud*," contains the results of the Russian voyages to discover a passage from the Pacific Ocean into the waters north of America. His "*Avertissement aux Astronomes sur l'Eclipse Annulaire du Soleil que l'on attend le 25 Juin, 1748*," gives a complete history of all annular eclipses of the sun.

DELLA MARIA, DOMINIQUE, a French composer of considerable talent, was born at Marseilles in 1778, and composed in his eighteenth year an opera which was performed with applause in his native city, and went afterwards to Italy, where he enjoyed the instruction of several great masters, particularly of Paesello, and composed six comic operas, of which "*Il Maestro di Cappella*" is the most distinguished. After his return to Paris his opera "*Le Prisonnier*" increased his reputation, and the airs of his "*Opéra Comique*" became national favourites. In his works the song is easy and agreeable, the style pure and elegant, the expression natural, the accompaniment easy, original, and pleasing. He played with extraordinary skill on the piano and the violoncello. He died in 1806.

DELOLME, JOHN LOUIS, born at Geneva in 1740, was a lawyer in his native city, and the part which he took in its internal commotions by a work entitled "*Examen des Trois Points de Droit*," obliged him to repair to England, where he passed some years in great indigence. He wrote for journals, frequented low taverns, was devoted to gaming and pleasure, and lived in such obscurity, that, when he became known by his work on the English Constitution, and some people of distinction were desirous of relieving him, it was impossible to discover his place of residence. His pride was gratified by this kind of low independence, and he rejected all assistance, excepting some aid from the literary fund, to enable him to return to his country. This was probably in 1775, since, from that time, he calls himself member of the Council of the Two Hundred in Geneva. Among his peculiarities was this, that, although principally occupied with political law, he was never present at a session of parliament. At the time of his arrival in England aristocratical arrogance and turbulence had reached its highest pitch in Sweden and Poland, and it was feared, and not without reason, that the same evils threatened this country. Delolme entered into an investigation of this subject. Hence originated his celebrated work, entitled, "*Constitution de l'Angleterre, ou Etat du Gouvernement Anglais comparé avec la Forme Républicaine et avec les Autres Monarchies de l'Europe*," and a work called "*A Parallel between the English Government and the former Government of Sweden*." In both his principal object was to illustrate the ex-

cellence and stability of the English constitution. Its character of a spirited eulogium is undoubtedly the reason that the first politicians of the day, Lord Chatham, the marquis of Camden, and the author of the celebrated "*Letters of Junius*," spoke so highly of this work of a foreigner. It is not a complete system of the political law of this country, and has been reproached as being superficial, but it contains much ingenious reflection on our constitution, on the energy arising from a happy union of royal power with popular liberty, and particularly on the value of an independent judiciary and the freedom of the press, subjected to penal laws, but not to a censorship. Delolme also published in English his "*History of the Flagellants, or Memorials of Human Superstition*," "*An Essay on the Union with Scotland*." On the occasion of the will of Mr. Thellusson, he wrote his "*Observations on the Power of Individuals to prescribe, by Testamentary Dispositions, the Particular Future Uses to be made of their Property*." He died in July 1806, at a village in Switzerland.

DELORME, MARION.—This female was born in 1612 at Chalons in Champagne, and was the mistress of the seditious Cinq-Mars. She permitted herself in 1650 to be involved in the affair of the discontented princes, and escaped arrest only by a real or pretended sickness, and soon afterwards spread a report of her own death. She is said to have seen her own funeral from a window. She then came to England, married a rich lord, and, while returning a widow with a large fortune, was attacked by robbers, and forced to marry their captain. After becoming a widow a second time she married a man named Lebrun, in Franche-Comté, with whom she afterwards went to Paris, where, after the death of her friend Ninon de l'Enclos, she died in 1706 in great indigence.

DELUC, JEAN ANDRE, a geologist and meteorologist, born in 1726 at Geneva, where his father was a watchmaker. He enriched science with very important discoveries, but his theories and hypotheses, which he endeavoured to accommodate to the historical accounts contained in the Holy Scriptures, have met with violent opponents. He passed some time in England as reader to the queen, and died in 1817 at Windsor. Among his numerous writings are his "*Recherches sur les Modifications de l'Atmosphère*," "*Nouvelles Idées sur la Météorologie*," and his "*Traité Élémentaire de Géologie*."

DEMOCRITUS, a philosopher of the Eleatic school, who was born about 494 B. C. Some Magi and Chaldeans, whom Xerxes left on his return from his Grecian expedition, are said to have excited in Democritus the first inclination for philosophy. After the death of his father he travelled to Egypt, where he studied geometry, and probably visited other countries to extend his knowledge of nature. Among the Greek philosophers he enjoyed the instruction of Leucippus. He afterwards returned to his native city, where he was placed at the head of public affairs. Indignant at the follies of the Abderites, he resigned his office, and retired to solitude, to devote himself exclusively to philosophical studies.

We pass over the fables which have been related of Democritus, such as that he laughed continually at the follies of mankind (in contrast to the weeping Heraclitus), and give a short summary of his philosophical opinions. In his system he developed still



further the mechanical or atomical theory of his master, Leucippus. Thus he explained the origin of the world by the eternal motion of an infinite number of invisible and indivisible bodies, atoms, which differ from one another in form, position, and arrangement, and are alternately separated and combined by their motions in infinite space. In this way the universe was formed, fortuitously, without the interposition of a First Cause. The eternal existence of atoms (of matter in general) he inferred from the consideration that time could be conceived only as eternal and without beginning. Their indivisibility he attempted to prove in the following manner:—If bodies are infinitely divisible, it must be allowed that their division must be perceptible. After the division has been made, there remains either something extended, or points without any extent, or nothing. In the first case, division would not be finished; in the second case, the combination of points without extension could never produce something extended, and if there remained nothing, the material world would also be nothing; consequently there must exist simple indivisible bodies (atoms). From his position of the eternal change of the separating and combining atoms, follows also the other, that there are numberless worlds continually arising and perishing. In the atoms he distinguished figure, size, gravity, and impenetrability. All things have the same elementary parts, and their difference depends only on the different figure, order, and situation of the atoms, of which every thing is composed. This difference of the atoms is infinite, like their number: hence the variety of things is infinitely great. Fire consists, according to him, of active globules, and spreads, like a light envelope, round the earth. The air is moved by the continual rising of the atoms from the lower regions, and becomes a rapid stream, which carries along with it the stars formed in its bosom.

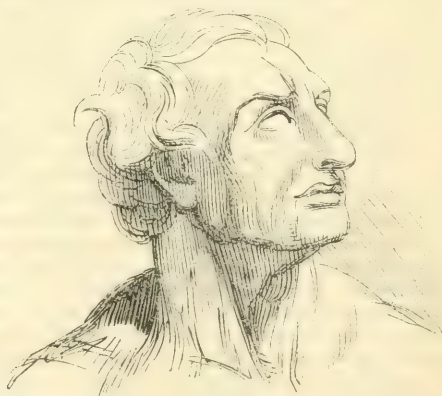
The following doctrines of his, respecting the soul, deserve to be mentioned:—The soul consists, in as far as it is a moving power, of igneous atoms; but, since it is acquainted with the other elements, and any thing can be known only by its equal, it must be composed in part also from the other elements. The sense of feeling is the fundamental sense, and the least deceitful of all; for that alone can be true and real in the objects which belongs to the atoms themselves, and this we learn with the greatest certainty by our feeling. The other senses show more the accidental qualities of things, and are consequently less to be relied upon. The impressions produced on the five senses are effected, partly by the different composition of the atoms in the organs of sense, partly by the different influence exerted by external bodies, which varies with the arrangement of the atoms of which they consist. In the act of vision, images separate from the external body, and enter the eye. The motion of a body (for instance, of the lips in speaking) divides the air, and gives it a motion, varying according to the direction of the moving body. The parts of air thus put in motion arrive at the ear, and produce hearing. In a similar way arise the sensations of tasting and smelling. The images of the objects received by the eye arrive through it to the soul, and produce within us notions. If, therefore, no notions come to the soul by means of the eye its activity ceases, as is the case in sleep. The knowledge conveyed by the senses is obscure and

deceitful, and represents mere motions of the exterior bodies. What we know by the way of reason has a higher degree of certainty, yet it is not beyond doubt. The continuation of the soul after death was denied by Democritus, who believed it to be composed of atoms. He divided it into two parts; into the rational part, which has its seat in the breast, and the sensual part, which is diffused through the whole body. Both constituting only one substance. The greatest good, according to Democritus, is a tranquil mind. He applied his atomical theory also to natural philosophy and astronomy. The popular notions of the gods he connected with his system, perhaps merely to accommodate himself to the prevailing creed. Even the gods he considered to have arisen from atoms, and to be perishable like the rest of things existing. Democritus is said to have written a great deal, of which however nothing has come to us. He died at an advanced age, and his school was supplanted by that of Epicurus.

DEMOIVRE, ABRAHAM, a learned mathematician of the last century. He was a native of Vitri in Champagne, and was driven from his native country by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He settled in London, and gained a livelihood by becoming a teacher of mathematics. He was particularly celebrated for his skill and accuracy as a calculator, whence he is thus referred to by Pope:—

“Sure as Demoivre, without rule or line.”

He died in 1754 at the age of eighty-six. His principal works are, “Miscellanea Analytica,” “The Doctrine of Chances, or a Method of calculating the Probabilities of Events at Play,” and a work on annuities, besides papers in the “Transactions of the Royal Society,” of which he was a Fellow.



DEMOSTHENES.—This celebrated orator of antiquity was the son of a sword-cutter at Athens, where he was born. His father left him a considerable fortune, of which his guardians attempted to defraud him: Demosthenes, at the age of seventeen years, conducted a suit against them himself, and gained his cause. He studied rhetoric and philosophy in the schools of Callistratus, Isæus, Isocrates, and Plato. But nature had placed great obstacles in his way, and his first attempts to speak in public were attended with derision. He not only had very weak lungs and a shrill voice, but was unable to pronounce the letter *r*. These natural defects he endeavoured to remedy by the greatest exertions. He succeeded by the advice of the actor Satyrus, who advised him

to recite with pebbles in his mouth, on the roughest and steepest places. To strengthen his voice, he exercised himself in speaking aloud on the sea-shore amidst the noise of the waves. At other times he shut himself up for months in a subterranean room, with his head half shaved, that he might not be tempted to go out, and endeavoured to acquire dignity of manner by practising before a mirror, and transcribed the history of Thucydides eight times, for the purpose of forming his style.

After such a laborious preparation he composed and delivered his masterly speeches, of which his enemies said that they smelt of the lamp, but to which posterity has assigned the first rank among the models of eloquence—speeches in which he openly opposed the foolish wishes of the multitude, censured their faults, and inflamed their courage, their sense of honour, and their patriotism. He thundered against Philip of Macedon, and instilled into his fellow-citizens the hatred which animated his own bosom. The first of those orations, so celebrated under the name of *Philippics*, was delivered when Philip took possession of the pass of Thermopylæ. The orator insisted on the necessity of immediately preparing a fleet and an army, urging the Athenians to begin the war themselves, to make Macedonia the theatre, and to terminate it only by an advantageous treaty or a decisive battle. They admired and approved his plans, but did not execute them, and the celebrated Phocion, who knew the weakness of Athens, unceasingly advised peace. Demosthenes went twice to the court of Philip to negotiate, but without success. On his return he recommended war, and endeavoured to arm not only Athens but all Greece. When Philip had finally penetrated into Phocis, through the pass of Thermopylæ, and had taken possession of the city of Elatea to the terror of Athens, Demosthenes obtained a decree of the people for fitting out a fleet of 200 vessels, marching an army to Eleusis, and sending ambassadors to all the cities of Greece, for the purpose of forming a universal confederacy against Philip. He was himself among the ambassadors, and prevailed on the Thebans to receive an Athenian army within their walls. He also exerted himself actively throughout Bœotia, and by his efforts a numerous army was collected to act against Philip. A battle was fought near Cheronea, and the Greeks were vanquished, and Demosthenes was among the first who fled. Nevertheless, he was desirous of delivering a funeral oration over those who had fallen in battle. Æschines, his rival, did not fail to attack him on this account. The hostility between the two orators was the occasion of the speech *pro coronâ* (for the crown), which resulted in the triumph of Demosthenes and the exile of his adversary.

Philip having been soon after assassinated, Demosthenes thought that Athens would be better able to maintain its liberty, but Alexander's dreadful chastisement of Thebes filled the Athenians with such terror that they sued for mercy. It was with difficulty that Alexander could be persuaded to desist from his demand of the surrender of Demosthenes and some other orators; for the Macedonians feared Demosthenes more than they did the armies of Athens. He was afterwards fined fifty talents for bribery, and, neglecting the payment of it, was thrown into prison, from which he escaped and fled to Ægina, where he remained till the death of Alex-

ander. Then followed the war with Antipater, when Demosthenes again appeared in public, and endeavoured to persuade the small Grecian states to unite against Macedonia. The Athenians received him with honour, but the war was unsuccessful, and Antipater insisted upon his being surrendered to him. Demosthenes fled to the temple of Neptune in the island of Calauria, on the coast of Argolis, but finding himself not secure, he took poison, which he always carried about with him, and died 319 B. C. His character was not entirely free from vanity, ambition, and avarice. Cicero pronounces him to be the most perfect of all orators. He always spoke as circumstances required, and was, by turns, calm, vehement, or elevated. He carried the Greek language to a degree of perfection which it never before had reached. In energy and power of persuasion, in penetration and power of reasoning, in the adaptation of the parts to the whole, in beauty and vigour of expression, in strong and melodious language, he surpassed all his predecessors.

DEMPSTER, THOMAS, a Scottish writer of considerable eminence, who was born in 1759, and received his education at the universities of Aberdeen and Cambridge. He then went to France, where he assumed the title of baron of Muresk; such however was the state of his finances, that he was obliged to become a teacher of the classics in the college of Beauvais for his support. At Pisa he obtained the professorship of philology; but afterwards removed to Bologna, where he taught with great reputation till his death, which took place in 1625. The writings of Dempster are numerous, relating to law, antiquities, philology, poetry, &c. The work by which he is best known, is his "*Menologium Sanctorum Scotorum*," [republished after his death with the title of "*Historia Ecclesiastica Scotorum*."]

DEMOUSTIER, CHARLES ALBERT, a French poet, born at Villers-Cotterets in 1760, was at first a successful lawyer. He wrote comedies, operas, and poems. They are full of affected wit and false brilliancy. His "*Letters to Emilie*" on mythology have made him known in Europe. It may be justly objected to them, that they are superficial, affected, and written in what the French call *style de madrigal*; yet they are, at the same time, distinguished for spirit, delicacy, and ease. Of his plays, "*Le Conciliateur*," "*Les Femmes*," and "*Le Tolerant*," have maintained a place on the stage. He died March 2, 1801.

DENHAM, SIR JOHN, a poet, was born at Dublin in 1615. He was the son of Sir John Denham, chief baron of the exchequer in Ireland, and was educated in London and at Oxford. Although dissipated and irregular at the university, he passed his examination for a bachelor's degree, and then removed to Lincoln's Inn to study law. In 1641 he first became known by his tragedy of the "*Sophy*." This piece was so much admired that Waller observed, "Denham had broken out like the Irish rebellion, 60,000 strong, when no person suspected it." At the commencement of the civil war he received a military command; but, not liking a soldier's life, he gave it up and attended the court at Oxford, where in 1643 he published the first edition of his most celebrated poem called "*Cooper's Hill*." He was subsequently entrusted with several confidential commissions by the king's party, one of which was to collect pecuniary aid from the Scottish residents in



Poland. He returned to England in 1552; but how he employed himself until the restoration does not appear. Upon that event he obtained the office of surveyor of the king's buildings, and was created a knight of the Bath, and a fellow of the newly-formed Royal Society. A second marriage at an advanced age caused him much disquiet and a temporary derangement; but he recovered, and retained the esteem of the lettered and the courtly until his death, in 1688, when his remains were interred in Westminster abbey.

**DENHAM, DIXON, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL.**—This enterprising traveller, who is so well known from his expedition into central Africa, was born in 1786, and after finishing his education was placed with a solicitor, but in 1811 entered the army as a volunteer, and served in the peninsular campaigns. After the general peace he was reduced to half-pay on the peace establishment, and in 1819 was admitted into the senior department of the Royal Military College at Farnham. In 1823 he was engaged, in company with Captain Clapperton and Doctor Oudney, in exploring the central regions of Africa. His courage, address, firmness, perseverance, and moderation, his bold, frank, energetic disposition, and his conciliating manners, peculiarly fitted him for such an undertaking. The narrative of the discoveries of the travellers was prepared by Denham. In 1826 he went to Sierra Leone, as superintendent of the liberated Africans, and in 1828 was appointed lieutenant-governor of the colony; but on the 9th of June of the same year he died of a fever, after an illness of a few days.

The following account of the death of Colonel Denham is from the pen of an eye-witness, and it conveys an accurate picture of the baleful climate of Sierra Leone:—"You will, no doubt, have heard of the death of Colonel Denham. Exactly four months ago this day I had the honour of being presented to him on his assuming the command of Sierra Leone. His levee was most numerously attended by all the military and civil officers of this station, and by its magistrates and merchants. This gallant officer and celebrated traveller was surrounded by his staff and his friends; all eyes were turned upon him with looks of admiration and regard; he had escaped the dangers of battle and travel, the field of Waterloo and the deserts of Africa. He returned here to rest, after his many perils and enterprises—he now rests in his silent grave. This day the same hands bore the pall of his coffin, which a little month ago grasped him in congratulation and joy. In the freshness of his fame and in the vigour of his manhood, even he succumbs to the destiny which awaits all who have the temerity to intrude on this awful spot, where death sits high enthroned. He was interred with all the military honours of a soldier, and with the still more precious honours of tears and of sorrow poured over his grave."

**DENINA, GIACOMO CARLO**, an historian of considerable eminence, who was born in 1731, at Revel in Piedmont, studied belles-lettres at Turin, and received a professorship at the Royal School at Pignerol. When the chair of rhetoric at the superior college of Turin was vacant, Denina was made professor in the college and university. He now published the three first volumes of his "History of the Italian Revolutions," containing a general history of Italy, which subjected him to some inconveniences,

by exciting the ill-will of the defenders of the privileges of the clergy. In 1777 he travelled, on account of his health, to Rome, made a stay at Florence, received an invitation to Prussia, went to Berlin in September 1782, was presented to the king by the marquis Lucchesini, and appointed a member of the academy, with a salary of 1200 Prussian dollars. He had several conversations with Frederic the Great, an account of whose life and reign he afterwards wrote. He also published "*La Prusse Littéraire sous Frederic II.*" In 1791 he made a journey to Piedmont, and published on his return to Berlin the "*Guide Littéraire.*" As early as 1760 his "*Discorso sopra le Vicende della Letteratura*" appeared in Berlin. It is a valuable contribution to the history of literature, and has been translated into German and French. Most of his works were written at Berlin; as, for instance, his "*History of Piedmont and of the other Sardinian States*;" "*Political and Literary History of Greece*;" and "*Letters from Brandenburg.*" After the battle of Marengo, the council of administration appointed him librarian at the university of Turin; but previous to entering upon this office, he wrote his "*Clef des Langues, ou Observations*," which he dedicated to the first consul. He received, in return, an honourable letter and a gold snuff-box, through Duroc. This favour was followed by the offer of the place of librarian to the emperor, upon which he repaired to Paris. In 1805 appeared his "*Historico-Statistical Picture of Upper Italy.*" He died in 1813.

**DENNE, JOHN**, a celebrated antiquary, who was born in 1693. On the completion of his education he entered into holy orders, and in 1725 became vicar of St. Leonard's, Shoreditch. In 1728 he was installed archdeacon of Rochester, and shortly after he became rector of Lambeth. He died in 1767. Dr. Denne was the author of several valuable works, chiefly on theological subjects.

**DENNIS, JOHN**, a dramatic writer of some eminence, who was born in 1675, and was remarkable for his literary quarrels with many of the most distinguished writers of his period, especially Addison and Pope. Having completed his education he travelled into France and Italy, and on his return home he devoted himself to literary pursuits, living on the fortune which had been left him by his uncle. As a dramatic writer his first performance was a comedy entitled "*A Plot and no Plot, or Jacobite Credulity*," which was followed by several other works of little value. The tragedy of "*Iphigenia*" was brought out in 1700, at the theatre in Little Lincoln's-inn Fields, where it was condemned; but although there are undoubtedly many irregular lines in it, and perhaps some passages savour of turgidity, upon the whole, it is a pathetic and interesting performance. It must not, however, be concealed that Mr. Dennis derived his chief excellence from Euripides's *Iphigenia in Tauris*, whence his story is taken; and indeed his obligations to Euripides are so numerous, that he ought to have openly acknowledged them. With less merit than "*Iphigenia*," a comedy of Mr. Dennis's, which was produced by him in 1702, was somewhat more successful at the theatre. The title of it is, "*The Comical Gallant, with the Amours of Sir John Falstaff*," a very indifferent alteration of Shakspeare's "*Merry Wives of Windsor.*"

In 1704 Mr. Dennis brought out a tragedy, entitled "*Liberty Asserted*," the scene of which is laid at Agnie (which name, he says, for the sake of a better

sound, he has altered to Angie) in Canada; and the plot is an imagined one, from the wars carried on among the Indian nations. In the dedication to Anthony Henley, Esq., Mr. Dennis owns himself to be indebted to that gentleman for "the happy hint upon which it was formed." This was by far the most successful of all his dramatic productions, which was probably owing, in a considerable degree, not to its own merit, but to the abuse which is plentifully scattered through it upon the French nation, which, during a season of war, was congenial to the feelings of the auditory. Its success, however, produced an odd effect on Dennis's imagination, which was never well regulated. Thinking that the severity of the strokes against the French could never be forgiven, and consequently that Louis XIV. would not consent to a peace with England, unless he was delivered up a sacrifice to national resentment, he carried this apprehension so far that when the congress for the peace at Utrecht was in agitation, he waited on the duke of Marlborough, who had formerly been his patron, to entreat his interest with the plenipotentiaries, that they should not consent to his being given up. With great gravity the duke informed him that he was sorry that it was out of his power to serve him, as at that time he had no connexion with the ministry, adding, that he fancied his case not to be quite so desperate as he seemed to imagine; for that, indeed, he had taken no care to get himself excepted in the articles of peace; and yet he could not help thinking that he had done the French almost as much damage as even Mr. Dennis. Another instance of our author's terror, arising from his self-importance, is thus related. Having been invited down to a gentleman's house on the coast of Sussex, where he was very kindly entertained, as he was walking one day near the beach, he saw a ship sailing, as he imagined, towards him. Upon this, supposing that he was betrayed, he immediately made the best of his way to London, without even taking leave of his host, whom he believed to have been concerned in the plot against him, and to have decoyed him to his house with no other view than to give notice to the French, who had fitted out a vessel on purpose to carry him off, if he had not luckily discovered their design.

Mr. Dennis's next dramatic attempt was in a comedy, entitled "*Gibraltar, or the Spanish Adventure*;" and which was performed in 1705, at the Theatre Royal in Drury-lane; but without success. In 1709 Mr. Dennis brought upon the stage, at Drury-lane, "*Appius and Virginia*," a tragedy, which was not very successful, but is remarkable for a circumstance little connected with its literary merit, namely, that Dennis, expressly for the use of this play, invented a new species of thunder.

For his poem on the battle of Blenheim the duke of Marlborough rewarded him with a present of a hundred guineas. But, previously to the writing of that poem, he had experienced his grace's patronage in a much more important instance; for the duke had procured for him the place of a waiter at the Custom-house, worth a hundred and twenty pounds a-year. This office he held for six years; during which he managed his affairs with so little discretion that, in order to discharge some pressing demands, he was obliged to dispose of his waitership, and he died in great distress on the 6th January, 1733.

DENON, DOMINIQUE VIVANT BARON.—

This distinguished French traveller was born at Chalons-sur-Saone. His parents originally intended him for the office of magistrate, but owing to his suffering greatly from a painful disease he preferred devoting his time to literature and the fine arts. After the death of Louis the Fifteenth (whom he had served in the office of gentleman in ordinary of the bed-chamber), he was sent by the Count de Vergennes, then minister of foreign affairs, on a mission to the Swiss government, when he visited Voltaire at Fer-moy. He next became attached to the Neapolitan embassy, where he remained several years. On the death of Count de Vergennes he returned to Paris, intending to again visit Italy to study the great schools of painting in that country. But his plans were interrupted by the breaking out of the revolution, and he was in danger of losing his life; but the great painter David procured an order for him to engrave the newly projected national costume. He afterwards accompanied Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt, and while there collected the materials for his great work, entitled "*Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt during the Campaign of General Bonaparte*." He was rewarded by the post of director of the Museum and Medal Mint, which office he retained after the restoration of the Bourbons. The latter part of his life was employed in the composition of a work on the history of the fine arts. He died at Paris on the 27th of April, 1825.

DERHAM, WILLIAM, a learned divine and philosopher, who was born at Worcester in 1657. In May 1675 he was admitted a member of Trinity College, Oxford; and when he took his degree of B. A. was already distinguished for his learning and exemplary character. He was ordained deacon by Compton, bishop of London, in May 1681, and shortly presented to the vicarage of Wargrave in Berkshire. August 1689 he was presented to the valuable rectory of Upminster in Essex. Here in a retirement suitable to his contemplative and philosophical temper, he applied himself with great eagerness to the study of nature, and to mathematics and experimental philosophy, in which he became so eminent that in 1702 he was chosen F. R. S. He proved one of the most useful and industrious members of this society, frequently publishing in the "*Philosophical Transactions*" curious observations and valuable papers. He also published, separately, "*The Artificial Clock-Maker, or a Treatise of Watch and Clock-Work*." The fourth edition of this book, with large emendations, was published in 1734. In 1711 and 1712 he preached "*Sixteen Sermons*" at Boyle's lectures, which, with suitable alterations in the form, and notes, he published in 1713 under the title of "*Physico-Theology, or a Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God from his Works of Creation*." In pursuance of the same design he published, in 1714, "*Astro-Theology, or a Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God from a Survey of the Heavens*," illustrated with copper-plates. These works, the former especially, have been highly valued, translated into French and several other languages, and have passed through several editions. In 1716 he was made a canon of Windsor, being at that time chaplain to the prince of Wales, and in 1730 received the degree of D. D. from the university of Oxford by diploma on account of his learning and piety. This great and good man having thus spent his life, making all his researches sub-



servient to the cause of religion, died in 1735 at Upminster.

**DERMODY, THOMAS**, a poet of considerable merit, who was born in Ireland in 1775. He is said to have very early in life displayed great literary talents, but all the efforts of his friends were insufficient to render him any permanent service. When but a mere boy he ran away from his home and enlisted as a common soldier. Having obtained the notice of the marquis of Hastings, that nobleman procured him a commission in the army, but the extravagance of his conduct deprived him of the patronage of his friends, and he ended his days in 1802, near Sydenham in Kent, of a disease brought on entirely by habitual intemperance.

**DERRICK, SAMUEL**.—This rather talented writer was born in 1724 in Ireland, and being intended for trade, he was placed with a linen-draper in Dublin, but, disliking the business, he quitted it and his country about 1751, and commenced author in London. Soon after he arrived at the metropolis he indulged an inclination which he had imbibed for the stage, and appeared in the character of Gloucester in "Jane Shore," but with so little success that he never repeated the experiment. After this attempt he subsisted chiefly by his writings; but being of an expensive disposition, running into the follies and excesses of gallantry and gaming, he lived almost all his time the slave of dependence or the sport of chance. His acquaintance with people of fashion on beau Nash's death procured him at length a more permanent subsistence. He was chosen to succeed that gentleman in his offices of master of the ceremonies at Bath and Tunbridge. By the profits of these he might have been enabled to place himself with economy in a less precarious state; but his want of prudence continued after he was in the possession of a considerable income, by which means he was at the time of his death, which took place in March 1769, as necessitous as he had been at any period of his life. He translated a work from the French of the king of Prussia, called "Sylla," a dramatic entertainment, "A Voyage to the Moon," from the French of Bergerac, "Memoirs of the Count de Beauval," from the French of the marquis d'Argens, "The Third Satire of Juvenal translated into English verse," and he edited an edition of Dryden's poetical works, with a life and notes, a beautifully printed work, which had very little success. In 1759 he published a "View of the Stage," under the name of Wilkes, "The Battle of Lora," a poem, in 1763, "A Collection of Voyages," and several other works, many of which were only compilations.

**DESAGULIERS, JOHN THEOPHILUS**.—This ingenious philosopher was the first person who delivered regular courses of lectures on experimental science in the metropolis. He was born at Rochelle in France in 1683, and brought to England by his father about 1686. After receiving a good classical education at Oxford he settled in Channel Row, Westminster, where he read courses of lectures to large audiences.

On the 29th of July, 1714, Dr. Desaguliers was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, of which he became a very useful member, and was much respected by the president, Sir Isaac Newton. His first paper, which appeared in the "Philosophical Transactions," was published in the 348th number, and contained an account of some experiments of Sir Isaac

Newton on light and colours, which had been repeated by Desaguliers, in order to confirm Sir Isaac's theory. He soon after communicated to the society a method by which myopes might use telescopes without eye-glasses. Of some experiments which he made with Mr. Vilette's burning-glass, in conjunction with Dr. J. Harris, an account was also published in the "Transactions." In 1716 he published a tract, entitled "Fires Improved, being a New Method of Building Chimneys so as to prevent their Smoking."

In the following year he lectured before George I. at Hampton Court, and was rewarded by a living. His lectures which were published shortly afterwards had a very considerable sale, and he continued his meritorious labours till the time of his death, which occurred in 1744.

**DESAIX DE VOYGOUX, LOUIS CHARLES ANTOINE**, a French general, born in 1768, at St. Hilaire d'Ayat, of a noble family, and entered the regiment of Bretagne in 1784 as under-lieutenant. He served in 1794 in the northern army under Pichegru, and repeatedly distinguished himself during that campaign. Attached to the army of the Rhine under Moreau, 1796, he defended the bridge of Kehl in November of that year; and, 1797, he accompanied Bonaparte to Egypt, contributed to his first victory, and was thence sent to the conquest of Upper Egypt, where Murad Bey, notwithstanding his defeat, incessantly harassed his conqueror. Bonaparte soon returned to Europe, as did Desaix himself, after the treaty of El-Arish, concluded by him with the Turks and English. On his arrival in France he learned that Bonaparte had departed for Italy, hastened to join him, and took command of the corps of reserve. A third part of the French army was already disabled when Desaix's corps arrived on the field of Marengo. He immediately advanced to the charge, but fell mortally wounded by a cannon-ball just as victory declared for the French. His body was carried to Milan, embalmed, and conveyed to the hospitation on the St. Bernard, where a monument is erected to him. Another monument, erected to him on the plains of Marengo, where he fell, was destroyed by the Austrians in 1814. Desaix was as just and disinterested as he was brave, in consequence of which the inhabitants of Cairo gave him the title of the *just sultan*.

**DESAULT, PETER JOSEPH**, one of the most celebrated surgeons of France, who was born in 1744, at Magny-Vernais. He was designed for the church, but was led by his inclination to the surgical profession, in consequence of which he entered the military hospital at Befort, where his diligence and talent for observation supplied the defects of a suitable instruction; and his situation was favourable for obtaining a knowledge of the treatment of wounds from fire-arms, in which department he afterwards rose to great eminence. He went to Paris in 1764, and was one of the numerous scholars of the celebrated Petit. Two years afterwards he became a lecturer, and, though his delivery was bad, he soon became celebrated by introducing a new method of teaching anatomy. While lecturing on the parts of the human body, he treated of the diseases incident to each. After having been several years principal surgeon of the hospital *de la charité*, where he increased his reputation by introducing new methods of treatment, or by improving and simplifying those already in use, he was put at the head of the great

*Hôtel-Dieu* in Paris in 1788. Here he founded a surgical school, in which have been educated many of the most eminent surgeons of Europe.

His principal merits were, that he brought accuracy and method into the study of surgery; improved the treatment of fractured bones, by adopting improved bandages; first introduced into France the clinical method of instruction in surgery, and infused into his scholars a generous attachment to their profession. He was distinguished for the skill and boldness with which he performed operations. This happy natural talent, this surgical instinct, that guided him in the most difficult cases, compensated for his want of professional learning, to which he was so indifferent, that, in his latter years, he read very little; and, as he was entirely ignorant of internal diseases, he was indignant when, at the foundation of the *école de santé*, in which he became professor of clinical surgery, the study of medicine and surgery were connected. He died on the 1st of June, 1795, while attending upon the son of Louis XVI. in the Temple, of a violent fever.

DESCARTES, RENE RENATUS CARTESIUS, an original thinker and reformer of philosophy, with whom the modern or new philosophy is often considered as commencing. He was born in 1596 at La Haye in Touraine, and died at Stockholm in 1650. While pursuing his education in the Jesuits' school at La Fleche, where he studied philology, mathematics, and astronomy, his superior intellect manifested itself. After having read much, without coming to any certain conclusions, he travelled. Both his birth and inclination led him to embrace the military profession, and he fought as a volunteer at the siege of Rochelle, and in Holland under Prince Maurice. While he served in Holland, a mathematical problem in Dutch, pasted up in the streets of Breda, met his eye. Not being acquainted with the language, he asked a man who stood near him to translate the problem to him. This man happened to be Professor Beecman, principal of the university of Dort, and himself a mathematician. He smiled at the question of the young officer, and was greatly surprised the next morning to find that he had solved it. From hence Descartes went to Germany, and entered the Bavarian service. His situation, however, afforded him little opportunity for pursuing his favourite studies, he therefore left the army in 1621, and visited Moravia, Silesia, Poland, Pomerania, and the shores of the Baltic. In order to see West Friesland with advantage, he purchased a boat, and embarked with a single valet. The sailors, thinking him a foreign merchant with a large sum of money in his baggage, resolved to kill him. Imagining him ignorant of their language, they conversed of their plan openly. Descartes, seeing his danger, drew his sword, addressed them in their own tongue, and threatened to stab the first man that should offer him violence. The sailors were overawed, and gave up their design. After a variety of travels, he remained in Holland, where he composed most of his writings from 1629 to 1649, drew about him many scholars, and was engaged in many learned controversies, especially with theologians.

His celebrated system abounds in singularities and originalities; but a spirit of independent thought prevails throughout it, and has contributed to excite the same spirit in others. It has done much to give to philosophical inquiries a new direction, and found

many adherents, especially in our own country, France and Germany. Descartes founds his belief of the existence of a thinking being on the consciousness of thought: "I think, therefore I exist." He developed his system with much ingenuity, in opposition to the empiric philosophy of the English and the Aristotelian scholastics, and adopted the rigorous systematical or mathematical method of reasoning. From his system originated the notion that the very existence and certainty of philosophy consists in definition, arguments, and a methodical arrangement of them. The thinking being, says Descartes, or the soul, evidently differs from the body, whose existence consists in space or extension, by its simplicity and immateriality (whence, also, its immortality), and by the freedom that pertains to it. But every perception of the soul is not clear and distinct; it is in a great degree involved in doubt, and is so far an imperfect finite being. This imperfection of its own leads it to the idea of an absolutely perfect being. (He therefore here makes use of the *ontological* proof of the existence of God, in a different manner from that in which Anselm of Canterbury had, somewhat earlier, employed the same; and hence the name of the "Cartesian proof.") He placed at the head of his system the idea of an absolutely perfect being, which he considers as an innate idea, and deduces from it all further knowledge of truth. The principal problems of metaphysics he conceived to be substantiality and causality. He contributed greatly to the advancement of mathematics and physics. He made use of the discoveries and observations of others, defining them accurately, and assigning them their place in his system.

The higher departments of geometry (to which he successfully applied analysis), as well as optics, dioptrics, and mechanics, were greatly extended by him, their method simplified, and the way prepared for the great discoveries made in the sciences by Newton and Leibnitz; for instance, he contributed much to define and illustrate the true law of refraction. His system of the universe attracted great attention in his time, but has been long since exploded. It rests on the strange hypothesis of the heavenly vortices, immense currents of ethereal matter, with which space is filled, and by which he accounted for the motion of the planets. He laboured much to extend the Copernican system of astronomy. Descartes loved independence; he nevertheless suffered himself to be persuaded to go to Stockholm, upon the invitation of Queen Christina, who was very desirous of his society. He died at that place four months after his arrival. His body was carried to Paris in 1666, and interred anew in the church of St. Genevieve du Mont.

DE SERRE, HERCULE, a French minister of state, who was born in 1774. After completing his education he joined the army of the prince of Condé, with whom he remained during several campaigns. He then took up his residence in Germany, but afterwards obtained permission to return to France.

Napoleon appointed him *avocat-général* to the Court of Appeal at Metz, and first president of the Court of Appeal at Hamburg, where he acquired esteem by his integrity, talents, and moderation. He left Hamburg just before the siege in 1813. In 1814 Louis XVIII. appointed him first president of the Court of Appeal at Colmar, and during the hundred days he resided with the king in Ghent.



Being chosen a deputy by the department of the Upper Rhine in 1815, the energy with which he opposed the ultra-royalist majority attracted the attention of the ministry and gained him the confidence of the nation. From 1816 to 1818 he filled the chair of president of the Chamber of Deputies with dignity and impartiality; at the same time he was a member of the committee of legislation in the Council of State. In December 1818 the king appointed him keeper of the seals and minister of justice. He pursued the policy of Decazes, and distinguished himself in 1819 by his defence of the three laws proposed for the regulation of the press, which took the place of the censorship then existing. He also opposed with vigour the change of the law of elections.

Shortly after he separated himself from the *doctrinaires*, whose principles he had hitherto maintained, and supported the proposal of Decazes of February 1820, to change the law of election of 1817. When the excitement of parties in regard to the three projects of the late premier had reached its height, he completed the triumph of the ministry and the moderate right side by advocating the amendments of the proposed new law of election. As the principal supporter of the new law of election in 1820, he was of the greatest service to the royalists, but lost the favour of the liberals. The king created him a count, and bestowed on his son an income of 20,000 francs per annum.

In 1821 De Serre quitted the ministry, and in the following year he was appointed ambassador to the court of Naples, where he died, July 21, 1824.

DESEZE, RAYMOND, the advocate who defended Louis XVI. before the bar of the national convention. His father was a celebrated parliamentary advocate at Bordeaux, in which town Raymond was born in 1750. Deseze studied the law from inclination, and displayed uncommon talents in his profession, and became known to the minister De Vergennes, by his defence of the marchioness D'Anglure. His fame was already established, when he was associated with Malesherbes and Tronchet, in the responsible office of defending Louis XVI. He had only four nights for drawing up the articles of defence, the days being occupied in examining the papers connected with the cause, and in the necessary conversations with his colleagues. Notwithstanding this, his defence was a masterpiece, and the only reproach which can be cast upon Deseze is, that he did not overstep the limits of the advocate, and take the higher ground of a statesman. He survived the reign of terror, and on the return of the Bourbons Deseze was crowned with marks of honour, and appointed first president of the court of cassation and grand-treasurer of the royal order, both of which offices he held for several years.

DESFONTAINES, PIERRE FRANCOIS GUYOT, ABBE, was born at Rouen in 1685, and was one of those French literati who are known to us more from their controversies with Voltaire, and his biting attacks, than from their own productions. Voltaire, by the superiority of his wit, succeeded in gaining many to his opinions; but impartial judges have long agreed that he was not altogether correct, and that the criticisms of the Abbé Desfontaines, though severe, are by no means unjust. One of the works of the Abbé, which had the misfortune to excite the particular displeasure of

the poet, was the well-known "Dictionnaire Nèologique," of which the sixth edition appeared in 1750, and which was intended to guard the purity of the French language, as the great writers of the seventeenth century had formed it; and in this respect it has certainly proved of much service. He died at Paris in 1745.

DESHOULIERES, ANTOINETTE, a French lady of much literary reputation. Her maiden name was Du Ligier de Lagarde, and she resided at Paris from 1638 till 1694. With a prepossessing appearance she combined a distinguished talent for light and agreeable poetry, which she cultivated under the direction of the poet Hainault. She was acquainted with the Latin, Spanish, and Italian languages, and studied philosophy in her later years, during which she had to endure continual sickness. Voltaire was of opinion, that of all the French poets of her sex, she had the greatest merit. Several learned societies elected her a member, and her agreeable manner, her animation and wit, which sometimes, but rarely, gave way to a gentle melancholy, made her the centre of attraction in the best societies at that period. For reasons unknown to us, she was imprisoned for a short period at Brussels, by the Spaniards; but her husband, an officer, procured her deliverance. Her works appeared, together with those of her daughter Antoinette Therese, who also devoted herself to poetry, but with less success, at Paris in 1753, and at Brussels in 1740, under the title "Œuvres de Madame et de Mademoiselle Deshoulières." Frederic II. had a selection of her poems published together with Chailieu's, under the title "Choix des meilleures Pièces de Madame Deshoulières et de l'Abbé de Chaulieu." This selection is but little known.

DESMARES, TOUSSAINT, a celebrated ecclesiastic who was born in 1599. He first studied at Caen, put himself under the direction of Cardinal de Berulle, and entered into his congregation. He afterwards devoted himself to the study of the holy scriptures and the fathers, and became a very celebrated preacher. He was sent to Rome to defend the doctrine of Jansenius, where he pronounced a discourse on that subject before Innocent X. His attachment to the opinion of Jansenius was the cause or the pretext of search being made after him in order to convey him to the Bastille; but he escaped the pursuit, and retired for the rest of his days to the seat of the duke de Liancourt, in the diocese of Beauvais. One day, when Louis XIV. happened to be there, the duke presented Desmares to him. The old man said to the monarch, with an air of respect and freedom, "Sir, I ask a boon of you." "Ask," returned Louis, "and I will grant it you." "Sir," replied the old man, "permit me to put on my spectacles, that I may contemplate the countenance of my king." Louis XIV. declared that of all the variety of compliments that had been paid him, none ever pleased him more than this. Desmares died in 1687, after having composed several works of merit.

DESMOULINS, BENOIT CAMILLE.—This individual was born in 1762, and became conspicuous during the first period of the French revolution. From the commencement of the revolution he was connected with Robespierre, with whom he had studied at college, and from the secret meetings which he had at Mousseaux with the duke of Orleans, it



may be inferred that he was at first only the agent of that prince. He chose the Palais Royal for the usual scene of his citizen-apostleship, and was constantly seen there surrounded by many orators, who, with him, prepared the plan for the taking of the Bastille. After this first triumph he endeavoured to excite the minds of the people by his orations or his publications, and called himself *procureur-général de la lanterne*. He then became one of founders of the club of the Cordeliers, connected himself intimately with Danton, and remained faithful to him. On the flight of Louis XVI. to Varennes, he was one of the instigators of the assembly of the *champ de Mars*, and he was particularly active in the tumult of June 20, 1792, and on the 10th of August. About this time he was secretary to the minister of justice, Danton, and prepared with him the scenes of September. As deputy of Paris, in the national convention, he defended the duke of Orleans in 1793, and he gave his vote for the death of Louis XVI. Robespierre, at the head of the committee of public safety, was making rapid progress towards tyranny. Danton, assisted by the leaders of the Cordeliers, intended to resist this committee, and Camille commenced the attack in his journal "*Le Vieux Cordelier*," in which he declared himself against the terrorists, and even made use of the word clemency. Upon this he was, at the instigation of St. Just, whom Camille had also attacked in his journal, imprisoned on the night of the 31st of May, 1794, together with those who were called his accomplices, and brought before the revolutionary tribunal, and condemned to death, "because he had dishonoured the revolutionary system, and had attempted to re-establish monarchy." He was taken after a violent struggle to the place of execution. His wife, a beautiful, courageous, and spirited woman, desired to share her husband's fate. Robespierre ordered her to the scaffold ten days after Desmoulins' death. During her trial she evinced a wonderful tranquillity, and died with much greater firmness than her husband.

DESPARD, EDWARD MARCUS, an officer in the army, who was born in Ireland, and, in the American war, served in the troops of the line. In 1779 he went to Jamaica, where he acted as an engineer. He afterwards assisted in the capture of the Spanish establishments on the Mosquito shore, of which he was subsequently appointed superintendent. In 1786 some disputes arose in the colony, and he was suspended from his functions. He arrived in Europe in 1790, bringing with him the most honourable testimonies to his conduct; but his applications to government for redress, and for the payment of sums which he claimed as due to him, were unavailing; and the disappointment probably soured his mind. In November 1802 he was arrested as the head of a conspiracy to kill the king and overthrow the government. All the conspirators, except Despard, were persons of the lowest classes, and many of them common soldiers. Their leader and seven of his accomplices were executed. The scheme of Despard was so absurdly arranged, and his means so utterly inadequate to the success of the plot, that some supposed him to be deranged; while others absurdly ascribed the affair to the machinations of Bonaparte, who shortly after declared war against England.

DESSALINES, JEAN JAKES.—This extra-

ordinary individual was a slave in 1791, when the insurrection of the blacks occurred in Hayti. His master was a shingler of houses, and Jean Jacques was bred to the same trade. His talents for war, his enterprise, courage, and unscrupulous conduct, raised him to command among the insurgent negroes; and, when Le Clerc invaded the island in 1802, Dessalines and Christophe stood next in reputation and rank to Toussaint-Louverture. After the deportation of the latter, Dessalines, Christophe, and Clervaux took the command, and maintained a desperate and sanguinary warfare against the French, until the latter evacuated the island. The black chiefs immediately proceeded to proclaim the island independent, restoring its Indian name of Hayti, and nominated Dessalines governor-general for life, with absolute power, who instantly gave full scope to his savage character. He began by ordering a general massacre of the white French, without distinction of age or sex, stimulating the negroes to glut their vengeance for the wrongs they had undergone. In October 1804 he assumed the title and state of emperor of Hayti; and in May ensuing he promulgated a new constitution, containing provisions for permanently organizing the imperial government. His reign, however, was brief; for the people, aided by the troops, sick of his atrocities, and wearied out by his suspicious and vindictive conduct, conspired against his life, and he was killed by one of his soldiers, on the 17th of October, 1806, who thus ended a despotism stained by every enormity.

DESTOUCHES, PHILIPPE NERICAULT, a French comic poet, who was born at Tours in 1680. According to the general opinion, he left his father's house when young, and joined a company of strolling players, among whom he distinguished himself by the propriety of his conduct. Having delivered a harangue at the head of his troop, before M. de Puy-sieux, then ambassador in Switzerland, this statesman was struck with the talent which he displayed, took him into his service, and formed him for diplomacy. According to the account given by the relations of Destouches, who considered the profession of a player dishonourable, he studied with success at Paris, where he devoted himself to poetry; and at the age of twenty entered the army as a volunteer, and was present in several engagements. Having written the comedy called "*Curieux Impertinent*," while in winter quarters, and read it in several societies, M. de Puy-sieux was struck with it, and persuaded the author to turn his talents to diplomacy. In Switzerland he wrote several plays, which met with great applause. By his knowledge of diplomacy he likewise gained the favour of the regent, who sent him to England in 1717, as an assistant to the abbé Dubois.

When Dubois returned to France, Destouches remained in England, where he married. He acquitted himself so well in the business entrusted to him, that the regent promised to give him a proof of his satisfaction which would surprise all France; but upon the death of this prince he lost his protector and his expectations. He retired to his country-seat at Fort-Oiseau, near Melun, and endeavoured to forget the caprice of fortune in the study of philosophy and devotion to the Muses. Cardinal Fleury wished to send him to St. Petersburg as ambassador, but he declined the offer. He died in 1754, leaving a son, who, by order of Louis XV., superintended the pub-



lication of his works. After Molière and Regnard, Destouches is considered the best French writer in the department of comedy. His comedies "Le Glorieux" and "Le Philosophe Marié" are considered among the best French works of their class. But, as he made the comic effect subordinate to the moral, his productions have something of the character of sentimental comedy (*la comédie larmoyante*). He excels most in the drawing of character, and exhibits a fertile imagination, pleasing wit, elegance, vivacity, and decorum.

DEVEREUX, ROBERT.—This celebrated earl of Essex was born in 1567, and educated at Cambridge. In his seventeenth year he was introduced at court, and in 1586 distinguished himself at the battle of Zutphen, so as to be created a knight bannérét, and on his return became master of the horse. The queen assembling her army at Tilbury, to resist the Spanish invasion, Essex was appointed general of the horse and received the order of the garter. In 1591 he was sent with 4000 men to the assistance of Henry IV., then fighting against the league, but effected nothing of consequence. He, however, retained the queen's favour, was soon after created a privy counsellor, in 1596 was appointed joint commander with Lord Howard in a successful expedition to the coast of Spain, and on his return was made master-general of the ordnance.

On the breaking out of the rebellion of Tyrone Essex was appointed governor of Ireland. He attempted to quell a rebellion at Munster before he proceeded against Tyrone, which so much reduced his army that, not being able to meet the Irish leader, he entered into a negotiation. These transactions displeased the queen, and several sharp letters passed, which determined him to confront his enemies at home. He accordingly left Ireland, contrary to orders, and hastened to the court, without changing his dress, where, finding the queen in her bed-chamber, he fell upon his knees, and was received better than he expected. He was, however, soon after strictly examined by the council, and deprived of all his employments but that of master of the horse.

He might, however, have regained the queen's favour had not her refusal to renew to him a monopoly of sweet wines so irritated him that he indulged himself in freedoms of speech concerning her which she could never forget. He also carried on a secret correspondence with the king of Scotland, the object of which was to procure a public declaration of his right of succession to the English throne; and he would have engaged his friend Lord Mountjoy, deputy of Ireland, to bring over troops to compel this measure. He then entered into a conspiracy to seize on the queen's person, remove his enemies, and settle a new plan of government. Believing that this was discovered, he endeavoured to raise the city of London in his favour: here, however, he was disappointed; for, instead of meeting with friends, he was proclaimed a traitor, and the streets were barricaded against his return. He was soon invested by the queen's forces, and obliged to surrender at discretion. He was committed to the Tower with the earl of Southampton, his chief adherent, and a jury of peers was appointed for their trial. Being found guilty, he received his sentence like a man prepared for his fate. The queen long hesitated as to signing the warrant for his execution, but, being persuaded by his enemies that he wished to die, and interpreting

his silence into obstinacy, at length signed it; and the earl was executed within the Tower on the 25th of February, 1601. In the height of his favour he had received a ring from the queen, as a pledge, on the return of which she would pardon any offence he might commit. This ring he is said to have entrusted to the countess of Nottingham, his relation, but the wife of his enemy, the admiral, who would not suffer her to deliver it to the queen, and thereby the proffered clemency was frustrated. The countess, on her death-bed, having confessed the secret to the queen, the latter was greatly agitated, and told her "that God might forgive her, but she never could." Essex was rash, violent, and presumptuous, but at the same time brave, generous, and affectionate.

DEVEREUX, ROBERT, earl of Essex, was born in 1592. He was entered at Merton College in his tenth year, and in 1603 King James restored him to his hereditary honours. He was betrothed at the age of fourteen to Lady Frances Howard, but the marriage was not consummated until his return from his travels. The affections of the young countess had in the mean time been gained by James's unworthy favourite, Carr, earl of Somerset; the consequence of which was a scandalous suit against the earl of Essex for impotency. A divorce followed, and the lady married Somerset. On the accession of Charles I. the earl was employed as vice-admiral in an expedition against Spain, and after a second marriage, in which the conduct of the lady rendered a divorce necessary, he dedicated himself solely to public life. In 1635 he was second in command of a fleet equipped against France and Holland, and in 1639 was made lieutenant-general of the army sent against the Scottish rebels. His services were coldly received until, in 1641, popular measures being thought necessary, he was made lord chamberlain. At this time such was his popularity, that both parties strenuously sought to gain him: the king made him lieutenant-general of all his armies south of the Trent, the House of Lords made him chairman of their standing committee, and, when the people became tumultuous, the House of Commons requested a guard under his command.

When the king retired from the capital he required his household nobles to attend him, which Essex declining to do, was deprived of his employments. This step fixed him in opposition, and in 1642 he accepted the command of the parliamentary army. He probably imagined the contest might be terminated without any radical change of government, as he always seemed attached to the principles of the constitution. He commanded at the battle of Edgehill, captured Reading, raised the siege of Gloucester, and fought the first battle of Newbury. His want of success in 1644 in the west, and the inclination he showed for peace, began at length to lower his interest with the parliamentary party; and the self-denying ordinance throwing him out of command, he resigned his commission with visible discontent. He died suddenly in September 1646, and was buried in Westminster Abbey with a public funeral.

DE WITT, JOHN, grand-pensioner of Holland, a celebrated statesman, who was the son of Jacob De Witt, burgomaster of Dort, and was born in 1625. John De Witt inherited from his father republican principles and a hatred to the house of Orange. After having carefully cultivated his talents he entered into the service of his country, and was one of

the deputies sent by the states of Holland to Zealand in 1652 to dissuade that province from conferring the office of captain-general on the young prince of Orange, William III., who was but two years old. His eloquence procured him universal confidence; but to preserve this was almost impossible during the dissensions which raged in the states-general. One party was anxious, during the war between England and Holland, to have all power and honours conferred on Prince William III.; the other, with De Witt at its head, endeavoured to withdraw all authority from this prince and entirely to abolish the stadtholdership. In the meantime the war with England, sometimes fortunate, sometimes adverse, was injurious to commerce, and excited the displeasure of the nation against the latter party, of which excitement the Orange party took advantage to effect their purposes, until in 1654 the former concluded a peace with Cromwell with the secret condition that the house of Orange should be excluded from all situations of authority. By this treaty the republican party was victorious, and De Witt, as grand-pensioner, employed the time of peace in healing the wounds under which the state was suffering. When Charles II. again took possession of the crown of England De Witt inclined to the side of France, which inclination became more powerful when in 1665 the war recommenced between England and the states-general. The bishop of Münster likewise taking arms against the latter, the discontent of the people against De Witt became so great that he was compelled, in order to pacify them, to give up some privileges to the prince of Orange, and to conclude peace with England in 1667.

To increase the danger of De Witt's situation, Louis XIV. now began to manifest his intentions with regard to the Spanish Netherlands, and the Orange party insisted on elevating Prince William to the dignity of his ancestors. De Witt succeeded in separating the offices of stadtholder and captain-general, and provided that, in Holland at least, he should be entirely excluded from the latter; but the number of De Witt's enemies increased, and he was obliged to conclude an alliance with England and Sweden against France, which produced the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle but was as quickly dissolved as it had been formed. Louis XIV., now united with England, invaded the Spanish Netherlands, and William's friends succeeded in procuring for him the oost of commander-in-chief. The first campaign was unfortunate in its results, which were imputed to De Witt and his friends. The life of the former was endangered. William was nominated stadtholder by universal consent, and De Witt resigned his employments. But the disposition of the people was little changed by this voluntary act, nor was the hatred of the Orange party satisfied. His brother Cornelius was accused of having attempted to assassinate the prince. He was imprisoned and put to the rack; but, as he would not confess any such design, he was banished from the country and his property confiscated. Hearing that his brother wished to speak to him while in prison, John De Witt hastened thither, when a tumult suddenly arose among the people at the Hague. The militia could not disperse the mob, the greater number of the officers being devoted to the prince. The people broke into the prison, and both brothers fell victims to their rage on the 20th of August 1672. The states demanded

an investigation of this affair, and the punishment of the murderers, from the stadtholder, which, however, never took place. That the opinions of De Witt's contemporaries respecting him did not agree, may well be supposed; but all acquitted him of treason against his country. He fell a victim to party spirit, nor could the friends of the house of Orange accuse him of any other crime than that of not belonging to their party, and of aiming to elevate his own party at their expense. De Witt was an active political writer, and has left many excellent observations on the events of his time.

DEXTER, SAMUEL, an eminent American lawyer and statesman, who was born at Boston in 1761. His father was a distinguished merchant and a benefactor of Harvard College. The son was graduated at that institution in 1781 with its first honours, and then engaged in the study of the law. He had not been long at the bar before he was elected to the state legislature, from which he was transferred to congress, first to the house of representatives, and then to the senate. He was in congress during a period of strong party excitement, and succeeded in gaining much influence and honour by the force of his talents and character, proving himself an enlightened politician and superior orator. The president Adams made him, successively, secretary of war and of the treasury. He discharged these offices in a masterly manner. Towards the end of Mr. Adams's administration he was offered a foreign embassy, but declined it. When Mr. Jefferson became president, he resigned his public employments and returned to the practice of the law. In 1815 President Madison requested him to accept an extraordinary mission to the court of Spain, but he declined the offer. For many years he continued to display extraordinary powers in his profession, having no superior, and scarcely a rival, before the supreme court at Washington, in which he appeared every winter in cases of the highest importance. On his return from that capital in the spring of 1816 he became ill at Athens, in the state of New York, and died there on the 4th of May, 1816. Mr. Dexter was tall and well formed, with strong features and a muscular frame. His eloquence was that of clear exposition, and cogent, philosophical reasoning; his delivery in general simple, and his enunciation monotonous; but he often expressed himself with signal energy and beauty, and always gave evidence of uncommon power. In the party divisions of the American republic he held at first the post of an acknowledged leader among the federalists: eventually, however, he separated himself from his colleagues on some questions of primary interest and magnitude.

DIANA OF POITIERS, DUCHESS OF VALENTINOIS.—This female was born in 1499. She was the mistress of King Henry II. of France, and descended from the noble family of Poitiers in Dauphiny. At an early age she married the grand-seneschal of Normandy, Louis de Brezé, became a widow at the age of thirty, and some time after the mistress of the young duke of Orleans. When the duke became dauphin a violent hostility arose between Diana and the duchess of Etampes, mistress of Francis I., who taunted her rival with her age. Diana satisfied her revenge by banishing the duchess on the accession of Henry II. to the throne in 1547, in whose name she ruled with unlimited power. Till his death in 1559 she exercised such an absolute



empire over the king, by the charms of her wit and grace, that her superstitious contemporaries ascribed her power to magic. Upon his death she retired to her castle of Anet, where she established a charitable institution for the support of twelve widows, and died in 1566.

**DIBDIN, CHARLES**, a dramatic manager, poet, composer, and actor, of considerable merit, who was born in 1748. At the age of fifteen he made his appearance on the stage, and was early distinguished as a composer. He excited uncommon admiration, and soon gained friends and a sufficient support. He invented a new kind of entertainment, consisting of music, songs, and public declamations, which he wrote, sung, composed, and performed himself, and by this means succeeded in amusing the public for twenty years. His patriotic songs were very popular, and his sea songs are still the favourites of the British navy. Their favourable influence on the lower classes obtained him a pension of 200*l.* from government. Improvidence, however, kept him constantly poor, and he died in 1814.

**DICKINSON, JOHN**, an eminent American political writer, was born in Maryland in December 1732, and educated in Delaware, to which province his parents removed soon after his birth. He was elected to the legislature of Pennsylvania, in which his superior qualifications as a speaker and a man of business gave him considerable influence, and the attempts of the mother country upon the liberties of the colonies early awakened his attention. His first elaborate publication against the new policy of the British cabinet was printed at Philadelphia in 1765, and entitled, "The Late Regulations respecting the British Colonies on the Continent of America Considered." In that year he was deputed by Pennsylvania to attend the first congress held at New York, and prepared the draft of the bold resolutions of that congress. In 1766 he published a spirited address on the same question to a committee of correspondence in Barbadoes.

In 1774 Mr. Dickinson wrote the resolves of the committee of Pennsylvania, and their instructions to their representatives. These instructions formed a profound and extensive essay on the constitutional power of Great Britain over the colonies in America, and in that shape they were published by the committee. While in congress, he wrote the "Address to the Inhabitants of Quebec," "The First Petition to the King," the "Address to the Armies," the "Second Petition to the King," and the "Address to the several States," all among the ablest state-papers of the time. As an orator he had few superiors in that body. He penned the celebrated "Declaration of the United Colonies of North America, July 6, 1775; but he opposed the declaration of independence, believing that compromise was still practicable, and that his countrymen were not yet ripe for a complete separation from Great Britain. This rendered him for a time so unpopular, that he withdrew from the public councils, and did not recover his seat in congress until about two years afterwards. His zeal was shown in the ardent address of congress to the several states of May 1779, which he wrote and reported. He was afterwards president of the states of Pennsylvania and Delaware, successively; and in the beginning of 1788, being alarmed by the hesitation of some states to ratify the constitution proposed by the federal convention the year before, he published, for the purpose of promoting its adoption, nine very

able letters, under the signature of "Fabius." This signature he again used in several letters published in 1797, the object of which was to produce a favourable feeling in the United States towards France, whose revolution he believed to be then at an end. Before the period last mentioned, he had withdrawn to private life, at Wilmington, in the state of Delaware, where he died in February 1808. His retirement was spent in literary studies, in charitable offices, and the exercise of an elegant hospitality.

**DIDEROT, DENYS.**—This talented writer was born in 1713 at Langres in Champagne, and educated in the school of the Jesuits, who intended to make him one of their order. His father intended that he should pursue the profession of law, and committed him to the instruction of a Paris attorney, but the youth found greater attractions in literature. Neither the indignation of his father, nor his consequent want of means, could deter him from his favourite pursuit, and he found resources in his own talents. He applied himself zealously to mathematics, physics, metaphysics, and the belles-lettres, and soon became distinguished among the wits of the capital. He laid the foundation of his fame by his "Pensées Philosophiques" in 1746, a pamphlet against the Christian religion, which found many readers, and in consequence of which he was imprisoned at Vincennes; the parliament caused it to be burned by the public executioner. The applause which this pamphlet received encouraged him to continue in the same course; he was not bold enough, however, to continue this particular work. In his "Lettres sur Sourds et Muets, à l'Usage de ceux qui entendent et qui parlent," he treats of the origin of our perceptions. In conjunction with Eidous and Toussaint, he published the "Dictionnaire Universel de Médecine." The success of this work, notwithstanding its deficiencies, determined him to undertake an encyclopædia. He prepared the plan, and was assisted in the execution by D'Aubenton, Rousseau, Marmonet, Le Blond, Le Monnier, and particularly D'Alembert, who, next to him, had the largest share in this great undertaking. Diderot took upon himself the preparation of the articles relating to the arts and trades, and, by his care as editor, supplied many of the deficiencies of his coadjutors. The profit of his twenty years' labour, owing to his bad management, was so trifling that he found himself compelled to sacrifice his library. The empress of Russia purchased it for 50,000 livres, and allowed him the use of it for life. After this Diderot visited Petersburg, but having offended the empress by an equivocal quatrain he soon returned to France. While engaged in the encyclopædia, and obliged to encounter many obstacles which delayed the printing for several years, he published a lively but licentious romance, "Les Bijoux Indiscrets," and two sentimental comedies, "Le Fils Naturel" and "Le Père de Famille." They are often printed under the title "Théâtre de Diderot," and accompanied with a treatise on the dramatic art, which contains many ingenious observations. Diderot died in 1784.

His character has been very differently represented. His friends describe him as open, disinterested, and honest; his enemies, on the contrary, accuse him of cunning and selfishness. Towards the end of his life he had a quarrel with Rousseau, by whom he thought himself calumniated, in which much weakness was displayed on both sides. His

works are deficient in plan and connexion, and disfigured with pretension, obscurity, and arrogance; but, nevertheless, are characterized by energy, and sometimes even by eloquence. They contain many happy passages and truths which would be more effectual if more simply stated. As a philosopher, he followed the dictates of an intemperate imagination, rather than those of a sound reason. He is always enthusiastic, and oversteps the bounds of discretion. The general opinion entertained respecting him at present is, that he had much talent, and was capable of warmth and elevation of feeling, but that he was deficient in judgment and morality.

DIEMEN, ANTHONY VAN, a celebrated governor-general of the Dutch East Indies, who was born in 1593. Having been unsuccessful as a merchant, and pressed by his creditors, he went to India, where his excellent penmanship procured him the place of a clerk, and he speedily rose to the highest dignity. He administered the duties of governor with great ability, and contributed much to the establishment of the Dutch commerce in India. Abel Tasman, whom he sent with a vessel to the South Seas in 1642, gave the name of Van Diemen's Land to a country long regarded as a part of New Holland, but since found to be an island; he likewise discovered New Zealand. Another navigator, whom he sent out, made discoveries in the ocean north of Japan, which have been confirmed by voyages in our days. A part of the north-western portion of New Holland, which is also called Van Diemen's Land, was probably discovered later; perhaps also by Tasman. Van Diemen died in 1645.

DIETRICH, JOHN WILLIAM ERNEST, an eccentric German painter, who was born in 1712. His father, John George, was also a skilful painter, and instructed his son till he was twelve years old, when he sent him to Dresden and placed him under the care of Alexander Thiele. The picture of a peasant drinking, in the Dutch style, executed by Dietrich while a boy, is in the Royal Cabinet of Engravings at Dresden. He successfully imitated Raphael and Mieris, Correggio and Ostade. In the Dresden Gallery there are more than thirty of them. Some of his designs are in the Cabinet of Engravings in that place, and some in private collections. He died in 1774.

DIETSCH, BARBARA REGINA, a distinguished female painter of the celebrated family of artists of that name. She was born at Nuremburg in 1716, and died in 1783. Notwithstanding many invitations to different courts, which her talents procured her, she preferred to remain in the modest obscurity of private life. Her sister, Margaret Barbara, was born in 1726, and died in 1795. She painted flowers and birds with great beauty.

DIEZ, JUAN, or JOHN MARTIN, a Spanish partisan officer, distinguished for his conduct during the French invasions of his native country. He was the son of a peasant, and born in the district of Valladolid, in Old Castile, in 1775. On the proclamation of war against France, after the revolution, he again entered the army, as a private in the Spanish dragoons. He served till the restoration of peace, when he returned home, married, and resumed his agricultural employment. Patriotism and a love of enterprise drew him from his peaceful labours on the invasion of the territory of Spain by Napoleon, and in 1808 he placed himself at the head of a party of

four or five of his neighbours, and commenced hostilities against the enemy, killing their couriers, and thus obtaining a supply of horses, arms, and ammunition. After the atrocities committed by the French at Madrid, in May 1808, a spirit of resentment was excited in the country, and Martin procuring associates, prosecuted his system of annoyance and extermination against the French. At this period he acquired the appellation of *el Empecinado*, from the darkness of his complexion. With the increase of his band he extended his operations, and, besetting the roads, intercepted the couriers of the enemy, seized their convoys, and harassed their small parties.

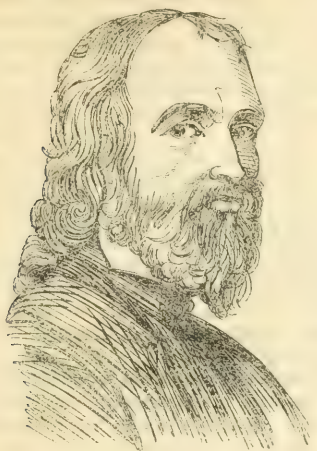
At first he neither gave nor expected quarter; but at length finding himself at the head of forty-eight well-armed men, he no longer pursued that barbarous practice. In September 1809, with 170 men all mounted, he passed into the province of Guadaluara to check the inroads of the enemy, and he was afterwards employed under the orders of the commander-in-chief of the second army, and the value of his services being appreciated, he was at length made a brigadier-general of cavalry. The French troops sent against him were almost uniformly defeated; but on one occasion he was overpowered, and only escaped falling into their hands by leaping down a dangerous precipice. He attended the duke of Wellington in triumph to Madrid after the expulsion of the French; and some time after received his commands to join the second army in the neighbourhood of Tortosa, at the head of 4850 men, horse and foot. All the services of this brave officer, during the war which preceded the restoration of Ferdinand, could not atone for the crime of opposing the invasion of the liberties of Spain after the return of that prince. The *Empecinado* had laid down his arms on the faith of a treaty, notwithstanding which he was seized and executed at Rueda, on the 19th August, 1825, with circumstances of insulting cruelty highly disgraceful to his persecutors. As the originator of that system of desultory warfare which contributed much to the expulsion of the invading army from Spain, Diez has strong claims to notice. His natural talents were not assisted by education, as he could write no more than his name; his manners were rude, and his temper violent; yet he was partial to the society of well-informed persons, and disposed to attend to their advice; while, with the greatness of mind which characterizes conscious worth, he never scrupled to acknowledge his humble origin, or the limited sphere of his information.

DIGBY, LORD GEORGE, son of John, earl of Bristol, was born during his father's embassy to Madrid in 1612. He distinguished himself much while at Magdalen College, Oxford, and, in the beginning of the long parliament, opposed the court, but seceded from the opposition on the measures against the earl of Strafford. He then distinguished himself as warmly on the side of the king, and was made secretary of state in 1643. After the death of Charles he was excepted from pardon by the parliament, and was obliged to live in exile until the restoration, when he was made knight of the garter. He wrote a comedy called "*Elvira*," and also letters to his cousin, Sir Kenelm Digby, against popery, although he ended by becoming a Catholic himself.

DIGBY, SIR KENELM, the eldest son of the unfortunate Sir Everard Digby, was born at Gothurst



in Buckinghamshire in 1603. He was educated in the Protestant religion, and entered at Gloucester Hall, Oxford. On his return from his travels he



brought back with him a recipe for making a sympathetic powder for the cure of wounds, being much addicted to the philosophy which employed itself in alchemy and occult qualities. On the accession of Charles I. he was created a gentleman of the bed-chamber, a commissioner of the navy, and a governor of the Trinity-House. He soon after fitted out a small squadron, at his own expense, to cruise against the Algerines and Venetians, and obtained some advantages over the shipping of both of those powers. He returned with a great increase of reputation, and having a good address and a graceful elocution, with a fine person and an imposing manner, he made a considerable figure.

On the breaking out of the civil war, he was committed prisoner to Winchester House, where he amused himself by writing observations on the "Religio Medici" of Sir Thomas Browne, and on the ninth canto of the "Fairy Queen," in which Spenser has introduced some mysterious matter in regard to numbers. Being liberated, he passed into France and visited Descartes. In 1646 he printed at Paris his own philosophical system in two works, entitled a "Treatise on the Nature of Bodies," and a "Treatise on the Nature and Operation of the Soul." All these treatises are written in the spirit of the corpuscular philosophy, which they support with more learning and ingenuity than solidity or force. After the ruin of the royal cause, he returned to his native country to compound for his estate but was not allowed to remain. He resided in the south of France in 1656 and 1657, and produced at Montpellier a "Discourse on the Cure of Wounds by Sympathy." On the restoration he returned to England, became a member of the Royal Society, and was much visited by men of science. He married a lady who was highly distinguished for beauty, and in other respects almost as singular as himself. Of this lady, Venetia Digby, a great many pictures and busts are extant; but she died while young. Sir Kenelm died in 1665.

**DILLENIUS, JOHN JAMES.**—This learned botanist was born in 1687 at Darmstadt, and distinguished for his investigations into the propaga-

tion of plants, particularly cryptogamous plants. In compliance with the invitation of a rich botanist, William Sherard, in 1721 he came to England, where he spent part of his time in London, and part at his friend's country-seat in Eltham. Here he published several works, and particularly that splendid production which appeared in 1732, "*Hortus Elthamensis*," in which the drawings, prepared by himself, are distinguished by the greatest faithfulness. His last work on the mosses added much to his reputation. Sherard founded a professorship of botany in the university of Oxford for his friend, who died there in 1747.

**DILLON, WENTWORTH**, earl of Roscommon.—This nobleman, who stands so high among the poets of his country, was born in Ireland in 1633, but received his early education at the seat of his uncle, Lord Strafford, in Yorkshire. He was afterwards removed to the protestant university of Caen in Normandy, where he was placed under the care of the celebrated Bochart. At the restoration of Charles II. he returned to England, where he was graciously received by Charles II. and made captain of the band of pensioners. In the gaieties of that age he was tempted to indulge a violent passion for gaming, by which he frequently hazarded his life in duels, and exceeded the bounds of a moderate fortune. A dispute with the lord privy seal, about part of his estate, obliged him to revisit his native country, where he resigned his post in the English court; and, soon after his arrival at Dublin, the duke of Ormond appointed him captain of the guards. However, he still retained the same fatal affection for gaming; and, this engaging him in adventures, he was near being assassinated one night by three ruffians, who attacked him in the dark, but defended himself with so much resolution that he dispatched one of them, while a gentleman coming up disarmed another, and the third secured himself by flight. This generous assistant was a disbanded officer, of a good family and fair reputation, but whose circumstances were such that he wanted even clothes to appear decently at the castle. Lord Roscommon, on this occasion, presenting him to the duke of Ormond, obtained his grace's leave to resign to him his post of captain of the guards, which for about three years the gentleman enjoyed; and upon his death the duke returned the commission to his generous benefactor.

The pleasures of the English court, and the friendships he had there contracted, were powerful motives for his return to London. Soon after he came he was made master of the horse to the duchess of York, and married the lady Frances, eldest daughter of the earl of Burlington, and widow of Colonel Courtney. He began now to distinguish himself by his poetry and about this time formed a design, in conjunction with his friend Dryden, for refining and fixing the standard of our language. But this was entirely defeated by the religious commotions that were then increasing daily; at which time the earl took a resolution to pass the remainder of his life at Rome. Before, however, he was able to carry this resolution into effect he was seized with the gout, and trusted the cure of it to a French empiric, who is said to have repelled the disease into his bowels. At the moment in which he expired he uttered, with an energy of voice that expressed the most fervent devotion, two lines of his own version of "*Dies Iræ*:"

"My God, my Father, and my Friend,  
Do not forsake me in my end."

He died on the 17th of January 1684, and was buried with great pomp in Westminster Abbey.

"In the writings of this nobleman we view," says Fenton, "the image of a mind naturally serious and solid, richly furnished and adorned with all the ornaments of art and science, and those ornaments unaffectedly disposed in the most regular and elegant order. His imagination might probably have been more fruitful if his judgment had been less severe; but that severity contributed to make him so eminent in the didactical manner, that no man, with justice, can affirm he was ever equalled by any of our nation without confessing at the same time that he is inferior to none. In some other kinds of writing his genius seems to have wanted fire to attain the point of perfection; but who can attain it? He was a man of an amiable composition, as well as a good poet; as Pope, in his 'Essay on Criticism,' has testified in the following lines:—

"—Roscommon not more learn'd than good,  
With manners generous as his noble blood;  
To him the wit of Greece and Rome was known,  
And every author's merit but his own."

DIMSDALE, THOMAS, a celebrated physician and inoculator, who was born in 1712. After being regularly educated to the profession of physic, he settled at Hertford, where he married the daughter of an eminent London banker, who died in 1744. To relieve his mind from the affliction which her loss occasioned, he joined the medical staff of the duke of Cumberland's army then on its way to suppress the rebellion in Scotland. In this situation he remained until the surrender of Carlisle to the king's forces, when he received the duke's thanks and returned to Hertford. In 1746 he married Anne Iles, a relation of his first wife, and by her fortune, and that which he acquired by the death of the widow of Sir John Dimsdale of Hertford, he was enabled to retire from practice; but his family becoming numerous, he resumed it, and took the degree of M.D. in 1761.

Having fully satisfied himself about the new method of treating persons under inoculation, he published his treatise on the subject in 1766, which was soon circulated over the continent and translated into all languages. His particular opinions may be learned from the conclusion, in which he says that, "although the whole process may have some share in the success, it consists chiefly in the method of inoculating with recent fluid matter, and the management of the patients at the time of eruption." This proof of his professional knowledge occasioned his being invited to inoculate the empress Catherine of Russia and her son in 1768, of which he gives a very particular and interesting account in his "Tracts on Inoculation" printed in 1781.

Never, perhaps, did the empress display her courage and good sense to more advantage than in submitting to an operation of which she could have no experience in her own country, and where at that time it was the subject of uncommon dread and alarm. Nor was her liberal conduct towards Dr. Dimsdale less praiseworthy. He was immediately appointed actual counsellor of state and physician to her imperial majesty, with an annuity of 500*l.*, the rank of a baron of the Russian empire, to descend to his eldest son, and a black wing of the Russian eagle in a gold shield in the middle of his arms, with the

customary helmet, adorned with the baron's coronet over the shield. He also received at the same time the sum of 10,000*l.*, and 2000*l.* for travelling charges, and miniature pictures of the empress and her son, &c. The baron now inoculated great numbers of people at Petersburg and Moscow, but resisted the empress's invitation to reside as her physician in Russia. He and his son were afterwards admitted to a private audience with Frederick III., king of Prussia, at Sans Souci, and thence returned to England, and for some time the baron resumed practice at Hertford. In 1776 he published "Thoughts on general and partial Inoculation," and two years after, "Observations on the Introduction to the plan of the Dispensary for General Inoculation." This involved him in a controversy with Dr. Lettsom, in which he opposed the above plan for inoculating the poor at their own houses; and opened an inoculation-house, under his own direction, for persons of all ranks in the neighbourhood of Hertford, which was resorted to with success.

Baron Dimsdale afterwards opened a banking-house in Cornhill, in partnership with his sons and the Barnards. In 1779 he lost his second wife, by whom he had seven children, and afterwards married Elizabeth, daughter of William Dimsdale of Bishops-Stortford, who survived him. In 1780 he was elected representative for the borough of Hertford, and from that period declined all practice except for the relief of the poor. He went however once more to Russia in 1781, where he inoculated the emperor and his brother; and as he passed through Brussels, the late emperor of Germany, Joseph, received him with great condescension. In 1790 he resigned his seat in parliament and passed some winters at Bath; but at length took up his residence altogether at Hertford, where he died in December 1800. His remains were interred in the Friends' burying-ground at Bishops-Stortford. His family were originally Quakers.

DIOCLETIAN, VALERIUS, surnamed JOVIUS.—This celebrated Roman emperor was proclaimed by the army A.D. 284. He was successful against his enemies, defeated Carinus in Moesia, conquered the Allemanni, and was generally beloved for the goodness of his disposition. But new troubles and attacks disturbed the Roman empire, and compelled him to share the burden of government with colleagues; at first he selected Valerius Maximian, an ambitious and cruel soldier, who defeated the Gauls. Diocletian at the same time was successful against the Persians in the East, and afterwards penetrated to the sources of the Danube in Germany. He subsequently named Galerius, Cæsar, and Maximian raised Constantius Chlorus to the same dignity. Thus the empire was divided into four parts. Diocletian recovered Egypt, and, as long as he preserved his influence, the unanimity continued; but he resigned the imperial dignity at Nicomedia, as did Maximian at Milan, at the same time. Diocletian retired to Salona in Dalmatia, where he found happiness in the cultivation of his garden, and lived in tranquillity until the year 313. He founded the absolute power which was more firmly established by the family of Constantine.

DIODATI, JOHN, an eminent divine, who was born at Lucca about the year 1589, of a noble catholic family; but, embracing the protestant faith early in life, he removed to Geneva, where he made such rapid progress in his studies, that, at the age of



nineteen he was appointed professor of Hebrew in that city. Some time afterwards he was made professor of theology; and in 1619 was deputed with his colleague, Theodore Tronchin, to represent the Genevan clergy at the synod of Dort; and his abilities were so much respected by that synod, that he was one of the six ministers appointed to draw up the Belgic confession of faith, which was intended to secure the professors of the reformed religion in Holland within the pale of pure and unadulterated Calvinism.

Diodati is most celebrated for a translation of the Bible into Italian, faithful and elegant, but perhaps too paraphractical; and his notes appear rather like the serious meditations of a divine than the judicious reflections of a critic. He also translated the Bible into French, but is not thought to have succeeded so well in this as in the Italian. Diodati died in 1649 at Geneva.

DIODORUS of Argyrium in Sicily, and therefore called Siculus, a celebrated historian, who lived in the time of Julius Cæsar and Augustus. In order to render his history as complete and exact as possible, he travelled through the principal part of Europe and Asia. It is very much to be regretted, that the greater part of this history, which the author called the "Historical Library," in the composition of which he combined the ornaments of rhetoric with the detail of facts after the example of Theopompus and Ephorus, and on which he had bestowed the labour of thirty years, has not reached our times. It consisted of forty books, was written with the greatest care, and comprised the history of almost all nations.

DIODENES of Sinope.—This celebrated Cynic flourished in the fourth century B. C. Having been banished from his native place with his father, who had been accused of coining false money, he went to Athens, and requested Antisthenes to admit him among his disciples. That philosopher attempted to repel the importunate supplicant, even by blows, but finally granted his request. Diogenes devoted himself with the greatest diligence to the lessons of his master, whose doctrines he extended still further. For he not only, like Antisthenes, despised all philosophical speculations, and opposed the corrupt morals of his time, but also carried the application of his doctrines in his own person to the extreme. The stern austerity of Antisthenes was repulsive; but Diogenes exposed the follies of his contemporaries with wit and good humour, and was therefore better adapted to be the censor and instructor of the people, though he really accomplished little in the way of reforming them. At the same time he applied, in its fullest extent, his principle of divesting himself of all superfluities. He taught that a wise man, in order to be happy, must endeavour to preserve himself independent of fortune, of men, and of himself: in order to do this, he must despise riches, power, honour, arts and sciences, and all the enjoyments of life. He endeavoured to exhibit in his own person a model of Cynic virtue. For this purpose he subjected himself to the severest trials and disregarded all the forms of polite society.

He often struggled to overcome his appetite or satisfied it with the coarsest food, practised the most rigid temperance, even at feasts, in the midst of the greatest abundance, and did not even consider it beneath his dignity to ask alms. By day he walked

through the streets of Athens barefoot, without any coat, with a long beard, a stick in his hand, and a wallet on his shoulders. He defied the inclemency of the weather, and bore the scoffs and insults of the people with the greatest equanimity. Seeing a boy draw water with his hand, he threw away his wooden goblet as an unnecessary utensil. He never spared the follies of men, but openly and loudly inveighed against vice and corruption, attacking them with satire and irony. The people, and even the higher classes, heard him with pleasure, and tried their wit upon him. When he made them feel his superiority they often had recourse to abuse, by which, however, he was little moved. He rebuked them for expressions and actions which violated decency and modesty, and therefore it is not credible that he was guilty of the excesses with which his enemies have reproached him, as his rudeness offended the laws of good breeding rather than the principles of morality.

Many anecdotes, however, related of this singular person are mere fictions. On a voyage to the island of Ægina he fell into the hands of pirates, who sold him as a slave to the Corinthian Xenias in Crete. The latter emancipated him, and entrusted him with the education of his children. He attended to the duties of his new employment with the greatest care, commonly living in summer at Corinth and in winter at Athens. It was at the former place that Alexander is said to have found him on the road-side basking in the sun, and, astonished at the indifference with which the ragged beggar regarded him, entered into conversation with him, and finally gave him permission to ask for a boon. "I ask nothing," answered the philosopher, "but that thou wouldst get out of my sun-shine." Surprised at this proof of content, the king is said to have exclaimed, "Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes." At another time he was carrying a lantern through the streets of Athens in the day-time: on being asked what he was looking for, he answered, "I am seeking a good man." Thinking he had found, in the Spartans, the greatest capacity for becoming such men as he wished, he said, "Men I have found nowhere; but children, at least, I have seen at Lacedæmon." Being asked, "What is the most dangerous animal?" his answer was, "Among wild animals, the slanderer; among tame, the flatterer." He died B. C. 324, at a great age. When he felt death approaching, he seated himself on the road leading to Olympia, where he died with philosophical calmness in the presence of a great number of people who were collected around him.

Another philosopher of the same name, who lived earlier, and belonged to the Ionian school, was Diogenes of Apollonia. He considered air as the element of all things. He lived at Athens in the fifth century B. C.

DION of Syracuse.—This celebrated individual, who acquired immortal glory in the history of that state, lived in the times of the two kings who bore the name of Dionysius. He was related to them, and long exercised great influence over them. He attempted to reform the tyrannical disposition of the younger Dionysius by the precepts of philosophy, but his enemies succeeded in rendering him suspected by the king and in effecting his banishment. Dion went over to Greece, where the beauty of his person, and still more the excellent qualities of his mind and heart, gained him so many friends, that

he resolved to employ force to deliver his country from a prince who had closed his ears to remonstrances. With this design, he embarked with 800 valiant warriors, landed in Sicily, and, hearing that Dionysius had set out a few days before for Italy, hastened to Syracuse, and entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people. After some ineffectual attempts to recover his authority, Dionysius was at length obliged to abandon the crown, and fled with his treasures to Italy. Dion was also, soon after, obliged to leave the city on account of the unjust suspicions of his fellow-citizens. New troubles having broken out in Syracuse, he was recalled, and was about to restore the republican government, when he was assassinated by his treacherous friend, Calippus of Athens, B. C. 354. Thus perished a man of noble sentiments, great courage, and inflexible patriotism.

DION CASSIUS was born about A. D. 155, at Nice in Bithynia, is sometimes called a Roman because he was made a Roman citizen and filled many honourable offices in Rome under Pertinax and his three successors. He wrote the Roman history in eighty books, of which only those from the 36th to the 54th are extant complete: the remainder we have only in the epitome of Xiphilinus. It began with the arrival of Æneas in Italy, and extended to A. D. 228. He devoted more than twenty years to this work, in which the events are arranged chronologically, and gives an impartial account of those occurrences of which he was himself a witness. He often exhibits, however, a spirit of jealousy towards great men, and appears superstitious, flattering, and servile, and his style is too rhetorical for history.

DIONYSIUS the Elder.—This monarch raised himself from a low condition to the rank of general, and afterwards to that of tyrant of Syracuse, about 406 B. C. The Agrigentines, who had escaped when Agrigentum was taken by the Carthaginians, accused the Syracusan generals of treachery. Dionysius supported their complaints, and contrived that the enraged people should choose their leaders, of whom he was one. He soon found means to render his colleagues suspected also and to have himself appointed commander-in-chief. In this post it was no difficult task for him, by the assistance of the troops whom he had drawn over to his interest, to make himself master of the citadel of Syracuse, together with all the arms and provisions contained in it, and finally to declare himself king. The more firmly to establish his power he married the daughter of Hermocrates, whose family was the most distinguished in Syracuse. After having finished a short war against the Carthaginians, and successfully quelled several seditions, in which he reduced several cities on the island under his authority, he made preparations for a great war against Carthage. The fortune of arms, which, in the beginning, had favoured him, soon turned against him, and the Carthaginians had already laid siege to Syracuse, when the plague made great ravages among them. Dionysius, having just received a reinforcement of thirty ships, took advantage of the discouraged state of his enemies, attacked them at once by land and water, and gained a complete victory, which was soon followed by an advantageous peace.

In his expeditions into Lower Italy he reduced the city of Rhegium by famine. After another short war with Carthage he lived some time in peace,

occupied with making verses, and imagining himself, in spite of the poorness of his productions, as great a luminary in the poetical as in the political world. Nay, he even ventured to contend for the prize in the Olympic games, and sent for that purpose a solemn embassy, accompanied by a number of the best declaimers, to read his poems; but with all their art they were not able to prevent the tents of Dionysius from being torn down and plundered by the multitude. A second embassy, which he sent four years afterwards, was received still more unfavourably. He became almost distracted at these disgraces, yet would not relinquish the high opinion which he had conceived of his own genius, and used to torture the poets and philosophers of his time with reading his verses before them. In his bad humour he commenced a new war against the Carthaginians, intending to drive them entirely out of Sicily. He did not, however, succeed in this attempt, and was obliged to conclude a disadvantageous peace. For this misfortune he was indemnified by the success of one of his tragedies at Athens. The news of this event filled him with such immoderate joy that he fell sick, and, at the instigation of his son, the physicians administered to him a fatal potion. Thus perished Dionysius, after a reign of twenty-five years.

DIONYSIUS the younger succeeded his father Dionysius the elder. For the purpose of recalling him from the excesses to which he was addicted, Dion directed his attention to the doctrines of Plato, representing to him that this great philosopher alone was able to teach him the art of government, and the means of rendering his subjects happy. In consequence of this advice, Dionysius invited Plato to his court, and the latter, complying with his urgent invitations, succeeded in tempting him into the path of virtue and knowledge, and in giving a new character to his whole court. An opposite party, however, headed by the historian Philistus, awakened the king's suspicions against Dion, and caused his banishment. Plato in vain endeavoured to effect his recall, and, after having been long retained by force, finally left Syracuse himself, when Dionysius was engaged in a war in another part of the island. After the restoration of peace, Plato, at the repeated request of the king, returned to his court, and again endeavoured, though in vain, to effect Dion's recall. He therefore insisted upon his own dismissal. Dionysius at last appeased him by promising to restore Dion his fortune on condition that he would undertake nothing against the throne. But he violated his promise, and Plato, after experiencing many mortifications, finally left him. Dion then appeared, and made himself master of the city of Syracuse, to which Dionysius did not return until after the murder of Dion. His misfortunes, however, had no other effect than to render him more cruel. Meantime the Carthaginians commenced a new war with Syracuse, and entered into a secret union with Ictas, whose intention it was to make himself master of the city. He, however, disguised his purpose, and even approved of the measure of calling upon Corinth for assistance. Timoleon appeared with a fleet before Syracuse, and expelled not only the enemies but also the tyrant. Dionysius, who had surrendered himself, was carried to Corinth, where he gained a scanty living by giving lessons in grammar, and died in the contempt which he had brought upon himself by his excesses.

DIONYSIUS of Halicarnassus in Caria, a learned



critic and teacher of eloquence, went to Rome about B. C. 30, where, for the instruction of his countrymen, he wrote his "Roman Antiquities," in which he relates the early history of Rome and its government up to the times of the first Punic war. His residence in Rome during twenty-two years, his intercourse with the most learned Romans, and his knowledge of the ancient annalists, render him very important to the critical historian though he has given his own colouring to the Roman traditions. Dionysius is also valuable as a critical and rhetorical writer. It is difficult to pronounce, however, on the genuineness of the writings attributed to him in this department without a critical examination.

DIONYSIUS the Areopagite, one of the judges of the Areopagus at Athens, who was converted to Christianity by the apostle Paul about the middle of the first century. He became first bishop at Athens, where he suffered martyrdom, and is particularly remarkable for the Greek works which have been ascribed to him, and for being considered the patron saint of France. These writings, composed in an obscure style, and hardly intelligible on account of their mysticism, are, "Of the Heavenly Hierarchy," "Of the Names of God," "Of the Ecclesiastical Hierarchy," and "Of the Mystic Theology," with a number of letters which, by their style, contents, and historical allusions, betray an author who could not have lived before the middle of the fourth century. They appeared, in a very equivocal manner, as the works of Dionysius as late as the sixth century. Fantastic descriptions of the Deity, and of the orders of angels and blessed spirits, borrowed from the new Platonic philosophy, brilliant representations of the Catholic ceremonies, exaltations of the hierarchy, praises of the monastic life, and mystic interpretations of the doctrines of the church, gave them such charms that the absurdities in which they abound did not prevent the ignorant clergy of the seventh century from reading them with delight, and finding in them the clearest proofs of the apostolic origin of many ecclesiastical observances and institutions which are of a much later date, for they had no doubt of their genuineness.

In France, where a certain Dionysius established the first Christian community at Paris in the third century, they were readily received in the ninth century; and this Dionysius, without further inquiry, was taken for the Areopagite, because the origin of the Gallican church could thus be carried back to the first century, and France gained a patron who was a martyr and the immediate disciple of an apostle. The monastic life in the Western church gained new support from these writings, which were frequently translated into Latin, and mystic theology received its first impulse from them. The convent of St. Denis, which was originally dedicated to the first apostle of Christianity at Paris, but is now consecrated to Dionysius the Areopagite, had a remarkable dispute with the convent of St. Emmeran at Ratisbon in the eleventh century concerning the possession of the genuine bones of the saint. Each maintained that it possessed his earthly remains, and each had its claims confirmed by the infallible authority of the pope. In the fourteenth century another church in Paris claimed the third head of the saint. The writings attributed to Dionysius the Areopagite are as spurious as the relics. The pretended author of them neither left such writings,

nor ever taught in France, as was put beyond all doubt by the French critics, Daille, Sirmond, and Launoï, in the seventeenth century.

DIONYSIUS the Little, so called on account of his short stature, was a Scythian monk, who became abbot of a monastery at Rome in the beginning of the sixth century, and died about the year 545. He is celebrated as the author of the computation of time from the Christian era. He calculated an Easter cycle in 526, and fixed the birth of Christ, agreeably to the most certain data, in the year 753 after the foundation of Rome. The computation of time from the birth of Christ thus established, and now universal among Christians, was not publicly used until the eighth century. His collection of ecclesiastical laws, viz., the so called *apostolical canons*, decrees of councils favourable to the pretensions of the Roman bishops, and official letters written by the Roman bishops since the fourth century, which were called *decretals*, had a more rapid success. The placing of the latter by the side of the decrees of councils, and thus attributing to them equal authority, was so flattering to the pride of the Roman bishops, and the letters of their predecessors afforded so favourable an opportunity for renewing their ancient pretensions, that the collection soon obtained the authority of an acknowledged source of canon law. Dionysius was, as his friend Cassiodorus says of him, a good Latin writer, and well acquainted with the Greek language, from which he translated much. Nothing more is known of him except that he favoured the superstition of the Theopaschites.

DIOSCORIDES, PEDANIUS, a Greek physician, and the author of a celebrated work on *materia medica* in five books. It is particularly valuable in regard to botany, as most of the medicines which the author mentions are taken from the vegetable kingdom. Two other works are also attributed to him, the "Alexipharmaca," which was united with the "Materia Medica," forming the three last books of it, and treating of the poisons in the three kingdoms of nature and their antidotes; and the "Euporista," which treats of remedies that are easily procured.

DISNEY, JOHN, a divine and antiquary, who was born in 1677 at Lincoln. He was intended for the profession of the law, and in consequence entered the Middle Temple; but, possessing an easy fortune, he did not follow it, although it enabled him to become a very able and effective magistrate. At the age of forty-two he formed the design of becoming a minister of the Church of England, and his design being warmly applauded by Dr. Wake, archbishop of Canterbury, he was ordained in 1719, and in the same year presented to the vicarage of Croft, and rectory of Kirkby, both in Lincolnshire. In 1722 he was instituted to the vicarage of St. Mary at Nottingham, where he remained until his death in 1729. He is the author of "Primitiæ Sacræ, or the Reflections of a Devout Solitude," "Flora," prefixed to a translation of Rapin's poem on Gardens, "Two Essays upon the Execution of the Laws against Immorality and Profaneness," "Remarks upon a Sermon preached by Dr. Sacheverell," "The Genealogy of the House of Brunswick," "A View of the Ancient Laws against Immorality and Profaneness," "Sermons on Particular Occasions," &c.

DJEZZAR, ACHMET, an enterprising pacha of

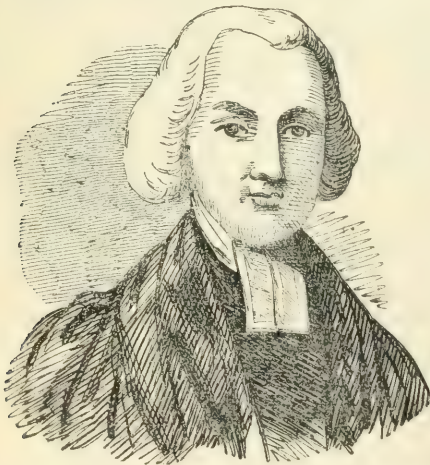


Acre, who checked the victorious career of Bonaparte in Egypt and Syria, who was born in Bosnia, and is said to have sold himself as a slave to Ali Bey in Egypt. There he ingratiated himself with his master to such a degree, that he rose from the low state of a Mameluke to that of governor of Cairo. For his future success he was not less indebted to his faithlessness and ingratitude than to his courage and talents. As pacha of Acre, he rendered himself so formidable to the rebels that he was raised to the dignity of a pacha of three tails. Differences soon arose between him and the Porte, which is jealous of every pacha of spirit and enterprise. Obeying the commands received from Constantinople no farther than they coincided with his own plans, he maintained himself by force and cunning.

On Bonaparte's invasion of Syria in 1799 Djeddar broke out into the most ungovernable fury that Christians from Europe should dare to attempt the conquest of his province. Assisted by the French engineer, Philippeaux, who conducted the defence with great ability, and by Sir Sidney Smith, who supported him with several English men-of-war, Djeddar could boast of repelling the man before whom Europe trembled. He afterwards had several bloody struggles with the grand vizier and the pacha of Jaffa, and died in 1804. He received the name of Djeddar, *Butcher*, from his blood-thirsty disposition.

**DOBSON, MATTHEW.**—This ingenious physician is best known by his work on "Fixed Air," which was published a short time before his death in 1779. His wife, Mrs. Susannah Dobson, translated a life of Petrarch, and published a "Literary History of the Troubadours," &c.

**DODD, WILLIAM**, an English clergyman, born in 1729, and educated at Cambridge. In 1753 he took orders, and soon became one of the most popular preachers in London. An expensive mode of living rendered his circumstances embarrassed, and he became the author or editor of several works which af-



forded him large profits. In 1764 he was chosen one of his majesty's chaplains, and was active in the formation of a society for the relief of persons confined for small debts. Being, however, much involved in debt, he disgraced himself and his station, and violated the rules of common honesty, by offering a bribe to the lord chancellor's lady if she would

procure his nomination to a vacant rectory. The lady was indignant, and informed the chancellor of the offer, who procured Dodd's name to be struck from the list of the king's chaplains. To escape from the disgrace which attended the knowledge of his conduct he went to Geneva, where he met with the earl of Chesterfield, to whom he had been tutor, and who afterwards presented him with a living. He returned in the beginning of winter, and proceeded to exercise his function with the same formality and apparent earnestness as formerly, particularly at the Magdalen Chapel, where his last sermon was preached on the 2nd of February, 1777. Two days after this he signed a bond, which he had forged as from his pupil Lord Chesterfield, for the sum of 4200*l.*, and, upon the credit of it, obtained a considerable sum of money: but detection instantly following, he was committed to prison, tried and convicted at the Old Bailey on the 24th of February, 1777, and executed at Tyburn on the 27th of the following June, where he exhibited every appearance of penitence. The unusual distance of time between the pronouncing and executing of his sentence was owing to a doubt for some time respecting the admissibility of an evidence whose testimony had been made use of to convict him.

The life of Dr. Dodd was, by his own confession, for many years fearfully erroneous. But the most remarkable part of his history was the uncommon interest excited in the public mind, and the numerous petitions presented to the throne in his favour. Even the talents of Dr. Johnson were engaged to give a fair colouring to his case, and to combine with public sympathy a high opinion of the talents of which the world was about to be deprived. For this purpose the pen of that eminent writer was employed in writing those papers and documents which, to be any thing, ought to have been written by Dodd himself, but which, being immediately known to be Johnson's, could only be considered a part of that literary quackery which Dodd had so often practised. Dr. Johnson appears in this instance to have been more swayed by popular judgment than he would perhaps have been willing to allow. The cry was, the honour of the clergy; but if the honour of the clergy was tarnished, it was by Dodd's crime, and not his punishment; for his life had been so long a disgrace to his cloth that he had deprived himself of the sympathy which attaches to the first deviation from rectitude, and few criminals could have had less claim to such a display of popular feeling. Much of the sympathy that was excited for Dr. Dodd's unhappy fate no doubt arose from the sanguinary character of our penal code at the time he committed the offence. Thanks to the late change in the punishment for forgery, this no longer exists to disgrace the nation. Another circumstance was his continued exertions in the cause of the unhappy inmates of the Magdalen Institution, to which he was one of the best friends and patrons.

**DODD, RALPH**, a civil engineer, and the original projector of a tunnel under the Thames and various other public works of importance. In 1795 he published an account of the principal canals in the known world, with reflections on the great utility of canals. In 1798 he laid before the public his plan for a tunnel under the Thames, which was approved by government; but the scheme was abandoned soon after its commencement. He had also a share in the



improvement of steam-vessels; and the first impetus to the scheme for navigating by steam was given by a patent which he obtained for a steam-boat on the Thames from London to Gravesend, which, however was not carried into effect. He afterwards navigated in a steam-vessel round the coast of England and Ireland. In 1822 he was severely wounded by an explosion of the boiler of a steam-packet, and, after lingering a few months, died at Cheltenham in April of that year.

DODDRIDGE, PHILIP, an eminent dissenting divine, whose father was a tradesman in London, where he was born in 1702. After some previous education he became the pupil of Mr. J. Jennings, who kept a theological academy, and on the death of his tutor he succeeded to the situation, but removed the seminary in 1729 to Northampton. There he resided nearly twenty-two years, filling his station as a minister and academical preceptor with great credit. He died in October 1751 at Lisbon, whither he had gone in the hope of deriving benefit from the change of air, in a pulmonic complaint. Dr. Doddridge distinguished himself by a commentary on the New Testament, published under the title of the "Family Expositor," which became deservedly popular, and has gone through many editions. After his death appeared a course of lectures on the principal subjects of pneumatology, ethics, and divinity, with references to the most considerable authors on each of these subjects. Dr. Doddridge was also the author of sermons, hymns, devotional treatises, &c.

DODINGTON, GEORGE BUBB, LORD MELCOMBE REGIS, was the son of a gentleman of fortune, or, as others say, of an apothecary named Bubb, who married into a wealthy family in Dorsetshire. He was born in 1691, was elected member of parliament for Winchelsea in 1715, and was soon after appointed envoy to the court of Spain. In 1720, by the death of his maternal uncle, he came into possession of a large estate, and took the surname of Dodington. In 1724, having closely connected himself with Sir Robert Walpole, he was appointed a lord of the treasury, and became clerk of the pells in Ireland. He afterwards joined the opposition, and, on the fall of Walpole, became treasurer of the navy. This party he also quitted in order to lead the opposition under Frederic, prince of Wales, whose death for some time arrested his career. In 1755 he accepted his former post of treasurer to the navy, under the duke of Newcastle, but lost it the following year. On the accession of George III., he was early received into the confidence of Lord Bute; and in 1761 was advanced to the peerage by the title of Lord Melcombe, and died the following year. This versatile politician was generous, magnificent, and convivial in private life, and the patron or friend of Young, Thomson, Glover, Fielding, Bentley, Voltaire, Lyttleton, and Chesterfield, who, with many of humbler pretensions, mingled at his hospitable table. He is best known by his celebrated *Diary* published in 1784 by Henry Penruddock Windham, Esq. A more curious exposition of avarice, vanity, servility, and selfishness, as a place-hunter and trading politician, has seldom been exhibited. It is a most extraordinary instance of a self-recorded and seemingly unconscious prostration of honourable and manly feelings to the acquirement of place, emolument, and court favour.

DODSLEY, ROBERT, a clever poet and dra-

matic writer, who raised himself by his literary talents from comparatively humble life. He was born at Mansfield in Nottinghamshire in 1703. Dodsley commenced life as a domestic servant to the honourable Mrs. Lowther. Whilst in the service of this lady, young Dodsley produced a number of pieces, which attracted the notice of her friends, and which he was encouraged by them to usher into the world with the significant title of "The Muse in Livery." The success of this volume stimulated him to further efforts of mind, and he now composed "The Toy-Shop," which being shown to Mr. Pope, the delicacy of its satire, although simply constructed, so interested that poet in favour of its ingenious author that he obtained for him such an introduction as insured its being brought upon the stage, where it met with proportionate success, as did also his farce called "The King and Miller of Mansfield," which was exhibited the following year.

But Mr. Pope's patronage did not terminate at this point. Enabled by the produce of his early genius to turn his attention to the means of future subsistence, Mr. Dodsley about the year 1736 resolved to embark in trade rather than depend on chances, and accordingly chose, with this view, the bookselling business as being still closely connected with genius and literature. Here the unwearied friendship of Pope greatly accelerated his rise. The poet's strong recommendations, backed by Dodsley's merits, soon obtained for him not only the countenance of persons of first-rate abilities, but likewise of personages of the highest rank, which in a few years raised him to great eminence in his profession, particularly as a publisher, and in which therefore he was almost, if not altogether, at the head. Gibbon did not show more anxiety for the reputation of the bookseller who published his great work than was evinced by the friends of Dodsley for the preservation of that celebrity which he had obtained in the same manner. Besides the successive publication of various eminent works, Robert Dodsley was the projector of the original "Annual Register," an undertaking that, reverting to the times in which he flourished, may be characterized as a national one, and one that promises to carry the name of its projector, connected with names of high celebrity, of a Burke and of a Laurence, with credit to posterity.

Dodsley's deportment has been not undeservedly extolled. Neither as a trader nor a writer had his success an improper sort of effect on his conduct. In one light, he preserved the strictest integrity; in the other, the most becoming humility. But there is no circumstance which reflects such high lustre on his character, estimated personally, as the grateful remembrance that he cherished and ever expressed towards the memory of those by whose kindness he was first noticed and advanced in life.

After he had embarked in business he still continued to cultivate his own talents. He was the author of six dramatic pieces, amongst which the tragedy of "Cleone," acted at Covent-Garden theatre, is eminently distinguished, and of two volumes of poems, entitled "Trifles;" editor of a "Collection of Poems by different Eminent Hands," in six volumes; and a "Collection of Plays by Old Authors," in twelve volumes.

Amongst his prose works particular mention seems due to his "Economy of Human Life," which had a great sale from the first, owing to its being attri-



buted to the earl of Chesterfield, but which has since maintained its niche in the temple of letters without the adventitious assistance of that nobleman's popularity. Mr. Dodsley likewise edited some "Select Fables," and was the projector of "The Preceptor," in two volumes, a book designed for the instruction of youth. His own miscellaneous pieces were collected and published in two volumes octavo.

Having acquired a handsome fortune, Mr. Dodsley retired from his shop in Pall-Mall some time before his death, leaving the business to his brother. Mindful of the early encouragement with which he had met, he was ever disposed to extend the same opportunities of advancement to others. He fell a martyr to the gout, after a life spent in the exercise of every social duty, in September 1764, at the house of his friend Mr. Spence at Durham. He was buried in the cathedral churchyard of that city, which ranges on the north side, where an altar-tomb is erected to his memory with the following inscription composed by his friend:—

If you have any respect  
For uncommon Industry and Merit,  
    Regard this Place:  
In which are interred the Remains  
    Of  
MR. ROBERT DODSLEY:  
Who, as an Author, raised himself  
Much above what could have been expected  
    From one in his Rank of Life,  
And without a learned Education:  
And who, as a man, was scarcely  
Exceeded by any, in Integrity of Heart,  
And Purity of Manners and Conversation.  
He left this life, for a better,  
September 23d, 1764, in the 61st year of his Age.

**DODSWORTH, ROGER**, an eminent antiquarian, who was born at Newton Grange in Yorkshire, July 24th, 1585. He was principally distinguished for his extensive MS. collections which are now preserved at Oxford. They make about 162 volumes, the greater part being written by himself. Dods-worth died in 1654.

**DODWELL, HENRY**, a critic and theological writer of distinction, who was born at Dublin in 1641, and, owing to family misfortunes during the Irish rebellion, and the death of his father, was early subject to a life of want and dependence. Sir Henry Slingsby, his mother's brother, at length enabled him to obtain some education, and in 1656 he became a student of Trinity College, Dublin, where he distinguished himself by his application, and was chosen to a fellowship. This station he resigned in 1666, because he had scruples relative to the lawfulness of taking orders in the church as enjoined by the statutes of the college. He then visited England, and for some time resided at Oxford. Returning to Ireland, he began his career of authorship with a preface to a theological tract of his tutor, Dr. Sterne. His next production was entitled "Two Letters of Advice; first for the Susception of Holy Orders, and second for Studies Theological, especially such as are Rational." To the second edition of this work was annexed a Discourse on the Phœnician History of Sanchoniathon, which he deemed spurious. In 1674 he came again to London, where he continued to employ his pen. In 1688 he was chosen Camden professor of history at Oxford, but at the revolution his high church principles induced him to espouse the cause of the nonjurors, and he was in consequence deprived of his office. He died in 1711. He produced a multitude of works relating to

theological and classical literature. One of these is entitled "An Epistolary Discourse, proving from the Scriptures and the First Fathers, that the Soul is a Principle naturally Mortal, but Immortalized actually by the Pleasure of God, to punishment or to Reward, by its Union with the divine baptismal Spirit; where it is proved that none have the Power of giving this immortalizing Spirit since the Apostles, but only the Bishops." This work gave rise to a warm controversy, and subjected the author to much obloquy.

**DOGGET, THOMAS**, a clever dramatic writer, who also distinguished himself as an actor early in the seventeenth century. He had a share in Drury-lane Theatre, which he relinquished in 1712. As an actor Dogget had great merit, and his contemporary, Cibber, informs us that he was the most original, and the strictest observer of nature, of any actor of his time. His manner, though borrowed from none, frequently served for a model for many; and he possessed that peculiar art which so very few performers are masters of, viz., the arriving at the perfectly ridiculous, without stepping into the least impropriety to attain it. And so extremely careful was he in the dressing of his characters to the greatest exactness of propriety, that the least article of what he wore seemed in some measure to speak and mark the different humour he presented. Dogget died at Eltham in Kent, September 22, 1721, and was interred there. In his political principles he was, in the words of Sir Richard Steel, a "Whig up to the head and ears;" and so strictly was he attached to the interests of the house of Hanover, that he never let slip any occasion that presented itself of demonstrating his sentiments in that respect. The year after George I. came to the throne, this actor gave a waterman's coat and silver badge to be rowed for by six watermen on the 1st day of August, being the anniversary of that king's accession to the throne; and at his death bequeathed a certain sum of money, the interest of which was to be appropriated annually, for ever, to the purchase of a like coat and badge to be rowed for in honour of the day.

**DOHM, CHRISTIAN WILLIAM VON**, a celebrated German statesman and scholar, who was born at Lemgo in 1751. He was the son of a Lutheran minister, and cultivated his taste by the study of ancient literature and the English classics. He lived for some time in a private condition at Berlin, where he made himself known by his writings. He was then employed by the Prussian government, and, during the reign of the two last kings and the present, gradually rose from one post to another. He was Prussian ambassador at the congress of Rastadt in 1797, and, in the name of the whole diplomatic corps, made a report respecting the murder of two French envoys. He remained in Westphalia while the country was occupied by Napoleon; for, as his estates were in this part of the Prussian dominions, he was compelled to continue his residence there after they had been separated from Prussia by the peace of Tilsit in 1807. By the command of the French intendant-general, he went to Paris in September 1807 at the head of a delegation of the states of the province and the administrative authorities. After his return in December of the same year, he was made a member of the council of state; and in February 1808 he was appointed by the king ambassador to the court of Dresden, but a dangerous inflammation of the lungs forced him to retire in April



1810. He was, however, permitted to reside on his estate of Pustleben, in the county of Hohenstein, till he should be able to take his place again in the council of state. From that time he devoted himself exclusively to historical pursuits. His work, "Denkwürdigkeiten meiner Zeit, oder Beiträge zur Geschichte von 1778 bis 1806," gives much information respecting most memorable persons and events since 1778, drawn partly from his own observation and experience, partly from other sources. It is esteemed also on account of its clearness, correct spirit, and impartiality. Dohm died at his estate of Pustleben on the 29th of May, 1820.

**DOLCE, CARLO**, a celebrated painter of the Florentine school, who was born at Florence in 1616, and died there in 1686. He was a disciple of Jacopo Vignali, and his works bear the character which his name implies. His subjects are principally heads of madonnas and saints, so mild and soft that they have been reproached with want of character. In minuteness and accuracy of finish he approaches the Dutch school, but it must be confessed, that in his madonnas we discover frequent repetitions, and that his paintings betray that timidity and melancholy to which he was subject. His works are spread over all Europe; many of them are in Florence. Three of his best works are, Cecilia, or the Organ-Player, Christ blessing the Bread and Wine, (which has been very frequently engraved), and Herodias with the Head of John the Baptist. Among his chief productions, also, is Christ on the Mount of Olives, now in Paris.

**DOLL, FREDERIC WILLIAM**, a distinguished German artist, who was born in 1750. His first important work was the monument of Winkelmann, which was honoured with a place in the Pantheon at Rome. His best works are the Reliefs in the Riding-Academy at Dessau; a large group representing Faith, Hope, and Charity, for the principal church at Lunenburg; the Monument of Leibnitz at Hanover, and Kepler's at Ratisbon. He died at Gotha on the 30th of March, 1816.

**DOLLOND, JOHN**, an eminent optician of French descent, who was born in Spitalfields in 1706. He was brought up a silk-weaver, and carried on that business for many years; but, finding it little congenial to his taste, he devoted himself to the study of mathematics, optics, and astronomy, and at last commenced optician in conjunction with his eldest son Peter. His first attention was directed to the improvement of refracting telescopes, an account of which was printed in the "Philosophical Transactions," and he soon after communicated his discovery of the micrometer as applied to the reflecting telescope. Mr. Dollond then engaged in a defence of Newton's doctrine of refraction, against Euler, which correspondence was also published in the "Philosophical Transactions." He next constructed object-glasses, in which the different refrangibility of the rays of light was corrected, to which the name of *achromatic* was given by Doctor Bevis, on account of their being free from the prismatic colours. In 1761 Mr. Dollond was elected F. R. S., and appointed optician to the king; but died of apoplexy in the same year.

**DOLLOND, PETER**, eldest son of John Dollond the optician, was born in 1730. In 1765 he communicated a paper to the Royal Society upon his improvement of telescopes, and another in 1772 on his

additions to, and alterations of, Hadley's quadrant. He also gave a description of his equatorial instrument for correcting the errors arising in altitude from refraction. In 1789 he published some account of the discovery made by his father in refracting telescopes. He died in 1820.

**DOLOMIEU, DEODAT GUY SILVAIN TANCREDE GRATET DE**, a geologist and mineralogist, who was born in 1750 at Dolomieu in Dauphiny. He was received into the order of the knights of Malta while yet a child, and began his novitiate in his eighteenth year. On his first cruise in the Mediterranean he killed one of the officers of his galley in a quarrel, in consequence of which he was tried at Malta, and condemned to lose the robe of the order; but the grand-master, considering his great youth, reprieved him, and the pope was at last prevailed on to give his consent to a full pardon. Dolomieu was in prison nine months, and during his confinement acquired a strong taste for poetry. He continued his studies at Metz, whither he was transferred as an officer of a regiment of carbineers in garrison at that place. The duke de la Rochefoucault became acquainted with him there, and through his influence Dolomieu was made a corresponding member of the Academy of Sciences. In order to devote himself entirely to his studies, Dolomieu left the military service and returned to Malta, whence he went to Portugal in 1777 in the retinue of the bailli de Rohan. He examined that country, visited Sicily and the neighbouring islands, Naples and Mount Vesuvius, in 1781, travelled over the Pyrenees in 1782, and in 1783 passed through Calabria, which had just been desolated by an earthquake. In consequence of some secret communications which he made to the grand-master on his return being betrayed to the court of Naples, which was interested in them, he was forbidden to enter that kingdom and experienced many difficulties in Malta. Leaving this island again, he visited the mountains of Italy, the Tyrol, and the country of the Grisons. He returned once more to Malta for the purpose of bringing away his collection, and proceeded to France in May 1791, where he resided at Roche-Guyon, the estate of his friend the duke de la Rochefoucault, who had fallen a victim to the revolutionary fury. In 1796 he was appointed engineer and professor, and at the establishment of the Institute was made a member of that society. In these capacities, he published several works relative to the theory of the earth and the nature of minerals. He eagerly seized the opportunity of visiting Egypt, offered to him by the French expedition to that country. But the occupation of Malta on the way made him dissatisfied with the whole undertaking, and the situation of the army in Egypt soon condemned him to inactivity. In March 1799 he embarked for Europe. On the passage the vessel sprang a leak, and only succeeded after great efforts in reaching the harbour of Tarentum. There the crew were treated as prisoners of war; and, when the rest were set at liberty, Dolomieu was recognised and detained as a prisoner. During twenty-one months he suffered hardships and privations of every kind. Even books and writing materials were denied him. His firmness however sustained him, and on the margins of two or three books, which he had contrived to conceal from the eyes of his sentinel, he wrote his treatise on mineralogical philosophy: his pen was a

piece of wood, and the soot of his lamp supplied him with ink. In consequence of the peace concluded between France and Naples in March 1801, he obtained his liberty and received the professorship of mineralogy in the Museum of Natural History, which had become vacant by the death of Daubenton. His health, however, having become already undermined by his captivity, was entirely destroyed by a journey to Switzerland, Savoy, and Dauphiny in 1801, and he died at Chateaufort on the 28th of November in the same year. With a passionate love for geology, Dolomieu united all the qualities, physical and moral, necessary for the successful study of this science; and it is therefore much to be regretted, that he was prevented from combining and systematizing his views and observations.

DOMAT, JOHN, an eminent French lawyer, who was born in the province of Auvergne in 1625. He was king's advocate in the presidial court of Clermont for thirty years. He died at Paris in 1696. His treatise, entitled "*Les Loix Civiles, dans leur Ordre Naturel*," was published in 1694, and after his death appeared three volumes more, on public law, &c. An improved edition of his works was published in 1777, and there is an English translation of them, which appeared in 1790.

DOMENICHINO, the name among artists of *Domenico Zampieri*, a painter of great eminence, of the Lombard school, who was born at Bologna in 1581. He was sent to study first with Calvart, and afterwards with the Carracci. From the slowness of his performance, he was named by his fellow-students the *ox of painting*; but Annibal Carracci predicted that the ox would "plough a fruitful field." Having contracted a great friendship for Albano, he joined him at Rome, and his former master, Annibal Carracci, jealous of Guido, procured for him the execution of one of the pictures for a Roman church, which had been promised to that great painter. It was a custom with Domenichino to assume, for a time, the passion he was depicting; so that, while working by himself, he was often heard to laugh, weep, and talk aloud, in a manner that would have induced a stranger to suppose him a lunatic. The effect was, however, such, that few painters have surpassed him in lively representation. His Communion of St. Jerome has been considered by some connoisseurs inferior only to the Transfiguration of Raphael; and the History of Apollo, which he painted in ten frescoes for Cardinal Aldobrandini, is also much admired.

Although a modest and inoffensive man, his merit excited so much envy that he retired to his native city, where he married, and employed himself two years on his celebrated picture of the Rosary. He was afterwards recalled to Rome by Gregory XV., who created him his first painter and architect of the Vatican. Losing this post after the pope's death, he accepted an invitation to Naples to paint the chapel of St. Januarius. But here he encountered a jealousy so rancorous that his life became altogether embittered by it; and so great was his dread of poison that he prepared all his eatables with his own hand. He died in 1641 at the age of sixty. Domenichino, who understood every branch of his art, produced nothing excellent without study and labour; but, in consequence of his great premeditation, no painter has given his pieces more of the properties belonging to the subject. At the same time his designs are

correct, and he succeeded equally in the grand and the tender.

DOMINIC DE GUZMAN, ST., the catholic founder of the Dominican order of monks. He was born in 1170 at Calahorra, in Old Castile, and applied himself in his early years with zeal and ability to the acquisition of knowledge. He was made canon and archdeacon of Osme in Castile, and was employed with others by Pope Innocent III. to discover, confute, and punish heretics, especially the Albigenses in France. This was the origin of the court of the inquisition, and St. Dominic is considered as the first inquisitor-general. As he prescribed to the members of his order a certain number of Pater Nosters and Ave-Marias daily, he is supposed to have introduced the Rosary. St. Dominic died at Bologna in 1221, and in 1233 was canonized by Gregory IX. In the examination, previous to the canonization, it was proved that he converted more than 100,000 souls to the true faith. An interesting comparison might be made between St. Dominicus and St. Francis, certainly two of the most powerful minds among the saints. St. Francis laboured all his life to relieve the poor and persecuted, to propagate the gospel among the lower classes, who, in those convulsed periods, were almost entirely excluded, in most countries, from education and instruction in Christianity, while St. Dominicus strove to spread Christianity by persecution. The character of the two founders is deeply imprinted on the two orders—the humble Franciscans and the zealous Dominicans. Dante speaks of these two saints in one of the most beautiful passages in his Paradise.

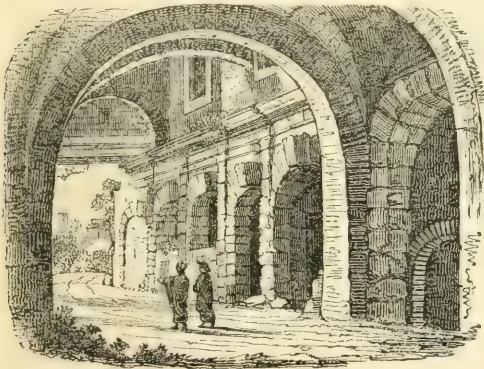
DOMINIQUE LE PERE, a celebrated harlequin of the Italian theatre, who was born at Bologna in 1640, and was invited in 1660 to Paris by Cardinal Mazarin, where he played the harlequin with the greatest applause till his death in 1688. The French comedians wished to prevent the Italians from bringing French pieces on their stage, and Louis XIV. gave both parties an audience. Baron and Dominique were ordered to appear as their deputies. The former having spoken in the name of the French, it was Dominique's turn to plead his cause; and he asked the king how he should speak. "Speak as you please," answered the king. "That is all I want," rejoined the harlequin; "I have won." The king received this sally with a laugh, and from that time the Italian theatre represented French pieces without opposition.

DOMITIAN, TITUS FLAVIUS SABINUS, son of Vespasian, and brother of Titus, born A. D. 51. He made himself odious, even in youth, by his indolence and voluptuousness, by his cruel, malignant, and suspicious temper, and Rome trembled when, on his brother's death, he obtained the diadem. At first, indeed, he deceived the people by acts of kindness, good laws, and a show of justice, so that their fears vanished; but he soon returned to his former excesses and cruelty. He first caused his near relative Flavius Sabinus to be put to death, though entirely innocent. No less vain than cruel, while his general Agricola was victorious over the Caledonians in Britain, he made a ridiculous expedition against the Catti, returned speedily to Rome, without having effected any thing, and carried a multitude of slaves dressed like Germans in triumph to the city. Agricola's victories exciting his jealousy, he recalled that general to Rome, and kept him in total



inactivity. At the same time, he spread terror through Rome by the execution of a great number of the first citizens.

Domitian now gave himself up to every excess, and at last conceiving the mad idea of arrogating divine honours to himself, assumed the titles of Lord and God, and claimed to be a son of Minerva. When the bloody war with the Dacians was concluded by a peace bought by the promise of paying a certain tribute, Domitian celebrated at an enormous expense a grand triumph. The misery of the people was, meanwhile, continually increasing; and, after the revival of the law against high treason, no one was secure of his property or his life. The tyrant once made a feast on purpose to terrify the senators and knights. They were assembled in a dark hall, in which were coffins, with the names of the individuals invited inscribed upon them; suddenly the doors opened, and a troop of naked men, painted black, with drawn swords and blazing torches, rushed in, and danced about the guests, until the emperor had sufficiently enjoyed their terror, when he dismissed the supposed executioners. The fears of the tyrant increased his cruelty. A paper fell into the hands of his wife, the infamous Domitia, in which she found her own name, and those of the two commanders of the pretorian guards, noted down by the emperor, with many others, to be sacrificed. This discovery induced her to conspire against him, and to murder him in his chamber, A. D. 96. Domitian built the most magnificent palace in Rome, a portion of which is represented in the annexed sketch.



**DONATUS, ÆLIUS**, a Roman grammarian and commentator on Terence, who lived in the fourth century. He wrote an elementary work on the Latin language, which served as a guide to the learning of Latin in the middle ages, and it was not till a comparatively recent period that it was superseded by more judicious grammars. It was one of the first books printed by Gutenberg.

**DONNE, JOHN, D. D.**, a celebrated poet and divine, who was the son of a merchant of London, in which city he was born in 1573. He studied both at Oxford and Cambridge, and was then entered at Lincoln's Inn. His parents were Catholics; but in his nineteenth year he abjured the Catholic religion, and became secretary to the lord chancellor Ellesmere. He continued in that capacity five years; but finally lost his office by a clandestine marriage with his patron's niece. The young couple were in consequence reduced to great distress. At length

his father-in-law relented so far as to give his daughter a moderate portion; and they were lodged in the house of Sir Robert Drury in London, whom Donne accompanied in his embassy to Paris. On his return he complied with James's wish by taking orders, and was soon after made one of his chaplains. He immediately received fourteen offers of benefices from persons of rank, but preferred settling in London, and was made preacher of Lincoln's Inn. In 1619 he accompanied the earl of Doncaster in his embassy to the German princes. He was chosen prolocutor to the convocation in 1623; and, in consequence of a dangerous illness, soon after wrote a religious work, entitled "Devotions upon Emergent Occasions." He died in March 1631, and was interred in St. Paul's.

Dr. Donne's reputation as a poet was higher in his own time than it has been since. Dryden fixed his character with his usual judgment, as "The greatest wit, though not the best poet of our nation"—"that he affects the metaphysics, not only in his satires, but in his amorous verses, where nature only should reign, and perplexes the minds of the fair sex with nice speculations of philosophy, when he should engage their hearts and entertain them with the softnesses of love." If we compare the originals with the translations in Pope's works it will be sufficiently obvious that the latter poet has entirely changed the character of the originals. Pope, in his estimate of Donne's powers, places him at the head of the metaphysical school, and he certainly did chalk out a path for himself which abounded in originality and spirit. Ben Johnson says that Donne wrote all his best works before he was twenty-five years of age. This, however, could hardly have been the fact, but from the satires on the Reformation, and other historical data, he could not have exceeded thirty. His scholastic learning was nearly all acquired before he attained his twentieth year, and he appears to have at once flung his whole energies into his poetical pursuits.

Thus we have seen that as a poet, and the precursor of Cowley, Donne may be deemed the founder of the *metaphysical* class of poets: abounding in thought, this school generally neglected versification, and that of Doctor Donne was peculiarly harsh and unmusical. He wrote Latin verse with much elegance, of which a collection was published in 1633. Of his prose works, one of the most remarkable is that entitled "*Biathanatos*," to prove that suicide is not necessarily sinful, which he never published himself, but which found its way to the press after his death. His style is quaint and pedantic, but he displays sound learning, deep thinking, and originality of manner. Besides the works already mentioned, he wrote the "*Pseudo Martyr*," "*Letters*," "*Sermons*," "*Essays on Divinity*," and other works of considerable merit.

**DONNER, GEORGE RAPHAEL**, a sculptor of considerable eminence, who was born in Lower Austria in 1680. He was at first a goldsmith, and received his early instructions in art from John Giuliani, a sculptor of the neighbourhood, and from 1726 devoted himself entirely to sculpture. Donner's works, in many Austrian churches and palaces, are masterpieces. The beautiful statues which form one of the finest ornaments of the fountain in the new market-place at Vienna, and the statue of Charles VI. at Breitenfurt, are particularly ad-

mired. He died at Vienna on the 16th of February 1741.

**DOPPLEMAYER, JOHN GABRIEL**, a learned German mathematician, who was born in 1671 at Nuremberg. He travelled through Holland into this country, and afterwards received a mathematical professorship at Nuremberg, which he held for forty-six years. He published several valuable mathematical, geographical, and astronomical works, among which his "Celestial Atlas" has spread his name the farthest. He died in 1750. Dopplemayer's "Account of the Nuremberg Mathematicians and Artists," is an important work in respect to literary history.

**DORAT, CLAUDE JOSEPH**, a voluminous writer of poetry, born in 1734 at Paris. He renounced the study of law, and afterwards the military service, into which he had entered as a musketeer, and devoted himself entirely to poetry. Among his earlier works are his tragedies and heroides. Though the latter were received with much applause, he was little fitted for this sort of poetry, and his dramatical works were equally unsuccessful. He succeeded better in songs, tales, and poetical epistles, and in these departments he is still held in high estimation. Owing to his vanity in causing his works to be published with the greatest splendour, he wasted a considerable part of his property, and died at Paris in great difficulties in April 1780.

**DORIA**.—The name of one of the oldest and most powerful families of Genoa. The annals of that republic do not reach further back than the year 1100; but even at that period we find the Doria family in the highest offices of the state. Four of them were distinguished admirals before the fourteenth century, but by far the most celebrated of the whole family was Andrew Doria, born at Oneglia in 1468. He gained renown when but a youth by his heroic conduct against the pirates and Corsicans, and in 1524 was made admiral of the French galleys by Francis I. Receiving some offence from the French, he went over to the Spanish-Austrian party, by which means he prevented the progress of the French arms in Italy. This great naval hero was the deliverer of his country. Genoa had for one period been governed by a chief magistrate, called the *doge*, whose office lasted for life; but the constitution was so disordered, and party spirit so violent, that sometimes the state, and sometimes one of the parties in it, was compelled to seek protection from a foreign power, which usually became the oppressor of the whole. Thus Genoa was at one time under the yoke of Milan or Austria; at another time of France. In 1528 France had possession of Genoa, when Doria surprised the city, drove out the French without bloodshed, received the title of father and deliverer of his country, and established an improved constitution. Only twenty-eight noble families were allowed to be eligible to the highest offices, which were annually filled anew, and the *doge* and his council presided over the affairs of state, and were chosen at the end of every two years. The great Doria, however, failed in remedying the oppression and evils of aristocracy; and many of his institutions were changed by a statute in 1576, on which the future constitution was based. Notwithstanding Doria held the office of *doge* for life, he again entered the naval service of Charles V., contended with brilliant success against the Turks and Corsairs, and died in

1560. Noble as was the character of this great man, and honoured as he was by the Genoese, several conspiracies were yet formed against him, of which that of Fiesco was the most dangerous; but they were suppressed by his address and decision.

**DORIGNY**.—The name of several celebrated engravers and painters. The first of any eminence was Michael Dorigny, born at St. Quentin in 1581. He was a scholar of Simon Vouet, whose works he etched, and whose faults in drawing he copied. His style of execution is bold, and his management of light and shade good. He died while professor of the Academy at Paris in 1665. His son Louis was born in 1654, entered the school of Lebrun, and made a journey to Italy, where he copied the great masters. From Venice he went to Verona, where he settled, and died in 1742. Nicholas, the brother of the latter, born in 1657 at Paris, is the most celebrated engraver of the three here noticed. He spent twenty-eight years in Italy in studying the most illustrious masters, and eight in engraving the celebrated cartoons of Raphael at Hampton Court, for which he received the honour of knighthood from King George I. In 1725 he became a member of the Academy at Paris, and died in 1746. One of his best engravings, besides his cartoons, is the Transfiguration, from Raphael, and the Apotheosis of St. Petronilla, after Guercino. His engraving is easy and strong, and the work of the needle and the graver are happily united.

**DORSEY, JOHN SYNG**, an eminent American physician, who was born in Philadelphia in 1783, and received an excellent classical education. At the age of fifteen years he applied himself to the study of medicine; and in the spring of 1802, being then in his nineteenth year, was graduated doctor in physic. Not long after he received his degree, the yellow fever appeared in Philadelphia, and prevailed so extensively that an hospital was opened for those sick with this malady, to which he was appointed resident physician. He improved this opportunity of investigating the disease, elucidated some of the more intricate parts of its pathology, and aided in the establishment of a better system of practice. At the close of the same season he visited Europe. He returned home in December 1804, and entered on the practice of his profession. His reputation, amiable temper, popular manners, and fidelity and attention, soon introduced him to a large share of business. In 1807 he was elected adjunct professor of surgery, and held the office till he succeeded to the chair of *materia medica*. He delivered two courses of lectures on this subject, when, the chair of anatomy becoming vacant, he was raised to that professorship. He opened the session by one of the finest exhibitions of eloquence ever heard within the walls of the university; but on the evening of the same day he was attacked with a fever, which in one week closed his existence. He had cultivated every department of medicine assiduously, but for surgery he evinced a decided predilection, and in this made the greatest proficiency. He was one of the most accomplished surgeons of that country, equally distinguished for the number, variety, and difficulty of his operations, and the skill and boldness with which they were performed. As a teacher of medicine his merits were great, and he was constantly resorted to in cases of emergency in the school. He has been known in the same day to lecture on surgery and the *materia me-*



*dica*, the details of the anatomical structure, and the laws of the animal economy.

**DOSSO, DOSSI**, a painter of Ferrara, born in 1479, and much honoured by Duke Alfonso, and immortalized by Ariosto (whose portrait he executed in a masterly manner) in his "Orlando." His manner approaches to that of Titian, with whom he painted some apartments in the ducal castle. His paintings there represent bacchanalians, fauns, satyrs, and nymphs. In other paintings he imitated Raphael. Among eight of Dossi's pictures in Dresden, the Dispute of the Four Fathers of the Church is distinguished as a masterpiece by accurate delineation and peculiar power of colouring, and is entirely in the style of Titian. His brothers are less celebrated. He died in 1563.

**DOUGLAS**.—This is a name that has so often stood forward as a "bright and shining light" in the political, literary, and scientific annals of our island, that a bare enumeration of the various individuals who have borne it with honour to this country would far exceed the space to which we are necessarily restricted; we must therefore select a few of the most distinguished, and refer to the article "SCOTLAND" in the Second Division of this work, for those who more especially influenced the political relations of the northern part of our island.

**DOUGLAS, SIR CHARLES**, an eminent naval officer, born in Scotland early in the eighteenth century. He first obtained employment in the Dutch service, but was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral under the British flag in 1787. He made several improvements in the construction of vessels, and ended an active life in 1789.

**DOUGLAS, JAMES**, an anatomist, who highly distinguished himself as a lecturer at the beginning of the last century. He came from Scotland early in life, and practised as a surgeon in London, where he died in 1742. His principal work is entitled "*Bibliographiæ Anatomicæ*."

**DOUGLAS, SYLVESTER, LORD GLENBERVIE**.—This eminent Scottish lawyer was educated for the medical profession, which he soon forsook for the bar. He married the eldest daughter of Lord North, and obtained considerable political influence. He was raised to the peerage in 1819, and died in May 1823. His work on "Controverted Elections" possesses considerable merit.

**DOUGLAS, GAWIN**, an early Scottish poet of eminence, who was the son of Archibald, earl of Angus, and was born at Brechin in 1474. He received a liberal education, commenced at home and completed at the university of Paris. On returning to Scotland, he took orders in the church, and was made provost of the church of St. Giles's at Edinburgh, afterwards abbot of Aberbrothick, and at length bishop of Dunkeld. Political commotions after a time obliged him to seek a retreat in England, where he was liberally treated by Henry VIII. He died of the plague in London in 1522, and was interred in the Savoy church. Gawin Douglas translated the poem of Ovid, "*De Remedio Amoris*," also, the *Æneid* of Virgil, and the supplementary book of "*Maphæus*," in heroic verse. This work, in the Scottish dialect of the English language, is executed with great spirit, and, considering the age when the author lived, with extraordinary elegance of diction, far surpassing in that respect the succeeding productions of Phaer, Swyne, and even of Lord Sur-

rey. It was written about 1512, and is said to have been completed in little more than a year. To each book is prefixed a highly poetical prologue. It was first published in 1553 (London, 4to.), and re-printed at Edinburgh (1710, folio).

**DOUGLAS, JOHN**, a learned divine and critic, who was born in Scotland in 1721. After some education at a grammar-school in his native country, he was sent to the university of Oxford in 1736, and in 1743 he took the degree of M.A. Soon after he was appointed chaplain to the third regiment of foot-guards. He was afterwards appointed travelling tutor to Lord Pulteney, with whom he visited several parts of the continent, but quitted him and returned to England in 1749, when his patron, the earl of Bath, presented him with several benefices. His first literary production was a letter to the earl of Bath, entitled "*Milton Vindicated from the Charge of Plagiarism, brought against him by Mr. Lauder*." In 1754 he published a tract, entitled the "*Criterion, or a Discourse on Miracles*." In 1762 he was made canon of Windsor, which benefice he exchanged with Doctor Barrington for a residentiary canonry of St. Paul's. His next preferment was the deanery of Windsor. In 1777 he was employed in preparing for the press the journal of Captain Cook's second voyage, to which he prefixed a well-written introduction, and added notes. He assisted Lord Hardwicke in arranging and publishing his "*Miscellaneous Papers*," which appeared the following year. In 1778 he was elected a fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian societies; and in 1781 he edited the account of Captain Cook's third voyage. In 1787 he was raised to the see of Carlisle, and in 1792 was made bishop of Salisbury. He died in May 1807.

**DOUSA, or VAN DER DOES**, a statesman, philologist, historian, and poet, born in 1545 at Noordwyk in Holland. He studied at Delft and Louvain, resided some time at Paris, and then lived in domestic retirement, devoted to literary pursuits, till 1572, when he came as ambassador to England to obtain the support of Queen Elizabeth for the cause of the Dutch. As chief commander during the siege of Leyden by the Spaniards, he conducted with prudence and unshaken courage, in the midst of the horrors of famine, plague, and civil dissensions. He kept up an intercourse with the expected deliverers by means of trained pigeons; and to these faithful messengers he has expressed his gratitude in some of his poems. The stadtholder, William I., compensated the city for its sufferings by the establishment of the university, of which Dousa was the first curator, and his extensive connexions with the literary men of other countries enabled him to procure for the new institution that most distinguished instructor, Joseph Scaliger. After the assassination of William I., Dousa secretly visited London to seek the protection of Queen Elizabeth for the freedom of his country, of which he was always the faithful defender; and during the period when the government of the earl of Leicester proved oppressive to the Dutch nation, he conducted the affairs of his country with prudence and moderation. Domestic misfortunes, particularly the death of his eldest son, Janus Dousa, a youth of great promise, afflicted the last years of his life, and he died in 1604. His best known work is "*Bataviæ Hollandiæque Annales*," extending to 1606, which was completed by his son. It was published both in verse and in prose.

**DOW, or DOUW, GERARD.**—This distinguished painter was born at Leyden in 1613. He studied under Rembrandt, and was distinguished for the excellence of his colouring and *chiaro scuro*. He surpassed his master in diligence, and nothing can be more finished than his small works. They are so delicate that a magnifying glass is necessary to see distinctly the work in them. His softest figures are full of life, and he never neglected in his representations the almost invisible minutiae of nature. Still his paintings do not appear artificial or forced, and he is justly regarded as the inventor of the ingenious mode of painting large pictures on a reduced scale, by covering the original with a frame including a space divided into small quadrangular parts by means of threads, and then transferring the parts into an equal number of similar divisions drawn on the canvass. He also made use of the convex mirror to represent objects on a reduced scale. Dow died in 1680, leaving a large property. His works brought high prices, and are still among the most costly of the Dutch school.

**DOYEN, GABRIEL FRANCOIS**, a painter of some eminence, who was born at Paris in 1726. He went to Rome in 1748, where the works of those painters who were distinguished for boldness of design and strength of expression, as Annibal Carracci, Pietro di Cortona, Giulio Romano, Polidore, and Michael Angelo, were the particular objects of his study and enthusiastic emulation. After his return to Paris he remained a long time without employment, occupied solely with his art. He spent two years in the execution of his *Virginia*, which procured him admission into the Academy of Painting in 1758. The picture *La Peste des Ardents* for the church of St. Roch increased his reputation. To give his works more truth, he visited the hospitals and studied the expression and appearances of the sick and dying. In the beginning of the revolution Catherine II. invited him to return to Russia, gave him a pension of 1200 rubles with a residence in one of the palaces, and appointed him professor in the Academy of Painting at Petersburg. After the death of the empress, Paul II. continued to treat him with equal favour. He painted much for the imperial palaces, and died at Petersburg on the 5th of June, 1806.

**DRACO**, an archon and legislator of Athens, who lived about 600 B. C., and was celebrated for the extraordinary severity of his laws. The slightest offence, such as stealing fruit, and even idleness, he punished with death, no less than sacrilege, murder, or treason. Hence his laws were said to be written in blood. Nothing was more natural than that this rigour should render them odious and prevent their execution, especially as the people became more civilized and refined. Solon was therefore commissioned to compose a new code. Tradition relates that Draco, on his appearance in the theatre at Ægina, where he is said to have carried his laws, was suffocated amidst the applauses of the people, who, according to their custom, threw their garments and caps upon him. He was buried under the theatre.

**DRAKE, SIR FRANCIS**, a distinguished English navigator, who was born at Tavistock in Devonshire, in 1545, and served as a sailor in a coasting-vessel, which sometimes made voyages to France and Ireland. He gained the favour of his master, who, on his death, left his vessel to him. Sir John Hawkins,

one of his relations, then took him under his care, and at the age of eighteen he served as purser of a ship which traded to Biscay. At twenty years of age he made a voyage to the coast of Guinea, and shortly after received the command of a ship, and distinguished himself by his valour in the unfortunate expedition of Sir John Hawkins against the Spaniards in the harbour of Vera Cruz. In this affair, however, he lost all which he possessed, for which reason he conceived an inveterate hatred



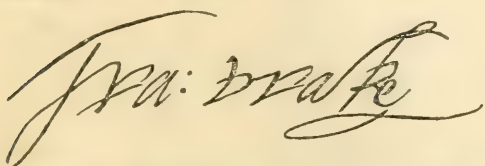
against the Spaniards, and projected new expeditions against them. He had no sooner made his plans known in his native country than a multitude of adventurers joined him. He now made two cruises to the West Indies, but avoided an engagement with the Spaniards. The result of these voyages, however, was so successful, that he received the command of two vessels in 1572, for the purpose of attacking the commercial ports of Spanish America. He captured the cities of Nombre de Dios and Vera Cruz, lying on the eastern coast of the isthmus of Darien, and took a rich booty. After his return, he equipped three frigates at his own expense, with which he served as a volunteer in an expedition to Ireland, under the command of the earl of Essex, father of Queen Elizabeth's favourite. On the death of his protector, he returned to England. Sir Christopher Hatton, vice-chamberlain and privy-counsellor of Queen Elizabeth, introduced him to this princess, and Drake immediately disclosed to her his plan, which was to pass through the straits of Magellan to the South Seas, and there to attack the Spaniards. The queen furnished him with means for equipping a fleet of five ships for this purpose. Drake sailed from Plymouth in November 1577, and arrived at the straits of Magellan in August 1578. Shortly after he succeeded in leaving the straits, but was overtaken by a storm the day after, which compelled him to steer to the south. Returning to the extremity of the straits, he called the bay in which he anchored The Parting of Friends on account of the separation of one of his ships. New storms again drove him to the south, and he now found himself between the islands which geographers, in later charts, have laid down as 200 leagues west of America.



But Fleurieu has proved that they belong to those numerous islands, as yet but little known, which compose the south-western part of the Archipelago of the Terra del Fuego: he has shown, likewise, that Drake then saw Cape Horn, and has, therefore, the honour of the discovery. On the 20th of November in the same year, Drake came in sight of the island of Mocha, south of Chili, where he had appointed a rendezvous for his fleet.

As none of his vessels arrived, he continued his course to the north, along the coast of Chili and Peru, in search of Spanish ships, and suitable places for making incursions into the country. When his crew was sufficiently enriched with booty, he followed the coast of North America, hoping to find a passage into the Atlantic. Deceived in his expectations, and compelled by the cold to return, he named the place where he repaired his vessels New Albion, and took possession of it in the name of Queen Elizabeth. On the 29th of September, 1579, he directed his course to the Moluccas, and anchored at Ternate November 3, 1580, soon after which he set sail for England, and arrived at Plymouth on the 4th of April, 1581. Elizabeth herself went on board Drake's vessel, then at anchor at Deptford, dined with him, knighted him, and publicly approved of what he had done.

In 1585 Drake disturbed the Spaniards anew in the Cape Verd islands, and in the West Indies, and in 1587 he commanded a fleet of thirty sail, which burned a part of the celebrated armada in the harbour of Cadiz, and in 1588 commanded, as vice-admiral, under Lord Howard, high-admiral of England, in the conflict with the Spanish armada, and so much was he feared that a rich galleon surrendered to him at the mere sound of his name. In 1589 he commanded the fleet intended to restore Don Antonio to the throne of Portugal; but this enterprise failed on account of a misunderstanding between Drake and the general of the land forces. In the mean time the war with Spain still continued, and Drake and Hawkins proposed to Elizabeth a new expedition against the Spaniards in the West Indies, which should surpass all that had preceded it. They were willing to bear a part of the expense, and the queen furnished ships. The expedition, however, was unfortunate. On the 12th of November, 1595, the day of Sir John Hawkins's death, Drake's vessel, in sailing from the port of Porto Rico, was struck by a cannon-ball, which carried away the chair in which he sat, without doing him any injury. The next day the Spanish vessels were attacked before Porto Rico with great violence, but without success. He then sailed to the continent, and set fire to Rio de la Hacha and Nombre de Dios, but having undertaken an expedition against Panama some days after, which entirely failed, the disappointment threw him into a slow fever, which terminated his life on the 9th of January, 1597. We add a correct fac-simile of the autograph of this distinguished naval commander.



DRAKE, FRANCIS, a laborious English anti-

quary, whose works have been much read. In 1736 he published "Eboracum, or the History and Antiquities of the City of York." Mr. Drake was elected F. S. A. in 1735, and F. R. S. in 1736. From this latter society, for whatever reason, he withdrew in 1769, and died the following year. Mr. Cole, who has a few memorandums concerning him, informs us that when the oaths to government were tendered to him in 1745, he refused to take them. He describes him as a middle-aged man (in 1749), tall and thin, a surgeon of good skill, but whose pursuits as an antiquary had made him negligent of his profession. Mr. Cole also says that Mr. Drake and Cæsar Ward, the printer at York, were the authors of the "Parliamentary or Constitutional History of England," printed in twenty-four volumes. This work extends from the earliest times to the restoration.

DRAKE, JAMES, a miscellaneous writer, who was born at Cambridge in 1667. He early dedicated himself to literary pursuits, and published a work which excited great interest in 1702. It was a history of the previous parliament, and the author was summoned before the House of Lords, and ordered to be prosecuted by the attorney-general, who brought him to a trial, at which he was acquitted the year following.

In 1704, being dissatisfied with the rejection of the bill to prevent occasional conformity, and with the disgrace of some of his friends who were sticklers for it, he wrote, in concert with Mr. Poley, member of parliament for Ipswich, "The Memorial of the Church of England, humbly offered to the Consideration of all True Lovers of our Church and Constitution." The treasurer Godolphin, and the other great officers of the crown in the Whig interest, severely reflected on in this work, were so highly offended, that they represented it to the queen as an insult upon her honour, and an intimation that the church was in danger under her administration. Accordingly her majesty took notice of it in her speech to the ensuing parliament, October 27, 1705; and was addressed by both Houses upon that occasion. Soon after the queen, at the petition of the House of Commons, issued a proclamation for discovering the author of the "Memorial," but no discovery could be made.

The parliament was not the only body that showed their resentment to this book, for the grand jury of the city of London having presented it at the sessions as a false, scandalous, and traitorous libel, it was immediately burnt in the sight of the court then sitting, and afterwards before the Royal Exchange, by the hands of the common hangman. But though Drake then escaped, yet as he was very much suspected of being the author of that book, and had rendered himself obnoxious upon other accounts to persons then in power, occasions were sought to ruin him if possible, and a newspaper he was publishing at that time, under the title of "Mercurius Politicus," afforded his enemies the pretence they wanted; for, taking exception at some passages in it, they prosecuted him in the Queen's Bench in 1706. His case was argued at the bar of that court, April 30, when, upon a flaw in the information (the simple change of an *r* for a *t*, or *nor* for *not*), the trial was adjourned, and in November following the doctor was acquitted, but the government brought a writ of error. The severity of this prosecution, joined to repeated dis-appointments and ill usage from some of his party, is

supposed to have produced a fever, of which he died at Westminster, March 2, 1707.

**DRAPER, SIR WILLIAM.**—This eminent military officer entered the army in 1760, and was for several years actively engaged in the East Indies. He was however principally distinguished for his controversy with Junius, of which a full account is given in Woodfall's edition of the "Letters." Sir William Draper died at Bath in 1787.

**DRAYTON, MICHAEL.**—This distinguished early English poet was born in the middle of the sixteenth century. In 1598 he published a collection of pastorals, under the title of "Idea: the Shepherd's Garland, fashioned in Nine Eclogues: with Rowland's Sacrifice to the Nine Muses," dedicated to Mr. Robert Dudley. This "Shepherd's Garland" is the same with what was afterwards reprinted with emendations in 1619, under the title of "Pastorals," containing eclogues; with the "Man in the Moon;" but the folio edition of Drayton's works, printed in 1748, though the title-page professes to give them all, does not contain this part of them. Soon after he published his "Barons' Wars," "England's Heroical Epistles," and his "Downfalls of Robert of Normandy, Matilda, and Gaveston," which were all written before 1598, and caused him to be highly celebrated at that time, when he was distinguished not only as a great genius, but as a good man. He was exceedingly esteemed by his contemporaries; and Burton, the antiquary of Leicestershire, after calling him his "near countryman and old acquaintance," adds further of him that, "though those transalpines account us tramontani, rude, and barbarous, holding our brains so frozen, dull, and barren, that they can afford no inventions or conceits, yet may he compare either with the old Dante, Petrarch, or Boccace, or their neoteric Marinella, Pignatello, or Stigliano. But why," says Burton, "should I go about to com-

value, when at the same time that he thinks his taste less correct, and his ear less harmonious than Daniel's, he asserts that "his genius was more poetical, though it seems to have fitted him only for the didactic, and not for the bolder walks of poetry. The 'Poly-Olbion' is a work of amazing ingenuity, and a very large proportion exhibits a variety of beauties, which partake very strongly of the poetical character; but the perpetual personification is tedious, and more is attempted than is within the compass of poetry. The admiration in which the 'Heroical Epistles' were once held, raises the astonishment of a more refined age. They exhibit some elegant images and some musical lines; but in general they want passion and nature, are strangely flat and prosaic, and are intermixed with the coarsest vulgarities of ideas, sentiment, and expression." Drayton died in 1631, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, with the monument represented in the previous column.

**DRAYTON, WILLIAM HENRY,** an American statesman and political writer, who was born in South Carolina in September 1742. In 1753 he came to England, and was placed in Westminster school; thence he removed in 1761 to Oxford, where he continued nearly three years, when he returned to South Carolina. In 1771 he was appointed by the British government privy counsellor for the province, and became conspicuous by his defence of the rights of his country against the encroachments and irregularities of the crown officers and judges. In 1774 he accepted the office of an assistant judge of the province. When the continental congress was about to sit at Philadelphia, he wrote and published a pamphlet under the signature of "Freeman,"—a production of which Ramsay, in his "History of South Carolina," observes, that "it substantially chalked out the line of conduct adopted by the congress." The lieutenant-governor suspended him from his place in the king's council in consequence of his representation of American grievances, and the "bill of American rights," which he submitted to the congress in his pamphlet. As soon as the revolution began, he became an efficient leader, and in 1775 was chosen president of the provincial congress. In March of the next year he was elected chief justice of the colony, in which character he delivered to the grand jury political charges of the most energetic character. He published, besides, a pamphlet refuting the suggestions in favour of Lord Howe's plan of a reconciliation with the mother country. Independence—unqualified independence—was his constant advice. In the year 1777 Mr. Drayton was invested with full powers as president of South Carolina, and early in the following year was elected a delegate to the continental congress. In this body he took a prominent part, and his speeches and writings against the propositions of the three British commissioners were particularly celebrated. The congress employed him on various important missions.

Mr. Drayton continued in congress until September 1779, when he died suddenly at Philadelphia in the thirty-sixth year of his age. He left behind him a considerable body of historical materials, which his only son, John Drayton, revised and published in 1821 under the title of "Memoirs of the American Revolution," from its commencement to the year 1776 inclusive, as relating to the state of South Ca-



mend him whom his own works and worthiness have sufficiently extolled to the world?"

The editor of Phillips's "Theatrum" appears to have appreciated the poetry of Drayton at its full



rolina, and occasionally referring to the states of North Carolina and Georgia.

**DREBBEL, CORNELIUS**, a natural philosopher and philosophical instrument maker, born at Alkmaer in North Holland in 1572, possessed a great spirit of observation, and a sufficient fortune to enable him to perform his mechanical and optical experiments. He soon became so celebrated that the emperor of Germany, Ferdinand II., intrusted to him the instruction of his sons, and appointed him imperial counsellor. In the troubles of 1620 he was made prisoner by the troops of Frederic V., elector palatine, and plundered of his property. He was, however, liberated by the interference of James I. of England, the father-in-law of Frederic, who delighted in the conversation of learned men, and to whose court he repaired. From this time he lived in London, constantly occupied in scientific pursuits, and died here in 1634. The accounts which his contemporaries give of his experiments are not to be trusted on account of the ignorance and credulity of the time. It is certain, however, that in mechanics and optics he possessed great knowledge for the age. He invented several mathematical instruments, and the thermometer which Halley, Fahrenheit, and Réaumur afterward brought to perfection.

**DRELINCOURT, CHARLES**.—This eminent divine was born at Sedan in 1595. After receiving a good education he took holy orders in 1618, and almost immediately became celebrated for his theological writings. His first essay was a "Treatise of Preparation for the Lord's Supper." This, and his "Catechism," the "Short View of Controversies," and "Consolations against the Fears of Death," have of all his works been the most frequently reprinted. Some of them, his book upon death in particular, have passed through above forty editions, and have been translated into several languages, as



German, Dutch, Italian, and English. His "Charitable Visits," in five volumes, have served for a continual consolation to private persons, and for a source of materials and models to ministers. He published three volumes of sermons, in which, as in all the forementioned pieces, there is a vein of piety very affecting to religious minds. His controversial works are very numerous.

He also wrote some letters which have been printed; one to the duchess of Tremouille upon her husband's departure from the protestant religion; one of consolation addressed to Madam de la Tabarriere; one upon the restoration of Charles II., king of Great Britain; some upon the English episcopacy, &c. He published also certain prayers, some of which were made for the king, others for the queen, and others for the dauphin. Bayle tells us that what he wrote against the church of Rome confirmed the Protestants more than can be expressed; for, with the arms with which he furnished them, such as wanted the advantage of learning were enabled to oppose the monks and parish priests, and to contend with the missionaries. His writings made him considered as the scourge of the Papists, yet, like Monsieur Claude, he was much esteemed and even beloved by them. Drelincourt died at Leyden in 1697.

**DREW, SAMUEL**.—This ingenious self-educated poet and metaphysical writer was born at St. Austell in Cornwall on the 3d of March, 1765. At eight years of age he was employed as a labourer in the mines, and he was afterwards apprenticed to a shoemaker. In his "Life, Character, and Literary Labours," we are told that "the hazards into which his adventurous disposition often led him are well remembered by one of the surviving companions of his boyish days. 'Though,' says he, 'I was younger than long-legged Sam, as we used to call him, I frequently went out with him; and the horror I have felt at the dangerous places in which he and some of the big boys used to go, has been often so great as to keep me from sleeping at night. In all such exploits he was the leader. He seemed to fear nothing and care for nobody, but he was a good-tempered boy, and a favourite with us all.'"

Being harshly treated by his master, he returned home, and his sister, in speaking of this event, throws a curious light on the amount of literature at that time current in the west of England. She says, "At the time my brother Samuel was an apprentice, my father was chiefly employed in what was called *riding Sherborne*. There was scarcely a bookseller at that time in Cornwall; and the only newspaper known among the common people was the 'Sherborne Mercury,' published weekly by Goadby and Co., the same persons that issued the 'Weekly Entertainer.' The papers were not sent by post, but by private messengers, who were termed *Sherborne men*. My father was one of these. Between Plymouth and Penzance there were two stages on the main road, each about forty miles; and there were branch riders in different directions, who held a regular communication with each other and with the establishment in Sherborne. Their business was to deliver the newspapers, Entertainers, and any books that had been ordered; to collect the money, and take fresh orders. Almost the whole county of Cornwall was supplied with books and papers in this way. My father's stage was from St. Austell to Plymouth. He always set off on his journey early on Monday morning and returned on Wednesday."

Young Drew's restless spirit made him join in one or two smuggling parties, at the peril of his life; and his father, to detach him from such wild, worthless associates, obtained him a place with a saddler at St. Austell.

Here it was that that change passed over hi

character to which the religious body of Methodists attach such a peculiar solemnity and significance. With the resolution to amend his ways came a thirst for knowledge. His activity required some outlet, and found it in examining dictionaries, in discovering his ignorance, and reading with avidity to supply the deficiency. Fortunately for his new taste, his master bound books as well as caparisoned horses. A gentleman brought Locke's "Essay on the Human Understanding" to be clothed anew; Drew looked into it, and from that moment his tendency towards metaphysics was decided.

He commenced business on his own account in January 1787, and the privations which were endured by himself and his sister, whom he had begged from his parents to keep his house, shall be told in her own words:—

"Many," observes Mr. Drew's sister, "were the distressing privations my brother and I underwent the first year. His resolution to 'owe no man any thing' was unconquerable; and I bore every thing cheerfully for his sake. Our family connexions being respectable, no one suspected our poverty. Though we managed to give the apprentice food enough, we often went with a scanty allowance ourselves. Sometimes we were driven to great straits for want of money; but my brother's resolution to keep out of debt continued unshaken. One market-day a relation called on us from a distance. I wanted to buy provisions; but neither my brother nor I had any money. Not liking, in the presence of a stranger, to expose our poverty, I said to my brother with assumed carelessness, 'Tis time for me to go to market. Have you any silver? I have none.' On his replying in the negative our visitor put some silver into my hand, saying, 'Take this. You can pay me the next time I call.' Necessity compelled us to accept this seasonable offer, without which I know not what we should have done."

But he was charitable as well as poor; and not a few anecdotes are told of his making use of the money he earned for the relief of the miserable—a noble trait, and, to the honour of human nature, one of more frequent occurrence than many will believe.

Mr. Drew, in the latter part of his life, employed himself unceasingly in his literary labours, and being ultimately connected with the Caxton establishment, he had every facility presented him for the publication of his works, of which the principal is his "Essay on the Immortality of the Soul."

DROUAIS, JOHN GERMAIN, a distinguished painter of the school of David, who was born at Paris in 1763. His desire of going to Rome to study the great works of art induced him to enter the lists for the great prize, which consisted of a pension for four years; but, being dissatisfied with his work, he destroyed it, and left the prize to another. When reproached for this by his master, who saw with surprise the remains of his picture, he said, "Are you satisfied with me?" "Perfectly," answered David. "Well, then, I have gained the prize," returned Drouais; "this was my aim; the prize of the academy belongs to another, to whom it may be more useful than it would have been to me; the next year I hope to deserve it by a better work." In 1784 Drouais again entered the lists. The Canaanitish Woman at the Feet of Jesus was the fruit of his study. He was publicly crowned, and led in

triumph by his fellow students to their master. He accompanied him as a pensioner to Rome, where he studied and copied the greatest masters. His Dying Gladiator, and particularly his Marius at Miturnæ, on being exhibited in Paris, gained him and David's school a new triumph. He now sketched his Philoctetes at Lemnos; but his career was suddenly checked by an inflammatory fever, which put an end to his life before he had completed his twenty-fifth year, and while he was engaged on a picture of Caius Gracchus. His rivals and his friends united in erecting a monument to him in St. Mary's church in the Via Lata.

DROZ, the name of three celebrated mechanics; the first of which was Pierre-Jacquet, born at Chaux-de-Fond. Aspiring to be something more than a mere workman, he endeavoured to perfect the different parts of clock-work, and succeeded in attaching to common time-pieces, at a small expense, machinery which produced music resembling the chime of bells and the music of a flute. His attempts to discover the means of effecting a perpetual motion led him to important discoveries. He contrived, among other things, a pendulum which, being composed of two metals of unequal dilatibility, remained unaffected by heat or cold. He afterwards made his celebrated writing automaton, which, by means of machinery contained within the figure, was made to move its fingers and hands, and to form handsome letters. His last work was an astronomical clock; but he was surprised by death before this was finished. His son, Henri-Louis-Jacquet, was born in 1752 at Chaux-de-Fond. From his earliest youth he was employed in mechanical works, and at the early age of twenty he went to Paris with some of the products of his labour; among which was an automaton, representing a young female, which played different tunes on the harpsichord, followed the notes in the music-book with her eyes and head, and, having finished playing, rose and saluted the company. In Paris he caused one of the workmen taught by his father to make a pair of artificial hands for a young man who was mutilated, by means of which he was enabled to perform most of the necessary offices for himself. "Young man," said the celebrated Vaucanson to Droz, when he saw this work, "you begin where I should be willing to end." He died in 1791 at Naples, where he had gone for the recovery of his health. Jean-Pierre Droz united himself in 1783 with Boulton, in Birmingham, for the purpose of striking the English copper coin. He made for the French mint a stamping machine which, with one stroke, and less expenditure of power than is required in the usual process, stamps both sides and the rim of coins.

DRUMMOND, SIR WILLIAM, a learned scholar and antiquary, who was born in Scotland, where his family possessed a considerable estate. In 1794 he published his first work, which was entitled "A Review of the Government of Sparta and Athens," and in 1798 he published his translation of the "Satires of Persius," in addition to which he was the author of a very valuable work entitled "Herculanensia, or Archæological Dissertations, containing a MS. found among the ruins of Herculaneum;" besides several other works of great research and merit. Sir William Drummond was a knight of the Order of the Crescent, a privy-counsellor, a fellow of the Royal Societies of London and



Edinburgh, and at one period filled the office of envoy extraordinary from Great Britain to the king of the Two Siciles. He died at Rome in March 1528.

DRUMMOND, WILLIAM, an ingenious Scottish poet, born at Hawthornden in 1585. He received his school education at Edinburgh, and afterwards studied at the university of that city, where he took the degree of master of arts. At the age of twenty-one he went to France, in compliance with his father's views, and attended lectures on the civil law, a subject on which he left sufficient documents to prove that his judgment and proficiency were uncommon. The president Lockhart, to whom these manuscripts were communicated, declared that if Mr. Drummond had followed the practice of the law, "he might have made the best figure of any lawyer in his time." After a residence abroad of nearly four years, he returned to Scotland in 1610, in which year his father died. Instead, however, of prosecuting the study of the law as was expected, he thought himself sufficiently rich in the possession of his paternal estate, and devoted his time to the perusal of the ancient classics, and the cultivation of his poetical genius. Whether he had composed or communicated any pieces to his friends before this period is uncertain. It was after a recovery from a dangerous illness that he wrote a prose rhapsody, entitled "The Cypress Grove," and about the same time his "Flowers of Zion, or Spiritual Poems," which, with the "Cypress Grove," were printed at Edinburgh in 1623. A part of his Sonnets, it is said, were published as early as 1616.

Drummond took up his residence permanently at his picturesque residence of Hawthornden, and to a mind thus early disposed and prepared to enjoy and to improve the advantages of solitude, no situation could be better adapted than the romantic seclusion of his paternal estate, a spot which, from the beauty and sublimity of its scenery, would seem purposely suited to foster and expand the powers of imagination; and here, indeed, it was that the best and earliest of his poems were composed. How deeply he was imbued with those sentiments and feelings which, even in the spring-time of life, lead their charmed votary from the busy haunts of man, will be evident from the two following sonnets, written during this period of his residence at Hawthornden, and taken, indeed, from poems, a part of which was printed as soon as 1616, if not before, and the rest in 1623. In the first which appeared in the earliest of these publications he seems to apprehend some approaching necessity which may compel him to quit his favourite retreat.

"Dear wood! and you, sweet solitary place,  
Where I, estranged from the vulgar, live,  
Contented more with what your shades me give,  
Than if I had what Thetis doth embrace;  
What snaky eye, grown jealous of my pace,  
Now from your silent horrors would me drive,  
When sun advancing in his glorious race  
Beyond the Twins, doth near our pole arrive?  
What sweet delight a quiet life affords,  
And what it is to be from bondage free,  
Far from the madding worldling's hoarse discords,  
Sweet flow'ry place, I first did learn of thee.  
Ah! if I were my own, your dear resorts  
I would not change with princes' stateliest courts."

Beautiful as is the expression as well as the sentiment of this sonnet, it is surpassed in both by its companion, which, whilst it breathes a calm and

philosophic dignity, is remarkable, at the same time, for the sweetness and harmony of its versification.

"Thrice happy he who by some shady grove,  
Far from the clamorous world, doth live his own,  
Though solitary, who is not alone,  
But doth converse with that eternal love:  
O how more sweet is birds' harmonious moan,  
Or the hoarse sobbings of the widow'd dove,  
Than those smooth whisperings near a prince's throne,  
Which good make doubtful, do the evil approve!  
O how more sweet is Zephyr's wholesome breath,  
And sighs embalm'd, which new-born flowers unfold,  
Than that applause vain honour doth bequeath!  
How sweet are streams to poison drunk in gold!  
The world is full of horrors, troubles, sights:  
Woods, harmless shades, have only true delights."

The subjoined specimen strongly reminds us of our great dramatic poet when apostrophizing the balmy influence of sleep:

"Sleep, Silence! child! sweet father of soft rest!  
Prince, whose approach peace to all mortals brings,  
Indifferent host to shepherds and to kings,  
Sole comforter of minds with grief oppress'd:  
Lo! by thy charming rod, all breathing things  
Lie slumb'ring, with forgetfulness possess'd;  
And yet o'er me to spread thy drowsy wings  
Thou spar'st, alas! who cannot be thy guest.  
Since I am thine, O come! but with that face  
To inward light, which thou art wont to show,  
With feigned solace ease a true-felt woe;  
Or if, deaf god, thou do deny that grace,  
Come as thou wilt, and what thou wilt bequeath,  
I long to kiss the image of my death."

The disturbances in Scotland induced Drummond to retire to the seat of his brother-in-law, Sir John Scot of Scotstarvet, a man of letters, and probably of congenial sentiments on public affairs. During his stay with this gentleman he wrote his "History of the Five James's," kings of Scotland, a work so inconsistent with liberal notions of civil policy as to have added very little to his reputation, although when first published, a few years after his death, and when political opinions ran in extremes, it was probably not without its admirers.

Drummond was warmly attached to the cause of the Stuarts, and his grief for the execution of his royal master is said to have been so great as to shorten his days. He died on the 4th of December, 1649, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and was interred in the church of Lesswade, near his house at Hawthornden. He left two sons and a daughter; William, who was knighted in Charles II.'s reign, Robert, and Elizabeth, who was married to Mr. Henderson, a physician of Edinburgh.

Dr. Drake remarks, that the fate which has attended the poetry of Drummond, great as is its beauty, has not been such as to place him on the list of popular bards. In fact, only four editions of his poems have been printed during the lapse of two hundred and ten years, and one of these was accompanied by his collected prose works. It would appear, indeed, that this neglect was foreseen by the poet, for he tells us in one of his early sonnets—

"I know that all the Muse's heavenly lays,  
With toil of sprite, which are so dearly bought,  
As idle sounds, a few or none are sought."

Yet have there been some, though few, who in the course of this long period have seen and done justice to his merits. Forty years after the impression of 1616, the earliest which is known, Edward Philips, the nephew of Milton, printed a second edition with the following title:—"Poems by that most famous Wit, William Drummond of Hawthornden." To this edition he has given a preface, which, as he usually wrote under Milton's immediate ob-

servance, may be considered perhaps as expressing the opinions of that great poet; a supposition which cannot fail to render an extract from its pages of high value.

"To say that these poems," he remarks, "are the effects of a genius the most polite and verdant that ever the Scottish nation produced, although it be a commendation not to be rejected (for it is well known that that country hath afforded many rare and admirable wits), yet it is not the highest that may be given him; for should I affirm that neither Tasso nor Guarini, nor any of the most neat and refined spirits of Italy, nor even the choicest of our English poets, can challenge to themselves any advantages above him, it could not be judged any attribute superior to what he deserves; nor shall I think it any arrogance to maintain that among all the several fancies that in these times have exercised the most nice and curious judgments, there hath not come forth any thing that deserves to be welcomed into the world with greater estimation and applause: and though he hath not had the fortune to be so generally famed abroad as many others perhaps of lesse esteeme, yet this is a consideration that cannot at all diminish, but rather advance his credit; for by breaking forth of obscurity he will attract the higher admiration, and, like the sun emerging from a cloud, appear at length with so much the more forcible rays. Had there been nothing extant of him but his 'History of Scotland,' consider but the language, how florid and ornate it is; consider the order and the prudent conduct of his story, and you will ranke him in the number of the best writers, and compare him even with Thuanus himself. Neither is he lesse happy in his verse than prose; for here are all those graces met together that conduce any thing toward the making up of a compleat and perfect poet; a decent and becoming majesty; a brave and admirable height; and a wit so flowing, that Jove himselfe never dranke nectar that sparkled with more sprightly lustre."

**DRUSUS.**—There were several distinguished Romans of this name, one of whom was Marcus Livius, tribune of the people with Caius Gracchus. He was also the father of Livia, the wife of M. Cato and the mother of Cato of Utica. He opposed the projects of the popular favourite, Caius Gracchus, so strenuously, that the patricians called him the *patronus senatus*. By his victories in Thrace, he made the Danube the boundary of the republic, was honoured with a triumph, and died in the office of censor, B. C. 110. His son Marcus Livius, grandfather of Livia, wife of Augustus, was distinguished for his talents, energy, and eloquence; but his zeal often led him to neglect the regular forms of proceeding in the republic, while his extravagant munificence and high opinion of himself sometimes caused him to commit imprudent actions. Rome was then divided by the disputes of the senate and the equestrian order. The power of the latter, which, since the time of the Gracchi, had risen to its utmost height, excited the jealousy of the senate, who struggled zealously for their old but now almost lost authority.

Drusus endeavoured to gain over the people to the party of the senate by the division of lands, to which the senate agreed with the utmost reluctance, and to gain the Roman allies by the promise of citizenship. He came forward, relying on his assistance as a

mediator between the hostile parties. He proposed to supply the vacant seats of the senators with knights, and to allow the new magistrates the judicial authority which, from the time of the Gracchi, had belonged to the knights alone, but before that time to the senators. He succeeded in his plan, notwithstanding the most violent opposition from both parties. But the jealousy with which each party guarded its rights, and the rash and violent manner in which Drusus had effected the union, rendered him unpopular with both parties. When, therefore, he proposed to grant the right of citizenship to the allies for their services to the senate, that body rejected the proposition decidedly, so that Drusus could effect nothing. On his return to his house from an assembly of the people, accompanied by a number of Latins, he was stabbed at his door by an unknown hand. He died a few hours after, with these words:—"When will the republic again possess such a citizen as I have been?" His death was the signal for the beginning of the social war which had been so long threatening.

Claudius Nero, son of Tiberius Nero and of Livia afterwards the wife of the emperor Augustus, and brother of Tiberius, who was afterwards emperor, was sent as questor, with his brother, against the Rhetians, whom he subdued. He then suppressed an insurrection in Gaul, defeated the Germans who dwelt beyond the Rhine, passed the river, and vanquished the Sicambri and Bructeri, and made the Frisians tributary to the Romans. He was the first Roman general who ventured upon the northern ocean. After these campaigns he became pretor, but returned in the next spring to Germany, subdued many tribes as far as the Weser, and commenced the erection of fortresses. On this account he was honoured with an ovation at Rome, and was appointed proconsul; the army saluted him with the title of imperator, which was not, however, sanctioned by Augustus. He was afterwards made consul, but returned soon after to Germany, and penetrated as far as the Elbe, but was unable to pass the river. He, however, ordered trophies to be erected there to testify his progress. He died in the same year, while on his return, in the thirtieth year of his age. The canal uniting the Rhine with the Yssel was his work; and the place called Drusenheim in Alsace, where he encamped for some time, received its name from him. By his wife Antonia he had a daughter, Livia, and two sons, Germanicus and Claudius, who afterwards became emperors. Rome lost in Drusus a man equally distinguished in the field and the council, and one of the most virtuous and noble citizens.

**DRYDEN, JOHN**, an eminent poet, who was born, according to the most probable accounts, on the 9th of August, 1631, in the parish of Aldwinkle-All-Saints, in Northamptonshire, where his father possessed a small estate, and acted as a justice of peace during the protectorate. The subject of this article, his eldest son, received his early education in the country, and was then removed to Westminster School, whence he was elected to a scholarship in Trinity College, Cambridge, and took his degree of bachelor of arts. His father dying in 1654, he succeeded to the possession of his estate, subject, however, to considerable deductions for the widow and younger children. He immediately removed to London, under the auspices of his relation, Sir



Gilbert Pickering, one of Cromwell's council and House of Commons. On the death of Oliver, he wrote his celebrated Heroic Stanzas on that event—one of the first of his poems that evinced the loftiness of expression and imagery which characterize his mature efforts. At the restoration he greeted the king's return in a poem, entitled "Astræa Redux," which was quickly followed by a panegyric on the coronation. In 1661 he produced his first play, the "Duke of Guise," and in the next year the "Wild Gallant." In 1662 also appeared his poem addressed to Chancellor Hyde and his satire on the Dutch. Setting aside the drama, to which his attention was unremitting, his next publication of consequence was the "Annus Mirabilis," published in 1667.

His reputation, both as a poet and a royalist, was by this time so well established that, on the death of Sir William Davenant, he was appointed poet



laureate and historiographer, with a salary of 200*l.* per annum. He soon after published his essay on dramatic poesy, which he had written in 1665, in his retirement during the plague; previously to which he had married Lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the earl of Berkshire. He now became professionally a writer for the stage, by entering into a contract with the patentees of the king's theatre to supply three plays a year. The earlier dramatic productions of Dryden were written in rhyme—a circumstance which favoured the rant that disfigured them in common with most of the tragedies of the day. To correct this fault, Villiers, duke of Buckingham, in conjunction with other wits, composed the "Rehearsal," in which celebrated burlesque Dryden was openly ridiculed in the character of Bayes.

In 1679 he joined Lord Mulgrave in an essay on satire; and in 1681, at the express desire of Charles II., he composed his celebrated political poem entitled "Absalom and Achitophel," in which the incidents of the rebellion of Absalom against David are admirably applied to Charles II., the duke of Monmouth, and the intriguing earl of Shaftesbury. The severity of this production raised him innumerable enemies, whom he still further enraged by his "Medal," a satire on sedition, written on the oc-

casión of a medal struck by the Whig party, when an indictment against Shaftesbury for high treason was declared *ignoramus*. The rancour of the last production is not easily to be paralleled. Having succeeded so well in political, he next essayed literary satire, attacked Shadwell in his "Mac Flecknoe." Soon after appeared his "Religio Laici," a compendious view of the arguments in favour of revelation, but with all his ability and industry Dryden suffered the anxiety attendant on straitened circumstances. He next published some classical translations and two volumes of miscellaneous poems, and on the death of the king composed his "Threnodia Augustalis," a funeral poem.

On the accession of James II. he conformed to the religion of the new sovereign, and one of the first fruits of this conversion was his controversial poem of the "Hind and the Panther," the very absurdity of the plan of which, overcome as it is by the force and beauty of the versification and execution, is highly honourable to the poetic talents of Dryden. By the loss of his places and pensions, in consequence of the revolution, he had nothing to trust to but his literary industry, and during the ten concluding years of his life, when he wrote actually for bread, and at so much per line, he produced some of the pieces which have most contributed to his well established fame. Passing over his translations of "Juvenal and Persius," and various minor works, it may be observed that he commenced his celebrated translation of Virgil in 1694, and it was sent to the press in 1697. He is supposed to have received 1300*l.* for this hasty but able translation. Soon after the appearance of Virgil he was solicited to write a second ode for St. Cecilia's day, which request produced his admirable "Alexander's Feast," the finest lyric poem in the English language. He then undertook to modernize Chaucer's Tales, contracting with a bookseller to furnish 10,000 lines for 300*l.* This bargain produced the collection called his "Fables," some of the most poetical pieces he ever composed. He soon after declined in health, but the immediate cause of his death was an inflammation in one of his toes, which, terminating in a mortification, put an end to his life on the 1st of May, 1700. The body of this great poet was interred in Westminster Abbey next to that of Chaucer. The place was for some time undistinguished by a monument, until a plain one, with his bust, was erected by Sheffield, duke of Buckingham.

Although reserved and saturnine, Dryden was friendly and humane, domestic in his habits, and affectionate towards his family. That the pen of such a man should be so freely prostituted to party rancour and venal panegyric, appears surprising; and it is equally so, that, although regular in his own manners, few went beyond him in the dramatic licentiousness of the age—a licentiousness, indeed, which converted the English stage into a school of the greatest immorality, a stigma under which it still justly labours. His narrow circumstances may have occasioned, but are not a sufficient apology for, these blemishes. He stands unrivalled in point of versification, and, in fulness and variety of harmony, and a fine flowing and restless current of numbers, he has never been surpassed. His style in prose, chiefly exhibited in the critical essays prefixed to his works, forms an excellent specimen of genuine English composition. Dryden's favourite

residence, where many of his works were written, is represented in the sketch beneath.



**DUBOIS, WILLIAM.**—This celebrated statesman and prime minister of the duke of Orleans, regent of France, was the son of an apothecary, and was born in 1656 in a small town in the province of Limousin. At the age of twelve years he was sent to Paris, and, after having studied in the college of St. Michael, he obtained the place of private tutor. He afterwards became acquainted with the sub-tutor of the duke of Chartres, M. de St. Laurent, who, having become infirm, was assisted in his duties by Dubois. Dubois ingratiated himself into the favour of his pupil, and after the death of St. Laurent was chosen to succeed him. From this time he played two parts—that of a tutor and that of a pimp to his young master. Louis XIV. wished to marry his nephew to his natural daughter, Mlle. de Blois. Monsieur, the king's brother, was not averse to the match, but the king was too well acquainted with the haughty spirit of the duchess to expect her consent. Dubois was therefore employed to gain her and the young prince. His address was successful, and he was rewarded with the abbey of St. Just in Picardy. Dubois, who had become sensible of his talents, allowed him to join the ambassador at London, where the chevalier Dubois made some important acquaintances, more particularly with Lord Stanhope, whose friendship was the source of his future good fortune.

Dubois returned to France, and, under the modest title of a secretary, soon became the privy-counsellor of the duke of Orleans and overseer of his household. He encountered with success the numerous obstacles and enemies opposed to his advancement. In 1715 the duke was declared regent; and Dubois, not less ambitious than artful, now ventured to indulge extravagant hopes. In spite of the opposition of the most influential persons, he was appointed by the duke counsellor of state. The intrigues of the Spanish court, at that time under the direction of the cardinal Alberoni, gave the duke much trouble and made him desirous of a powerful ally. Dubois therefore directed his attention towards England, and offered to conduct a secret negotiation with the court of this country. His acquaintance with Lord Stanhope was now very useful to him, and he succeeded in overcoming the dislike of George I. to the person of the regent, and in 1718 concluded the triple alliance between England, France, and Holland. It has been asserted that Dubois sold himself

to this country; but this is not true; on the contrary, it was necessary for him to buy others to succeed in his negotiations. He was rewarded by the place of minister of foreign affairs, and now began to aspire to the highest dignities of the church. The archbishopric of Cambray having become vacant, Dubois ventured to request it of the regent although he was not even a priest. The regent was astonished at his boldness; but as the king of England united with Dubois in his request he obtained it, and in one morning received all the orders, and a few days after the archbishopric.

By his consummate address he obtained a cardinal's hat, and in 1722 was appointed prime minister. His power had now no bounds, but his excesses had rendered him infirm, and he was scarcely able to get in and out of his carriage, yet he appeared on horseback for the sake of receiving military honours at a review. The exertion caused an internal injury, of which he died in August 1723. The duke of St. Simon has given an accurate picture of him: "Dubois was a little, thin, meagre, man, with a polecat visage. All the vices, falsehood, avarice, licentiousness, ambition, and the meanest flattery, contended in him for the mastery. He lied to such a degree as to deny his own actions when taken in the fact. Notwithstanding an affected stammering, which he had adopted for the purpose of gaining time to penetrate the motives of others, his rich, instructive, and insinuating conversation would have rendered him agreeable, had it not been for the mist of falsehood which issued from every pore and rendered even his gaiety unpleasant."

**DUBOS, JEAN BAPTISTE.**—This learned individual endeavoured to found a theory of the arts on general principles; and the foundation on which he rested his theory was the necessity which every one feels of exercising the powers of his mind and of setting his invention at work. He was born at Beauvais in 1670, studied there and at Paris, and was placed in 1695 in the office of foreign affairs under the minister De Torcy, who gave him several important commissions in Germany, Italy, England, and Holland. After his return to France he obtained a pension, and in 1722 was elected perpetual secretary of the French Academy. He distinguished himself as a historian by his "*Histoire de la Ligue de Cambray*," and by his "*Histoire Critique de l'Etablissement de la Monarchie Française dans les Gaules*." He died at Paris in 1742.

**DUCAREL, ANDREW COTTEE**, a distinguished writer on archæology, who was born at Caen in Normandy in 1713. Soon after his birth his father came to England, and young Ducarel received his education at Eton and at Oxford. In 1755 he was elected commissary of the collegiate church of St. Catharine, near the Tower of London, and shortly after was appointed librarian of the palace of Lambeth, in addition to which he received other posts of great trust; but of all the honours which he enjoyed none gave him greater satisfaction than the commissariat of St. Catharine's, a place to which he has done due honour in "*The History of the Royal Hospital and Collegiate Church of St. Catharine near the Tower of London, from its foundation in 1273 to the present time, 1782*," with seventeen plates. This history was originally compiled by the doctor for the use of her majesty. On a thorough repair of this curious old church in 1778 an empty vault was



discovered in the chancel, of a size that would hold two coffins and no more. This spot the doctor claimed in virtue of his office, and often pointed out to his friends as a resting-place for his ashes and those of his lady; and the remains of both were there actually deposited. In 1783 he published, as No. XII. of "*Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica*," Some Account of the Town, Church, and Archbishopal Palace of Croydon, in the county of Surrey from its foundation to 1783, originally drawn up by him in 1754 at the request of Archbishop Herring. He also drew up in the "*Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica*," the History and Antiquities of the Archbishopal Palace of Lambeth, from its foundation to 1785, which was dedicated, by permission, to Archbishop Moore; and in 1786 he contributed largely to "*The History and Antiquities of the parish of Lambeth in the county of Surrey, including Biographical Anecdotes of several eminent persons, compiled from original records, and other authentic sources of information.*"

Dr. Ducarel's great researches into antiquities occasioned his assistance to be courted in many publications, particularly that of Dr. Burton's "*Monasticon Eboracense*." He also was a candidate for the employment of arranging Mr. Bridges's "*Northamptonshire Papers*," with the late Rev. Peter Whalley, and with the late Rev. Mr. Buckler, of All-Souls College. A catalogue of the MSS. was sent him, and the general sense of the committee was in favour of Mr. Buckler; but at the meeting, on the ballot, Mr. Whalley had five votes, Mr. Buckler four, and Dr. Ducarel three, out of the thirteen who attended. He had drawn up also an account of Doctors' Commons, and, as an appendix to it, complete lists of the different chancellors of the several dioceses of this kingdom as high as the registers go, in folio, which were so nearly ready for publication, that he repeatedly promised them with that express intention to Mr. Nichols, who, at the doctor's request, caused complete indexes to be made to both. The materials for both these were among his collections in Mr. Gough's library. Another work which he intended for Mr. Nichols's press, and for which an index was in like manner made, was "*Testamenta Lambethana*;" being a Complete List of all the Wills and Testaments recorded in the Archbishopal Register at Lambeth, from A.D. 1312 to A.D. 1636, extracted by Dr. Ducarel, F.R. and A. SS. Lambeth Librarian, &c. with a Complete Index, A. D. 1779."

For many years it was his custom to travel incognito in company with his friend Samuel Gale, Esq. attended only by his own coachman and Mr. Gale's footman. Twenty miles was their usual stage on the first day, and every other day about fifteen. It was a rule not to go out of their road to see any of their acquaintance. The coachman was directed to say, "it was a job, and that he did not know their names, but that they were civil gentlemen;" and the footman, "that he was a friend of the coachman's, who gave him a cast." They usually took up their quarters at an inn, and penetrated into the country for three or four miles round. They constantly took with them "*Camden's Britannia*," and a set of maps. Dr. Ducarel closed a life of unremitted industry and application in antiquarian pursuits at his house at South Lambeth in May 1785.

DUCHAT, JACOB LE, a French editor, distinguished for his talents among the literati of his time.

He was born at Metz in 1658, and trained to the law which he followed till the reformed were driven out of France by the revocation of the edict of Nantz. In 1701 he settled at Berlin, became a member of the Academy of Sciences, and died there in 1735. He was regarded as a very learned person, yet is distinguished as an editor rather than an author. His peculiar taste for the ancient French writers led him to give new editions of the "*Menippean Satires*," of the works of Rabelais, of the "*Apology for Herodotus*," by Henry Stephens, &c. all accompanied with remarks of his own. He held a correspondence with Bayle, whom he furnished with many particulars for his Dictionary, and whose attachment to expatiating on indelicate passages, notes, &c. he too closely copied.

DUCHESNE, or DU CHESNE, ANDRE, from his historical researches has been called the father of French history. He was born in 1584 at Isle Bouchard in Touraine, and studied at London and Paris, after which he was appointed royal geographer and historiographer, and died in 1640. His most important works are his collection of French historians, which the French government have since several times expressed a wish to have completed, his "*Historiæ Normanorum Scriptores ab Anno*," and his genealogical works, which throw much light on the history of France. The number of his writings is very great, as he left more than a hundred folios in manuscript.

DUCIS, JEAN FRANCOIS, a French dramatic poet, known by his adaptation of many pieces of Shakspeare to the French theatre. He was born at Versailles, and late in life became a writer for the stage. His first piece called "*Amélie*," was unsuccessful, and those which followed it shared the same fate. His "*Hamlet*," however, attracted much attention, as it was the first of Shakspeare's plays which appeared on the French stage. This play and his next, "*Romeo and Juliet*," and likewise those which appeared later, were so much changed to adapt them to the French taste that the title, in some instances, is almost the only thing which reminds us of the original. These changes, however, only added to the applause with which they were received in France. He afterwards endeavoured, in his "*Edipe chez Admète*," to imitate the Greeks, but he soon returned to Shakspeare, and translated successively "*Lear*," "*Macbeth*," "*Othello*," and other plays. "*Abufar*," or the Arabian Family, is one of the best of his original pieces. His style is, perhaps, harsh, but generally noble, and full of tragic dignity. He succeeded Voltaire in the academy in 1778, and was subsequently made secretary to Louis XVIII. He remained true to this monarch under all circumstances, and, while on the point of starving, refused the place of a senator with 40,000 francs a year, and the cross of the legion of honour, offered him by Bonaparte. The return of Louis XVIII. made his old age happy, and he was highly gratified when the king recited some of his verses to him at his first audience. "I am more happy," said he, "than Boileau and Racine; they recited their verses to Louis XIV; the king recites mine to me." He died in March 1817 at Versailles.

DUCLOS, CHARLES PINEAU.—This celebrated French writer is well known as a novelist, a describer of character and manners, a writer of memoirs, and a grammarian. He was born in 1705 at Dinant,

received a good education at Paris, and early turned his knowledge to profit. Though he resided at Paris he was elected mayor of his native town in 1744, and when the states of Bretagne, in reward of their zeal for the welfare of the kingdom, were permitted to nominate such of their number as they thought most worthy of the royal favour, Duclos was unanimously elected one of the number, and received letters of nobility. Not long before his death he was appointed historiographer of France in Voltaire's place. He died at Paris in 1772. In the entertaining "*Mémoires de Madame d'Épinay*" the character of Duclos is represented in no very favourable light.

DUDLEY, EDMUND, was celebrated in English history as an instrument of Henry VII. in the arbitrary acts of extortion practised during the latter years of his reign. He was born in 1462 of an ancient and respectable family, and was educated at the University of Oxford. Becoming a student of the law at Gray's Inn, he arrived at such eminence in his profession as recommended him to the favour of the king, who made much use of his services, and conferred on him various offices and emoluments. In 1505 he was made Speaker of the House of Commons, and through his influence several enactments took place, oppressive to the people but profitable to the monarch. On the accession of Henry VIII. he perished on the scaffold, on the 18th of August 1510, with his associate, Sir Richard Empson (who was the son of a sieve-maker at Towcester).

DUDLEY, JOHN, duke of Northumberland, the son of Edmund Dudley. He was born in 1502, and after his father's execution was restored in blood by act of parliament. In 1542 he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Lisle, in right of his mother, who inherited that title. Soon after he was made K.G.; and at length the post of lord-high-admiral was conferred on him for life. He served with reputation in Scotland and France, and was left, by Henry VIII., one of the executors named in his will, as a kind of joint-regent during the minority of Edward VI. Under that prince he manifested the most insatiable ambition, and obtained vast accessions of honours, power, and emoluments. At first he joined his interest with that of the duke of Somerset, the king's uncle, whom, however, at length he undermined and destroyed. He had been advanced to the titles of earl of Warwick and duke of Northumberland; and after the fall of his rival his authority was almost unbounded. The illness of the king, over whom he had gained complete ascendancy, alarmed his fears, and he endeavoured to strengthen his interest by marrying his son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, who was descended from the younger sister of Henry VIII., and persuaded Edward to settle the crown on his kinswoman by will, to the exclusion of his two sisters, the princesses Mary and Elizabeth. The death of the king, the abortive attempts to place Lady Jane Grey on the throne, and the ruin of all those concerned in the scheme, are among the most familiar events in the annals of our country. Northumberland himself was beheaded on Tower Hill in August 1553. He professed himself a Catholic a short time before his execution, and died in that faith, though the avowed object of the plot was to secure the establishment of Protestantism in this country.

DUDLEY, SIR HENRY BATE, baronet, was born at Fenny Compton in August 1745. His fa-

ther, the Reverend Henry Bate, was rector of North Farmbridge in Essex, in which benefice his son Henry succeeded him at his death, but the emoluments of the living being but trifling, he established the "*Morning Post*" newspaper, and in 1780 the "*Morning Herald*," commencing also about the same time the "*Courier de l'Europe*"—a journal printed in the French language—and the "*English Chronicle*." At this period he was a contributor to the "*Probationary Odes*," the "*Rolliad*," and other works of a similar class. In 1781 the advowson of the rectory of Bradwell-juxta-Mare was purchased in trust for him, subject to the life of the Reverend George Pawson. In 1784 he assumed the name of *Dudley*, in compliance with the will of a relation. Mr. Pawson dying in 1797, Mr. Dudley presented himself to the vacant benefice; but the bishop of London refused institution, and a compromise was at length effected. In 1812 he received the living of Willingham in Cambridgeshire. Shortly after he obtained a baronetcy, and in 1816 the dignity of a prebend in Ely cathedral, which he retained till the day of his death, which took place on the 1st of February 1824. Sir Henry distinguished himself as a useful magistrate, while his literary abilities were manifested in the composition of a variety of dramatic pieces. Among these are the "*Fletcher of Bacon*," written for the purpose of introducing his friend Shield to the public, the "*Woodman*," the "*Rival Candidates*," the "*Blackamoor Washed White*" (at the representation of which party spirit ran so high as to produce a serious conflict), the "*Travellers in Switzerland*," and the popular piece "*At Home*." Sir Henry, at the time of his decease, was a magistrate for seven English counties, and four in Ireland.

DUDLEY, ROBERT, earl of Leicester.—This celebrated nobleman was the fifth son of the duke of Northumberland, and was born about 1532. He was knighted when young, and was made gentleman of the bed-chamber to Edward VI. Though involved in the criminal designs of his father, and included in the sentence of attainder passed against him on the accession of Mary, he was pardoned and employed by that queen, and after Elizabeth ascended the throne, Dudley soon acquired the distinction of being her favourite. Offices, honours, and wealth, were showered on him with an unsparing hand. He was appointed master of the horse, knight of the garter, and privy counsellor; and he received grants of the princely domains of Kenilworth, Denbigh, and Chirk castle. In 1560 the death of his wife took place at Cumnor-hall in Berkshire, an event, according to popular opinion, which involved Dudley in the guilt of murder. If he sacrificed the life of his consort in the hope of marrying the queen, his ambitious views were disappointed. Elizabeth, however, encouraged him to aspire to the hand of Mary of Scotland, who rejected him with disdain. In 1564 he was created Baron Denbigh and earl of Leicester, and was the same year elected chancellor of Oxford University, having previously been chosen to the same office at Cambridge. About 1572 he appears to have married the baroness-dowager Sheffield, Lady Douglas Howard, by whom he had children, but whom he disowned as his wife, and even compelled her to marry another person.

In 1575 he gave a princely entertainment to the queen at Kenilworth castle, the festivities of which are described in a picturesque manner in the cele-



brated romance of Kenilworth, and in defiance of chronology, connected with the death of Leicester's first wife. Leicester in 1578 offended the queen by his marriage with the widow of Walter Devereux, earl of Essex. He however recovered her favour, and in 1585 was appointed, through her influence, governor of the Netherlands, then recently emancipated from the Spanish yoke. His conduct in this station did not give satisfaction to the queen or to the states over which he presided, and he was recalled the following year. He returned to his command in June 1587, but he was finally displaced a few months after and returned to England. He was accused of misconduct by Lord Buckhurst and others, but Elizabeth still retained so much partiality for him that she supported him against all his enemies; and on the prospect of the Spanish invasion in 1588 she appointed him commander of the forces assembled at Tilbury for the defence of the kingdom. Leicester died in September the same year at Cornbury Park in Oxfordshire, and was interred in a chapel of the collegiate church of Warwick, where a splendid monument was raised to his memory.

DUFRESNE, or DU FRESNE, CHARLES, lord of Cange, hence often called Ducange, a man of letters, who did much for the history of the middle ages, especially as regards his own country, as well as for the Byzantine history. He was born in 1610, at a farm near Amiens, of a respectable family, and studied in the Jesuits' College at that place, and afterwards at Orleans and Paris. At this last place he became parliamentary advocate in 1631, and in 1645 royal treasurer at Amiens, from which place he was driven by a pestilence in 1668 to Paris. Here he devoted himself entirely to literature, and published his great works, viz., his "Glossary of the Greek and Latin peculiar to the Middle Ages and the Moderns," his "Historia Byzantina," the "Annals of Zonaras," the "Numismatics of the Middle Ages," and other important works. He died in 1688.

DUGDALE, SIR WILLIAM, a distinguished antiquary and historian, who was born at Shustoke in Warwickshire in 1605. In 1638 he went to London, and was introduced to Sir Christopher Hatton and to Sir Henry Spelman, by whose interest he was created a pursuivant at arms extraordinary by the name of Blanch Lyon, having obtained the king's warrant for that purpose. Afterwards he was made Rouge-Croix-pursuivant in ordinary, by virtue of the king's letters patent, dated the 18th of March, 1640. In 1641, through Sir Christopher Hatton's encouragement, he employed himself in taking exact draughts of all the monuments in Westminster Abbey, St. Paul's cathedral, and in many other cathedral and parochial churches of England, particularly those at Peterborough, Ely, Norwich, Lincoln, Newark-upon-Trent, Beverley, Southwell, York, Chester, Lichfield, Tamworth, Warwick, &c. In the following year he was ordered by the king to repair to York, and in July commanded to attend the earl of Northampton, who was marching into Worcestershire and the places adjacent in order to oppose the forces raised by Lord Brook for the service of the parliament. He waited upon the king at the battle of Edge-hill, and afterwards at Oxford, where he continued with his majesty till the surrender of that garrison to the parliament in June 1646. During his long residence at Oxford

he searched for such antiquities in the Bodleian and other libraries as he thought might be of importance in the completion of the "Monasticon," the plan of which was then designed by Roger Dodsworth and himself, as also whatever might relate to the history of the ancient nobility of this realm, of which he made much use in his baronage.

After the surrender of Oxford, upon articles, Dugdale, having the benefit of them, and having compounded for his estate, repaired to London, where he and Dodsworth proceeded to complete their collections out of the Tower records and Cottonian Library. They printed at their own charge the first volume, which was published in 1655 in folio, under the title of "Monasticon Anglicanum," adorned with engraved views of abbeys, churches, &c. The second volume was published in 1631, but the third did not appear until 1673. Shortly after the appearance of the second volume of the "Monasticon," Mr. Dugdale published, at his own expense, "The Antiquities of Warwickshire Illustrated, from Records, Leiger-Books, Manuscripts, Charters, Evidences, Tombs, and Arms; beautified with Maps, Prospects, and Portraitsures," folio. The author states in his preface, that he spent the greatest part of his time for more than twenty years in accomplishing this work, which indeed is justly considered his masterpiece.

On the restoration of Charles the Second he was created Norroy king at arms; and in 1662 he published "The History of Imbanking and Draining of Divers Fens and Marshes, both in Foreign Parts and in this Kingdom, and of the Improvement thereby, extracted from records, manuscripts, and other authentic testimonies, adorned with sundry maps, &c." About the same time he completed the second volume of Sir Henry Spelman's Councils, and published it in 1664 under this title: "Concilia, Decreta, Leges, Constitutiones in Re Ecclesiarum Orbis Britannici, &c. ab Introitu Normannorum, A. D. 1066, ad Exutum Papam A.D. 1531. Accesserunt etiam alia ad Rem Ecclesiasticam Spectantia," &c. Archbishop Sheldon and Lord Clarendon employed Dugdale upon this work, and they also employed him to publish the second part of Sir Henry's "Glossary." In 1666 he published his well-known work, entitled "Origines Juridicales," and in the following year he was created Garter King-at-Arms, and the day after received from his majesty the honour of knighthood, much against his will on account of the smallness of his estate. In 1681 he published "A short View of the Late Troubles in England, briefly setting forth their rise, growth, and tragical conclusion, &c." This is perhaps the least valued of all his works. He published also at the same time, "The Ancient Usage in Bearing of such Ensigns of Honour as are commonly called Arms, &c.," a second edition of which was published in the beginning of the year following, with considerable additions. The last work he published was "A Perfect Copy of all Summons of the Nobility to the Great Councils and Parliaments of this Realm, from the 49th of King Henry III. until these present times, &c., 1685." His collections of materials for the "Antiquities of Warwickshire," and "Baronage of England," all written with his own hand, contained in twenty-seven volumes, he gave by will to the University of Oxford, together with sixteen other volumes, some in his own hand-writing, which are now preserved in Ashmole's Museum. He gave likewise several books to the Herald's Office

in London, and procured many more for their library. Sir William Dugdale died rather suddenly on the 10th of February 1686, and was buried at Shustoke in Warwickshire.

**DUGUAY-TROUIN, RENE**, one of the most distinguished seamen of his time. He was born in 1673 at St. Malo, was the son of a rich merchant and skilful navigator. He made his first voyage in 1689, in a vessel which his family fitted out, in the war against this country and Holland. His courage induced his family to trust him with a ship of fourteen guns, and being driven on the coast of Ireland, he burnt two ships and took a fort in spite of the opposition of a numerous garrison. He was once taken prisoner and carried into Plymouth, where he gained the love of a lady who procured him his liberty. Duguay-Trouin, now in his twenty-first year, attracted the attention of the government, and Louis XIV. sent him a sword. He captured great numbers of English and Dutch ships on the coast of Spain and Ireland, and in 1696 he took a great part of the outward bound Dutch fleet under Wassenaar. He signalized himself so much in the Spanish war that the king granted him letters of nobility, in which it was stated that he had captured more than 300 merchant ships and twenty ships of war. Under Louis XV. he rendered important services in the Levant and the Mediterranean. He died at Paris, 1736.

**DUJARDIN, CHARLES**, a painter, born in 1640 at Amsterdam. He went to Italy when young, and was a member of the society of painters at Rome, among whom he was called Barba di Becco. On his return to his native country he contracted considerable debts at Lyons, to free himself from which he married his old and rich landlady. He went with her to Amsterdam, where his pictures were valued very highly. But he soon secretly left his home in that city, probably from dislike to his wife, and went to Rome, where he was welcomed by his old friends and admirers, and lived at a great expense. Thence he went to Venice, where he died in 1678 in the prime of life. His landscapes have spirit and harmony, his figures expression, and his colouring the brilliancy which distinguishes his school. His paintings are rare, and command a high price.

**DUMARSAIS, CESAR CHESNEAU**, a French philologist, who was born in 1676 at Marseilles. He early lost his father, and his fortune was dissipated by the extravagance of his mother, who sold a library which he inherited. The idea of losing the latter so disturbed the boy, then but seven years old, that he concealed all the books of which he could possess himself. He afterwards became an advocate, married unhappily, and died in 1756. His merits were overlooked by his own age, and his best works remained for a long time unknown. D'Alembert aptly calls him the La Fontaine of philosophers. De Gerando, in a prize dissertation, presented to the French Institute in 1805, has justly appreciated the merit of this profound inquirer. His works were published at Paris 1797 in seven volumes. The principal are, "A New Method of Teaching the Latin Language," "A Treatise on Tropes," "The Principles of (general) Grammar," and his contributions to the Encyclopædia.

**DUMMER, JEREMY**, an eminent American scholar and political writer, who was born in Boston, and was graduated at Harvard College in 1699. At the University of Utrecht he passed several years,

and obtained a doctor's degree. He afterwards came to England, with the intention of pursuing the career of a minister of the gospel. Here he formed political connexions of a high order. The celebrity which he acquired as a writer and man of business caused him to be chosen, in 1710, agent for the province of Massachusetts. In this capacity he exerted his great abilities and influence with constant zeal for the benefit of his constituents; but in the course of some years his political attachments and general deportment rendered him so unpopular that in 1721 he was dismissed. Dummer contracted irreligious opinions and licentious habits, owing, said his enemies, to his personal intercourse with Lord Bolingbroke, who employed him in secret negotiations, and promised him a high office, which was never given. He wrote an admirable pamphlet in defence of the New England charters, when they were threatened in 1721. This work constitutes the best specimen of his English style, which is uncommonly elegant and forcible. His Latin dissertations in theology and philosophy have also much merit. He died in 1739, having spent the last few years of his life in literary retirement.

**DUMONT, STEPHEN**.—This learned individual was born at Geneva in 1759, of a family which had suffered great reverses of fortune, and from his infancy he had to contend with adversity. He early displayed superior talents, spirit, and intelligence, was destined to the ecclesiastical career, and was ordained a minister of the protestant church in 1781. He attached himself to the democratic party in Geneva, and when the opposite party gained the ascendancy, he went to Petersburg, where he was appointed pastor of the French reformed church. He had remained there but eighteen months when Lord Lansdowne invited him to England, with the intention of employing him to finish the education of his son. It was in the house of this statesman that he formed intimate connexions with some of the men who have done most honour to Great Britain, particularly Sir Samuel Romilly. The French revolution took him to Paris in the year 1789, and he was soon called to associate himself with the men who were selected, for their station and intelligence, to direct the destinies of France. It is asserted that the celebrated address of the king, proposed by Mirabeau on the 9th of July, 1789, to obtain the sending back of the troops, was composed by Dumont. They undertook together a journal, the "Courier of the Provinces," designed to develope and render popular the new doctrines; and, as was likely to happen in such a partnership, the most assiduous as well as the most important labour fell upon Dumont.

As soon as scenes of violence and cruelty began to sully the cause of liberty, Dumont quitted Paris and returned to England before the sickness of Mirabeau, who died in April 1791. When the details of the reign of terror reached Dumont in England, he was overcome with grief, and remained for some years plunged in sadness. What contributed the most to draw him from this state of depression was his increased intimacy with Jeremy Bentham, whom he had known since 1788; and this friendship of Dumont for Bentham was kept up, without deviation or division, to the end of his life. He sometimes said of what he most admired in other philosophers, "It is convincing—it is truth itself—it is almost Benthamic." It is well known that Mr. Dumont has edited many



of the works of this distinguished lawyer, after divesting the ideas of the uncouth garb in which the author had clothed them. Dumont has spoken of the manuscripts which his friend put into his hands as "a first draft," "unfinished manuscripts," not corrected," "fragments or simple notes." Mr. Dumont, judging that the manuscripts of Mr. Bentham would never be published, or, if they were, in the original form, would produce no impression, succeeded in having them given up to him to do what he wished with them. Bentham "refused at the same time any participation in the work, and declared that he should in no way hold himself responsible for it."

**DUMOURIEZ, CHARLES FRANCOIS.**—This distinguished military commander was born at Cambray in 1739, joined the army in Germany under Marshal Estrées in 1757, and was appointed a commissary. He then served as a cornet in the regiment of Escars. The day before the battle of Clostercamp he was wounded and taken prisoner; in 1761 was made a captain, but was afterwards dismissed. The conquest of Corsica being determined upon, Dumouriez went as quarter-master-general of the small army which was sent thither, and was afterwards made colonel. In 1770 the government gave him a commission to oppose the measures of the Russian court at the confederation of Bar. In 1773 he was sent by the king on a mission to Sweden, but was arrested at Hamburg by D'Aiguillon, to whom the mission was not agreeable, and put in the Bastille. In 1776 he was appointed one of the commissioners to examine whether a naval dock should be constructed on the coast of the English channel, and made an unsuccessful application for the command of Cherbourg. In 1789 he published a pamphlet in favour of the principles then in vogue, but failed in obtaining, as he wished, the rank of general. He therefore returned to Cherbourg, where he was made commander of the national guard in that city, and governor of Lower Normandy. At the end of the year he again returned to the capital, where he became a member of the Jacobin club. He afterwards sought to effect a union with Mirabeau, with whom he had formerly been at variance. About this time he was made field-marshal of the twelfth division of the army; but, being dissatisfied with a post where he had little opportunity to distinguish himself, he staid in the capital, and courted more than ever the Jacobin party. After leaving the ministry, in which he had been placed for some time, he was made lieutenant-general in the army of Luckner on the northern frontiers, and was invested with the command of this army after the departure of Lafayette. The Prussians, Austrians, and united emigrants, had then made themselves masters of Longwy and Verdun, and were advancing upon Champagne. He took his position at Grandpré, and occupied the five passes of the woody heights of Argonne; but when the pass of Croix aux Bois was forced by the Austrians, he retired to St. Menchould, while Kellerman maintained his position at Valmy, and then opened a negotiation with the king of Prussia. In October he returned to Paris, and formed a plan with the executive council for the winter campaign. On his return to the army he issued a proclamation calling upon the Belgians to rise against their sovereign, and assaulted the Austrian camp at Jemappe. Notwithstanding their small numbers the imperial troops

did not yield till after a long and bloody battle, after which he took up his winter quarters on the Meuse and the Roer. At this time his hostility to the minister Pache, with whom he had been at open variance during the whole campaign for neglecting the supplies of his army, broke out into an open quarrel. He then repaired to the capital, with the view, as he tells us in his "Memoirs," of delivering the king, whose trial was then beginning. On a second journey thither he saw many more deputies on the side of the Girondists, but he had little influence, and was himself accused in the convention.

Early in 1793 he opened the campaign with the bombardment of Maestricht, and from Breda and Clundert, both which places he had captured, he made his attack on Holland. The greatest part of his troops, however, whom he had scattered in winter quarters, were in no condition to meet the prince of Coburg. This general assaulted the French outposts on the Roer, overcame them, and threatened Maestricht. Dumouriez now drew together his troops to the plains of Tirlemont, gave battle to the Austrians at Neerwinden, and was defeated, owing, according to his own account, to the mismanagement of Miranda, who commanded the left wing. He met with another loss at Louvain, and found himself obliged to retreat. These disasters were the signal for his downfall. All who wished his ruin now rose against him. On his arrival at the French frontiers, four commissioners and the minister Beurnonville, who were sent to arrest him, were delivered by him into the hands of the Austrians. He then issued a proclamation, in which he promised the restoration of the constitutional monarchy in the person of the heir to the crown, but was attacked by the Versailles volunteers, compelled to cross the Scheldt, and to fly to the prince of Coburg. The convention set a price of 300,000 livres upon his head. At first he retired to Brussels, afterwards to Cologne. The elector refusing him a residence in Mergentheim, he went to Switzerland, and then passed over to England, which however he was compelled to quit by command of Lord Grenville. He then roved about for some time in Switzerland and Germany, and at last settled near Hamburg. Here he published his "Memoirs." There was no party except that of the Mountain for which this political Proteus did not declare himself in some of the various pamphlets that he published during his exile. In 1805, at the time of the battle of Austerlitz, he was in Teschen. Shortly after the battle of Eylau he wrote his "Jugement sur Bonaparte, adressé à la Nation Française et à l'Europe." During the Spanish and Portuguese war he was very active in communicating plans to the English government and to the Spanish and Portuguese authorities. In the Neapolitan revolution in 1821 he also communicated plans of defence to the parliament. The British ministry granted him an annual pension of 1200*l*. He died in March 1823 at Turville Park, near Henley-upon-Thames, at the advanced age of eighty-four.

**DUNBAR, WILLIAM**, a distinguished Scottish poet, who was born in the year 1465. In his youth he appears to have been a travelling novice of the Franciscan order, but resigned his office early in life, probably when he was about twenty-five years of age. In his "Thistle and Rose," one of his best known poems, he speaks of himself as a poet that had already made many songs; and it is also pro-

bable that his tales, "The Two Merrit Wemen and the Wedo," and "The Freirs of Berwikt," were written before his "Thistle and Rose." However this may have been, Dunbar, after being the author of "The Goldin Terge," a poem of the highest merit, died in old age about 1530. In his younger years he appears to have had great expectations that his abilities would have recommended him to an ecclesiastical benefice, and in his smaller poems he frequently addresses the king for that purpose; but there is no reason to believe that he was successful, although it may be thought that the "Thistle and Rose," which was occasioned by the marriage of James IV., king of Scotland, with Margaret Tudor, eldest daughter of Henry VII., king of England, deserved better treatment at the hands of the young royal pair.

DUNCAN, ADAM, VISCOUNT, a naval officer of distinguished skill and courage, was born in Scotland in 1731. He went to sea when young, obtained a lieutenantancy in 1755, and was raised to the rank of post captain in 1761. In that station he served in the following year at the taking of Havanna, and in 1779 he shared in the victory of Admiral Rodney over the Spaniards. In 1789 he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral of the blue; and, by regular gradation, in 1794 he became vice-admiral of the white squadron. The following year he was appointed commander of the North Sea fleet, when, after a tedious and harassing service of two years, occupied in watching the motions of the Dutch in the harbour of the Texel, Admiral Duncan found himself obliged to leave his station and sail to Yarmouth Roads in consequence of the mutinous disposition of his sailors. The Dutch fleet put to sea, which was no sooner known to Admiral Duncan's men than they returned to their duty, and he immediately sailed in pursuit of the enemy, came up with them, defeated them, and captured the commander, Admiral De Winter, and eight of his ships. The conqueror was rewarded with the title of Viscount Duncan, and a pension of 2000*l.* a year. He died in August 1804.

*Duncan*

DUNCAN, DANIEL, an eminent physician, who was born in 1649 at Montauban, and educated at Montpellier, where he took his degree of M. D. After living for the best part of his life in different parts of the continent, he came to London, where he died in 1735. He was the author of several valuable medical works, among which we may mention that entitled "La Chymie Naturelle."

DUNCAN, WILLIAM, a Scotch professor of philosophy, who was born in 1717. He was originally intended for the clerical profession, but, disliking it, he came to London and devoted himself to literature. He is best known from his work entitled "Elements of Logic," but was also the author of an elegant version of Caesar's "Commentaries." He also translated several of the orations of Cicero, &c. He died in 1760.

DUNCOMBE, JOHN, a poet of some eminence, who was born in 1730. He received his education at Cambridge, and having taken orders he obtained

in 1757 a benefice in the city of Canterbury, and was afterwards appointed one of the preachers in the cathedral of that city. He was the author of several works of merit, among which we may mention his "Feminead," a work devoted to the commemoration of female excellence. He died in 1785.

DUNDAS, HENRY, VISCOUNT MELVILLE, was born in 1740, studied at the university of Edinburgh, and in 1763 was admitted a member of the Faculty of Advocates. He obtained the post of solicitor-general in 1773, and was made joint keeper of the signet for Scotland in 1777. On the passing of the act of parliament for regulating the affairs of the East India Company, Mr. Dundas was appointed president of the board of control; and in 1791 he was made secretary of state for the home department, and shortly after he became secretary at war. On the resignation of Mr. Pitt, he also retired from public life; and when the former resumed the helm of state, he was appointed first lord of the admiralty. In 1805 he was impeached before the House of Lords of high crimes and misdemeanors in his former office of treasurer of the navy, but as the evidence adduced against him did not directly implicate him in the malversation proved against his deputy, he was acquitted. He did not, however, hold any situation afterwards except that of privy counsellor. His death took place in May 1811. He was created Viscount Melville in 1801, and was succeeded in that title by his son.

DUNNING, JOHN, LORD ASHBURTON, an eminent lawyer, born in October 1731. He was educated at the free school of his native place, and served his clerkship to his father; but, early determining to study for the bar, he pursued a course of assiduous application, both before and after his admission. The first thing which established his character was his employment in 1759 to draw up a defence of the East India Company against the claims of the Dutch. This memorial, being esteemed a masterly production, gained him considerable practice, which was greatly augmented by his becoming counsel for Wilkes in all the causes produced by the question of the general warrants. He distinguished himself in such a manner on this popular occasion as to obtain the character of a sound constitutional lawyer, and his practice soon after became the most lucrative at the English bar. In 1766 he was chosen recorder of Bristol, and in 1767 solicitor-general, which office he resigned in 1770 in consequence of the resignation of his patron, Lord Shelburne, by whose interest he had been chosen member for Calne in Wiltshire. From the time of his resignation he remained a firm opponent to the ministry who conducted the American war; and, on the return of Lord Shelburne to power in 1782, he was made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and advanced to the peerage by the title of Lord Ashburton. He died in August 1783, leaving one son.

DUNOIS, JEAN, COUNT OF ORLEANS AND OF LONGUEVILLE, a natural son of Louis, duke of Orleans, who was born in 1402. Dunois made the name "Bastard of Orleans" illustrious by his military exploits. He began his career with the defeat of Warwick and Suffolk, whom he pursued to Paris. Being besieged by the English, he defended Orleans with the greatest courage until relieved by the maid of Orleans. And to the count



of Orleans belongs almost entirely the honour of expelling the enemies of his country from Normandy and Guienne. In 1441 he gave them their death-blow at Chatillon; and it may truly be said, that Charles VII. was indebted to him for his crown. Dunois received from him the title of "deliverer of his country," the county of Longueville, and the dignity of high-chamberlain of France. Louis XI. valued him no less. Notwithstanding this, Dunois was the soul of the league which was formed against Louis, under the name of the "league for the public good." He died in 1468.

**DUNS, JOHN**, commonly called Duns Scotus, an eminent scholastic divine of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. He was born at Dunstance, near Alnwick, in Northumberland, and was admitted, when young, into an institution belonging to the Franciscan friars at Newcastle, whence he was sent to Merton College, Oxford. Becoming celebrated for his skill in scholastic theology, civil law, logic, and mathematics, he was in 1301 appointed divinity professor at Oxford; and the fame of his learning and talents drew crowds of scholars from all parts. In 1304 he was sent by his superiors to Paris, in the university of which city he was admitted to the highest honours, and appointed professor and regent in the theological schools, in which situation he acquired the title of "the most subtle doctor." Nothing, however, could be more barren and useless than the chimerical abstraction and metaphysical refinements which obtained him this title. Duns opposed Aquinas on the subject of grace; and hence the Scotists are opposed to the Thomists. The immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary was another of the tenets which divided these fierce antagonists; and it is believed by many authors that it was Duns who first propounded it. In the year 1308 he was sent to Cologne, by the head of his order, to teach theology, but died of apoplexy, or, as a disputed account asserts, buried before he was actually dead, as was discovered by an examination of his grave. His death happened, according to some writers, in his thirty-fourth, and to others, in his forty-third year.

**DUNSTAN, ST.**, an Anglo-Saxon divine and statesman of the tenth century, alike celebrated in legendary and authentic history, was born at Glastonbury in 925, and was educated under the Irish ecclesiastics, who were inmates of the celebrated abbey at that place. He acquired a knowledge of the Latin language and of philosophy, and studied the scriptures and the writings of the fathers; besides which, he became skilled in music, painting, carving, and working in metals. He was introduced, early in life, to the court of King Athelstan by his uncle Athelm, archbishop of Canterbury. Some indiscretion, or the jealousy of rivals, compelled him to retire from court; and the disappointment of his prospects, together with a dangerous fit of sickness, seriously impressed his mind, and led him to seek for tranquillity in the monastic life. He took the vows at Glastonbury, and devoted himself with ardour to the duties of his profession. So entirely had he relinquished all views of secular ambition, that he divided between the church and the poor a valuable estate bequeathed to him by a wealthy Saxon lady, as well as his paternal inheritance, which devolved to him at this period.

On the death of Athelstan, Edmund, the brother

and successor of that prince, invited him to court; and Edred, the next king, made him his prime minister and principal director in civil and ecclesiastical affairs. On the death of Edred, his nephew Edwy, who was, probably, not more than fourteen years of age, ascended the throne. The enmity of the profligate courtiers was particularly directed against Dunstan, who was obliged to flee from his native country. He took refuge in Flanders, where he remained till he was recalled to England by King Edgar, to whom the imprudent Edwy had been obliged to cede a part of his dominions. Dunstan was made bishop of Worcester, and, when Edgar became possessed of the whole kingdom, was raised to the see of Canterbury. In this station his influence was exerted in promoting the introduction of the rule of St. Benedict, which inculcated vows of chastity into the monastic institutions in England. The secular priests, who were generally married, were expelled from religious houses, and replaced by Benedictine monks, wherever the power of Dunstan extended. During the reign of Edgar he was supported in the execution of his plans by the royal authority; but under Edward the Martyr he experienced great opposition from the patrons of the secular clergy; and, after Ethelred II. became king, his influence still further declined, and he thenceforward interfered but little in public affairs. He died in 988. Few characters in English history have been more variously represented than that of Dunstan. The monks represent him as the most learned and accomplished prelate and most eminent statesman of his age. Popular tradition paints him as a master of magic arts, subjecting demons to his power. Modern Protestant writers have imputed the imaginary miracles of Dunstan to his hypocrisy, overlooking their real origin in popular misconception.

**DUNTON, JOHN**, a miscellaneous writer, who was born at Grafton in 1659. He commenced life as a bookseller, but, failing in business, he became a writer for the periodical press; but his most curious production is entitled "Dunton's Life and Errors." He died in 1733.

**DU PAN, MALLET**, a celebrated political writer, who was born at Geneva in 1749. After having been some time engaged in opposing the principles of the French revolution, he finally settled in London, where he carried on a periodical work entitled "Mercure Britannique" till the time of his death, which occurred in 1800.

**DUPATY, JEAN BAPTISTE MERCIER**, was born in 1746 at Rochelle. In 1767 he became advocate-general to the parliament of Bourdeaux, afterwards president à mortier of that body, and drew upon himself by his love of strict justice the persecutions of the ministerial despotism which oppressed France in the last years of Louis XV. Having written in the name of the parliament of Bourdeaux against the duke of Aiguillon, when this nobleman became minister in 1770 he was sent to Pierre-en-Cise, and afterwards banished until the accession of Louis XVI. Being acquainted with the defects of the ancient administration of justice in France, he made every exertion to expose them, and the memorial by which he preserved the lives of three innocent citizens of Chaumont, who were condemned to the wheel, deserves particular mention. His other works are "Reflexions Historiques sur les Loix Criminelles,"

a valuable work, various "Discours Académiques," and "Lettres sur l'Italie en 1785," which appeared in 1788. These letters, among many prejudiced views, contain some excellent observations on the arts and interesting descriptions of natural scenery, but his style is often disfigured by laboured ornaments. He died in 1788 at Paris.—His son Charles Mercier Dupaty, was born at Bourdeaux in 1771. He was a member of the French Institute, and professor in the *école des beaux arts*. His principal productions are Ajax pursued by Neptune, his equestrian statue of Louis XIII., and Orestes pursued by the Furies. He died in 1825, and Cortot, his successor in the academy, completed many of his works.

DUPIN, LEWIS ELLIS.—This celebrated French historian was born at Paris in 1657. He was educated in the Sorbonne. In 1680 he took the degree of bachelor of divinity, and in July 1684 that of doctor. He soon after undertook to publish the work which has made him most known, his "Universal Library of Ecclesiastical Writers, containing their lives, and a catalogue, critical account, and analysis of their works;" a design of vast extent, which might have done credit to the labours of a society, yet was successfully accomplished by an individual, who was not only interrupted by professional duties, but wrote and published a great many other works. The first volume of his "Bibliothèque" was printed at Paris in 1686, and the others in succession as far as five volumes, which contained an account of the first eight centuries. The freedom, however, which he had used in criticising the style, character, and doctrines of some of the ecclesiastical writers, roused the prejudices of the celebrated Bossuet, who exhibited a complaint against Dupin to Harlay, archbishop of Paris. The archbishop accordingly, in 1693, published a decree against the work, yet with more deliberation than might have been expected. His grace first ordered the work to be read by four doctors of divinity of the faculty of Paris, who perused it separately, and then, combining their remarks, drew up a report which they presented to the archbishop, who in his decree says that he also examined the work, and found that it would be very prejudicial to the church if it were suffered to be dispersed. Dupin was then summoned before the archbishop and the doctors, and after several meetings gave in a paper, in which he delivered his opinion on the objections made to his book in such a manner as to satisfy them that, however liberal his expressions, he was himself sound; but the work itself they nevertheless thought must be condemned, as "containing several propositions that are false, rash, scandalous, capable of offending pious ears, tending to weaken the arguments which are brought from tradition to prove the authority of the canonical books of holy scripture, and of several other articles of faith, injurious to general councils, to the holy apostolic see, and to the fathers of the church, erroneous, and leading to heresy." Dupin laboured unceasingly in various theological controversies till the time of his death, which occurred June 6th, 1719.

DUPONT DE NEMOURS, PIERRE SAMUEL.—This learned individual, who was distinguished as well for his knowledge and talents as for his mild and benevolent character, his excellent principles, and his blameless life, lived almost unknown at Paris, as a private man of letters, until 1773, when his

principles of philosophy and political economy set forth in his "Les Ephémérides du Citoyen" excited the displeasure of the minister Choiseul, and obliged him to leave France for a considerable period of time. He returned, however, to his native country, and accepted a small place given him by Turgot, minister of finance. As inspector-general of commerce and manufactures, and as a counsellor of state, he afterwards did much to encourage French industry. In 1787 and 1788 he was appointed by Louis XVI. secretary to the assembly of the Notables, and in 1789 he became a member of the first National Assembly, where he distinguished himself by his principles, his courage, his talents, and his firm opposition to the intrigues of factions. He was twice president of the National Assembly, and always supported moderate principles. Under Robespierre he was imprisoned, and nothing but the fall of the tyrant preserved him. After the directory was abolished he went to America in 1798, but returned in 1802 to France. However he did not at that time take any office, notwithstanding the offers made him by Napoleon. The confidence of his fellow-citizens followed him in his retirement, as was shown by his appointment to several important offices. In 1814 Dupont was made secretary of the provisional government which prepared the way for the return of the house of Bourbon to the throne of France. After Napoleon's return from Elba he went again to America, of which country his two sons had already become citizens. Here he terminated his useful life on the 6th of August, 1817, at the advanced age of seventy-eight.

DUPPA, BRIAN, a distinguished divine, who was born at Lewisham in 1589. He was educated at Oxford, and, being appointed chaplain to Charles I., assisted that unfortunate but arbitrary monarch in the composition of "Eikon Basilike." At the Restoration he was rewarded with the bishopric of Winchester, and died in 1682.

DUPPA, RICHARD, a miscellaneous English writer. He was educated at Cambridge, and early devoted himself to literary pursuits. His principal work is entitled "The Life and Literary Works of Michael Angelo Buonarroti." He died July 11th, 1831.

DUPUIS, CHARLES FRANÇOIS, a member of the National Institute, who was born at Trie-le-Chateau, near Gisors, in 1742. He was instructed by his father in mathematics and surveying, and the duke de la Rochefoucault sent him to the college d'Harcourt to pursue his studies. His intimacy with Lalande, and his own inclination, led him to devote himself particularly to mathematics, and the knowledge and prejudices of that learned man had a great influence on him. In 1778 he invented a telegraph, which was afterwards improved by the brothers Chappe. In 1788 he became a member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres, and went to Paris, where he was named one of the four commissioners of public instruction to ascertain the resources of all the institutions for education and learning in Paris. As a member of the National Convention he was constant in his support of moderate measures, and on this account he was chosen a member of the Council of Five Hundred; and the reputation which he there acquired for activity and information procured him admission into the National Institute. His celebrated work, entitled "Origine de tous les Cultes, ou la Religion Universelle," was severely



criticised in Germany, Holland, France, and Italy, but is a remarkable monument of his learning. In this work he attempted to explain, not only all the mysteries of antiquity, but also the origin of all religious traditions. An abridgment, in one volume, afterwards followed. His two works on the Pelasgi, their origin in Ethiopia, their spreading over Lybia, Cyrenaica, and the north of Africa, and thence to Spain, Greece, and Italy, attracted great attention, as did also his treatises on "The Zodiac of Denderah," and "The Phoenix." In his last work, "Mémoire Explicatif du Zodiaque Chronologique et Mythologique," he maintained that the astronomical and religious opinions of the Greeks, Egyptians, Chinese, Persians, and Arabians, had a common origin. He died at his estate near Dijon in 1809, and left in manuscript a work on cosmogony and theogony, the object of which was to confirm the theory he had laid down in his "Origine de tous les Cultes."

DUPUYTREN, GUILLAUME, the most distinguished French surgeon of his time, professor of medical science in the faculty of medicine in Paris, and chief surgeon in the Hôtel Dieu, born in 1778 at Pierre-Buffière. He made such rapid progress in his studies that in his seventeenth year he was appointed prosecutor in the Ecole de Santé at Paris, and soon after lectured on surgery and anatomy to large audiences. In 1802 he was made second surgeon in the Hôtel Dieu, and in 1815 became the head of that great hospital. As an operative-surgeon he has gained great reputation by his boldness and skill and the improvements which he has introduced. He has invented some new instruments and improved others, as, for instance, his speculum for the removal of the uterine polypus by canterization, and his instrument for couching; we are also indebted to him for some valuable discoveries in pathological anatomy. He has written several surgical treatises, some of which have been published singly, and some are collected.

DUQUESNE, ABRAHAM, a French admiral, who was born at Dieppe in 1610, and acquired his knowledge of naval affairs under his father, who was an experienced captain. In his seventeenth year he was in the sea-fight off Rochelle, and distinguished himself during and after the year 1637 in the war against Spain. In 1644 he entered the service of Sweden, but was recalled in 1647 to France, and commanded the expedition against Naples. Bourdeaux, which had rebelled, he reduced, notwithstanding the assistance afforded it by Spain, and in the Sicilian war he thrice defeated the combined fleets of Holland and Spain under the renowned De Ruyter. After he had reduced Algiers and Genoa to the necessity of supplicating the mercy of Louis XIV. the king conferred upon him the estate of Bouchet, and made it a marquise, with the title of Duquesne. More than this he could not do, because Duquesne was a Protestant. He was also the only person exempted from the banishment of the protestants occasioned by the repeal of the edict of Nantes. He died at Paris in 1688. Mildness and modesty tempered his heroic character, and De Ruyter was his model. He left four sons, of whom the most celebrated, Henry marquis of Duquesne, was also distinguished as a naval character.

DURANTE, FRANCESCO, a celebrated composer, born in 1693 at Naples, and received his first instruction from the celebrated Alexander Scariatti.

The fame of Pasquini and Pittoni drew him to Rome, whither he went to perfect himself in the knowledge of counterpoint. He then returned to Naples as *maestro di capella* (director of the musical choir), and composed almost exclusively for the church. In vocal church music he attained a high degree of eminence. He also educated the most celebrated musical masters of the eighteenth century in Naples—Pergolese, Sacchini, Piccini, Guglielmi, Traetta, Jomelli, &c., and died at Naples in 1755.

DURELL, DAVID, a celebrated biblical critic of the last century. He was born in the island of Jersey, and educated at Pembroke College, Oxford. His principal work is entitled "Critical Remarks on the Books of Job, Psalms, Ecclesiastes, and Canticles." He died in 1775.

DÜRER, ALBERT.—This celebrated painter was born at Nuremberg in 1471. His father was a skilful goldsmith of Hungary, and he instructed his son Albert. Dürer's talent early developed itself; and although he had made great progress in his father's profession by the time he was fifteen, his inclination took a decided turn for painting; and Michael Wohlgemuth, then the best painter in Nuremberg, became his instructor. Having finished his studies he entered upon his travels, and in 1490 travelled through Germany and Alsace, passed through Colnar and Basle, and in 1494 returned home. Here he executed his masterpiece, a drawing of Orpheus. To please his father he married the daughter of Hans Fritz, a celebrated mechanic, but this connexion embittered his life, and perhaps brought him to an early grave. In 1505 he went to Venice to accomplish himself in his art, where he painted the Martyrdom of Bartholomew for St. Mark's Church, which painting was purchased by the emperor Rodolph, and removed to Prague. He also travelled to Bologna to improve his knowledge of perspective.

In 1520 he again visited the Netherlands, probably for amusement only, but Maximilian I. appointed him his court-painter, and Charles V. confirmed him in this office, bestowing upon him at the same time the painter's coat of arms, viz., three escutcheons argent in a deep azure field. All the artists and learned men of his time honoured and loved him, and his early death in 1528 was greatly lamented. Profound application, great facility in the mechanical part of his art, and a remarkable talent of imitation, were the characteristics of Dürer, and enabled him to exert a great influence on the character of German art. He was the first in Germany who taught the rules of perspective, and of the proportions of the human body, according to mathematical principles. He not only made use of the burin, like his predecessors, but was also the inventor of etching, or, if not the inventor, the first who excelled in the art.

D'URFEY, THOMAS, a celebrated humorist of the seventeenth century. He was born at Exeter, and bred to the law, but finding that profession too saturnine for his lively genius, he quitted it to become a devotee of the Muses, in which he met with no small success. His dramatic pieces, which are very numerous, were in general well received; yet within thirty years after his death there was not one of them on the muster-roll of acting plays; that licentiousness of intrigue and indelicacy of wit, which were their strongest recommendations to the

audiences for whom they were written, having very justly banished them from the stage in the periods of a purer taste. Yet are they very far from being totally devoid of merit. The plots are in general busy, intricate, and entertaining; the characters are not ill drawn, although rather too farcical; and the language easy and well adapted for the dialogue of comedy. But what obtained Mr. D'Urfey his greatest reputation was a peculiarly happy style in writing satires and irregular odes. Many of these were upon temporary occasions, and were of no little service to the party in whose cause he wrote; which, together with his natural vivacity and good humour, obtained him the favour of great numbers of all ranks and conditions, monarchs themselves not excluded. He was strongly attached to the Tory interest, and in the latter part of Queen Anne's reign had frequently the honour of diverting that princess with witty catches and songs of humour suited to the spirit of the times, written by himself. He used frequently to reside with the earl of Dorset at Knowle, where a picture of him painted by stealth is still to be seen. He appears to have been a merry companion, and a cheerful, good-natured man; so that he was the delight of the most polite companies and conversations from the beginning of Charles II.'s to the latter part of King George I.'s reign. Yet he shared the fate of those whose only merit is to contribute to merriment, and towards the latter part of his life he stood in need of assistance to prevent his passing the remainder of it in a cage like a singing-bird; for, to use his own words, "after having written more odes than Horace, and about four times as many comedies as Terence, he found himself reduced to great difficulties by the importunities of a set of men who of late years had furnished him with the accommodations of life, and would not, as we say, be paid with a song." In order to extricate himself from these difficulties he applied to the directors of the theatre, who agreed to act "The Plotting Sisters," a play of D'Urfey's, for the benefit of its author. What the result of this benefit was does not appear; but it was probably sufficient to make his circumstances easy, as we find him living and continuing to write with the same humour and liveliness to the time of his death, which took place on the 26th of February, 1723.

**DUROC, MICHAEL**, duke of Friuli, was born at Pont-à-Mousson in 1772. His father was of an ancient family of Auvergne; having become a captain and knight of St. Louis, he married and established himself in Lorraine. Young Duroc was early destined for the army, and studied at the military school of Pont-à-Mousson. On the 1st of March, 1792, he was made lieutenant of artillery. Honourable mention is made of his name in the bulletins of the Italian army, particularly at the siege of Mantua and at the battle of Sismone in 1796. He served during the first campaign in Italy as aide-de-camp of the general of artillery Lespinasse. Being subsequently appointed aide-de-camp to Bonaparte, he soon made himself conspicuous for coolness, courage, and ability. He distinguished himself at the battle of Grimolano, where he was wounded and his horse was killed under him; and at the passage of the Isonzo in Friuli he was mentioned as one of the bravest and most able officers; indeed the title of duke of Friuli, which he received ten years afterwards, was chosen in allusion to his conduct at

Isonzo. Duroc followed General Bonaparte into Egypt, and during this campaign, in which his services were of the greatest value, his name was mentioned with honour after the battle of Salahia, the successful result of which was mainly owing to his valour. During the expedition into Syria, at the siege of Jaffa, Duroc, seeing the grenadiers falling at the foot of the breach and wavering, put himself at their head, and engaged hand to hand with several Turks. The army seeing him disappear in a tower which was defended with great fury, gave him up for lost, but soon received him with shouts on seeing him appear on the top, master of the tower and of the ramparts. After having distinguished himself on several occasions before St. Jean d'Acre, he was severely wounded by the bursting of a howitzer in one of the last assaults made during the siege, the most bloody and obstinate in the military annals of France.

He distinguished himself no less at the battle of Aboukir. Being named chief of brigade he accompanied Bonaparte on his return to France, and was almost the only aide-de-camp of the commander-in-chief who survived the expedition, four having been killed in the campaign. Duroc was sent to the court of Berlin, where he was received with great distinction, on an embassy which contributed to preserve the peace between the two countries. War continuing between France and Austria, the first consul set out on the campaign which was terminated at Marengo, and Duroc accompanied him as first aide-de-camp. After the peace of Amiens he was sent on diplomatic missions to the courts of St. Petersburg, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, and on his return he was promoted to the rank of general of brigade and governor of the Tuileries.

When the first consul assumed the title of emperor he made Duroc grand marshal of the palace, but the courtier and favourite never ceased to be a soldier as he accompanied Napoleon in all his campaigns. During the campaign in Prussia in 1806 Duroc was commissioned to sign the treaty of peace with the king of Saxony, and at a later period he was the principal negotiator of the armistice which preceded the peace of Tilsit. He followed Napoleon to Spain, and during the campaign of Wagram, and at the battle of Esslingen, he arranged and directed his batteries in such a way as to arrest the progress of the enemy in a decisive movement. On the return from the Russian campaign in 1812 Duroc reorganized the imperial guard, which at this time and on several other occasions he commanded. Duroc finally followed Napoleon to Germany in 1813, and was killed after the battle of Bautzen, in entering the village of Merkersdorf, by a ball which also killed General Kirschner, with whom he was conversing behind the emperor. This ball was the last which fell on that day, and the piece from which it was discharged was at so great a distance, and surrounded by so many obstacles, that it is inconceivable how it could have reached the place. Napoleon visited Duroc on his death-bed, and mingled tears with his farewell. He lost in him a true counsellor, a faithful friend, and one of his bravest officers. The deaths of the duke of Friuli and of the duke of Montebello are the two events on which Napoleon showed the greatest sensibility. Successively charged with the most important duties, military and political, the duke of Friuli was ever remarkable for modera-



tion rare as a soldier, for ability, disinterestedness, modesty, firmness, and a presence of mind which never deserted him. For fifteen years he was the confidant and friend of that extraordinary man. When Napoleon left France in 1815 and embarked on board the *Bellerophon*, he wished to live in England under the name of Colonel Duroc. Seven years afterwards we have another proof of the constant and affectionate remembrance which Napoleon retained of him. He left to his daughter one of the largest legacies bequeathed by his will.

**DUSSEK, JOHN LEWIS.**—This great pianoforte player and composer, perhaps the greatest of his day, was born at Czaslau in Bohemia in the year 1760. He was educated in Prague, and was not only initiated in music, but what very seldom happens to musicians, he had the advantage of a good classical education, and in short was accounted the scholar and the perfect gentleman as well as the greatest musician. Having attained the age of nineteen he left his native country for Brussels, where a nobleman of the stadtholder's court presented him to the princess of Orange. After this honour the young artist made his debut in public as pianist at the Hague, and was patronised there by the stadtholder and all his family. On quitting Holland he resolved to travel in the north of Europe and from thence to visit Paris and London. At Hamburg he had the good fortune to receive professional advice from the celebrated Emmanuel Bach. He then proceeded towards St. Petersburg, but, being introduced on his journey to Prince Charles Radziwill, he was induced by an advantageous offer from that nobleman to remain with him in Lithuania for two years. At the expiration of which time, instead of proceeding northwards, he returned to Berlin, and in the year 1786 arrived at Paris. There he remained only till the breaking out of the French revolution, when he came to London, and by the year 1790 was well established here as a teacher of the piano. In 1796 he opened a music-warehouse in the Haymarket in conjunction with Mr. Corri, and they were appointed music-sellers to their majesties and the royal family. Dussek afterwards revisited the continent, and in 1800 we find him residing at Hamburg where he occasionally, but very rarely, performed in public. After remaining there during upwards of two years he proceeded again to Paris, and in the latter part of his life was attached to the household of the prince of Benevento. There is one circumstance that we must not omit to notice in connexion with this extraordinary musician, namely, the perfection of his ear with reference to the exact pitch of any note, and this enabled him to tune any instrument with the greatest precision, a power possessed but by very few persons. Dussek died in Paris on the 20th of March, 1812, at the residence of Prince Talleyrand, where he had been *maestro di capella* for a number of years. His twelve concertos, his sonatas, fantasias, &c., will be lasting favourites with all impartial judges of the art.

**DUTENS, LOUIS.**—This learned writer and diplomatist was born at Tours in 1730, of Protestant parents. He was three times British chargé d'affaires to Turin, travelled through Europe several times, and formed an acquaintance with many of the learned men in different parts of the continent. His works have been often republished, and show the variety of his learning refined by intercourse with the polite

world. He published the works of Leibnitz at Geneva in six volumes, and the preface to the mathematical part is highly esteemed. Dutens made himself known as a poet by the two collections "*Le Caprice Poétique*" and "*Poésies*." His "*Recherches sur l'Origine des Découvertes Attribuées aux Modernes*" show the extent of his reading, but rate the knowledge and invention of the ancients somewhat too high. In general he was an opponent of the French philosophers and attacked them on every occasion. Dutens also composed a work rather alien from his common pursuits, "*On the Genealogy of the Heroes of Romance*." Three volumes of "*Mémoires d'un Voyageur qui se Repose*" were received with general approbation. The third volume, entitled "*Dutensiana*," contains many interesting anecdotes and observations. An earlier work of a similar kind was interesting as a sort of scandalous chronicle of the distinguished men of his time; but he thought it advisable to destroy the whole edition before it was made public, and, what is rarely the case, he accomplished his object. Dutens became historiographer to King George III., and died in 1812.

**DUVAL, VALENTINE JAMERAY**, a celebrated librarian of the emperor Francis I., who was born in 1695. In his tenth year he lost his parents; in his fourteenth year, being driven from his native place by the want of employment during the terrible winter of 1709, Providence conducted him to the cell of the good hermit Palemon, who received him, permitted him to share his labours, and taught him to read. Here Duval became devout without being superstitious; but he was obliged to exchange this quiet retreat for another at St. Anne near Luneville, where his only company was four ignorant hermits; his employment tending six cows, and his only means of improvement some volumes of the "*Blaue Bibliothek*;" but he finally succeeded in learning to write. An epitome of arithmetic which fell into his hands highly interested his youthful mind, and in the solitude of a forest he received his first ideas of astronomy and geography. In order to procure the means of educating himself he killed game, and in a few months the proceeds of his toils furnished him with a little stock of money. Happening to find a gold seal engraved with a coat of arms, he had it advertised by the minister of that place. An Englishman of the name of Forster appeared as the owner, and Duval gave it up to him on condition that he would explain to him the coat of arms. Surprised by this honesty and curiosity, Forster rewarded him so bountifully that his library, which had been gradually forming out of the hunting fund, was increased to 200 volumes, while he spent nothing on personal or external conveniences. Engaged in his studies Duval paid little attention to his herd, and thereby displeased the hermits. One of them even threatened to burn his books. This roused the spirit of Duval. He seized a fire-shovel, drove the brother out of his own cell, and shut himself up in it. The other brothers came with the superior, but he refused to open the door till they had agreed to pass over all that had happened, and to allow him in future two hours a day for studying, while he on his part was to serve them ten years more for his clothes and food. Duval now pursued his studies with more zeal than ever in the forest, where he was found one day by the young princes of Lorraine while thus busy with his maps and charts. They made him an offer on

the spot of placing him with the Jesuits at Pont-à-Mousson. He accepted it, but only on condition that his liberty should not be sacrificed by it. He soon made such rapid progress that Duke Leopold took him with him to Paris, in 1718, to see what effect this new scene would have upon him. But Duval declared that all the pomp of the city and its works of art were far inferior to the majesty of the rising or setting sun. On his return Leopold appointed him his librarian and made him professor of history in the Academy at Lunéville. These offices and the lessons which he gave to the young Englishmen studying there (among whom was the celebrated Chatham) afforded him the means of rebuilding his old hermitage of St. Anne. When Lorraine was ceded to France he removed with the library under his care to Florence, where he staid ten years. The emperor Francis invited him to Vienna to form a collection of medals, where he died in 1775.

DWIGHT, TIMOTHY, an eminent American divine, was born in 1752. He was admitted a member of Yale College in September 1765, and after leaving college he took charge of a grammar-school at New Haven. At the age of nineteen Mr. Dwight commenced writing the "Conquest of Canaan," an epic poem founded on a portion of sacred history. On receiving the degree of master of arts, he delivered a Dissertation on the History, Eloquence, and Poetry of the Bible, which was immediately printed, and afterwards republished, both in the United States and in Europe. About this period he attempted, by restricting his diet, to remove the necessity of bodily exercise; but after pursuing his course of abstinence and study about a year, he became subject to severe attacks of the bilious colic, which so wasted his strength that it was with the utmost difficulty he could be removed to Northampton. His physician, having administered successfully for his present relief, advised the daily use of strong bodily exercise as the only means of restoring his constitution. Adopting this system, he walked upwards of 2000 and rode upwards of 3000 miles in the course of a twelvemonth. The result of this was the perfect restoration of his health, which continued good for the ensuing forty years of his life. He was in the summer of 1777 licensed as a preacher, and in September of the same year he was nominated chaplain in the army. In addition to the duties of his station, he contributed not a little to heighten the enthusiasm of the soldiers by writing several patriotic songs, which enjoyed a deserved popularity. The circumstance of his father's death, in October 1778, obliged him to resign his office in order to assist his mother in the support and education of her family. He was twice elected, about the close of the revolutionary war, a member of the legislature of the state. In 1783 he was ordained minister of Greenfield, a parish in the town of Fairfield in Connecticut. Immediately upon settling at this place, Mr. Dwight opened an academy, which soon acquired a high reputation. A large number of pupils from all parts of the Union, as well as from abroad, resorted to his school. In the year 1787 the college of Princeton, New Jersey, conferred upon him the degree of D. D. In 1794 he published a poem in seven parts, under the title of "Greenfield Hill." On the death of the Rev. Doctor Styles, in 1795, Doctor Dwight was elected president of Yale College, which was in a depressed state. His reputation soon brought to the

college a great accession of students. When he entered the office of president, the professorship of theology was vacant, and several fruitless attempts having been made to fill it, he engaged to perform the duties. In the year 1797, at the request of the general association of Connecticut, he undertook the revision of Doctor Watts's version of the Psalms, to supply such as were omitted, and to make a selection of hymns adapted to public worship. In 1800 he submitted his work to a joint committee of that body and of the general assembly of the Presbyterian church, by whom it was approved and recommended. In the year 1799 he commenced travelling during the college vacations, particularly in May and September, for the sake of exercise, and continued this practice through the remainder of his life. In these excursions, principally through the New England states and New York, he took notes, and afterwards wrote them out for the gratification of his family. This work was published after his death in four volumes octavo. It embraces an account of the natural aspect of the territories over which he travelled and of the condition of society in those states. It also contains notices of eminent men of that portion of the Union, and anecdotes illustrative of the history and customs of the Aborigines. Doctor Dwight died in January 1817, after repeated and severe attacks of a disease, the character of which was not well understood.

DYER, JOHN, an agreeable poet of the second class, who was born at Aberglasney in Caermarthenshire in 1700, and educated at Westminster school. Being left by the death of his father at liberty to follow his own inclination, he became a pupil to Richardson the painter, and travelled through Wales as an itinerant artist, but never seems to have gained any distinction in that capacity. In 1727 he made himself known as a poet by the publication of his celebrated "Grongar Hill." The intermixture of moral reflections introduced in an easy manner with the description of rural scenery, has rendered this poem highly and deservedly popular. After the publication of "Grongar Hill" he went to Rome for professional improvement, and published in 1740 a poem in blank verse, under the title of the "Ruins of Rome." Not appearing likely to succeed in his profession, he was recommended to take orders, and was accordingly ordained by Doctor Thomas, bishop of Lincoln. He then married and retired to a small living in Leicestershire, which he soon afterwards exchanged for another in Lincolnshire, to which a second was subsequently added. In 1757 he published his largest poem, the "Fleece," in five books, a very ingenious production. He died in 1758.

EACHARD JOHN, a learned and witty writer of the seventeenth century. He was educated at Catherine Hall Cambridge, and in 1675 was created D. D. by royal mandamus.

Dr. Eachard's principal works have been several times printed together in one volume, but the most complete edition is that published in 1774, with a life of him written by Davies, with the assistance of Dr. Johnson and Dr. Farmer. Though Dr. Eachard's works abound with wit and humour, he is said to have failed remarkably when he attempted to write in a serious manner. Mr. Baker, of St. John's College Cambridge, in a blank leaf of his copy of Eachard's "Letter to R. L." observes, that he went to St. Mary's with great expectation to hear him preach,



but was never more disappointed. And Dean Swift says, "I have known men happy enough at ridicule, who, upon grave subjects, were perfectly stupid; of which Dr. Eachard of Cambridge, who writ 'The Contempt of the Clergy,' was a great instance."

EADMER, an early English historian, who flourished in the twelfth century, but we have no information respecting his parents, or the particular time and place of his nativity. He received a learned education, and very early discovered a taste for history, by recording every remarkable event that came to his knowledge. Being a monk in the cathedral of Canterbury, he became the bosom friend and inseparable companion of the two archbishops of that see, St. Anselm and his successor Ralph. To the former of these he was appointed spiritual director by the pope, and that prelate would do nothing without his permission.

In 1120 Eadmer was elected bishop of St. Andrew's by the particular desire of Alexander I., king of Scotland; but on the very day after his election an unhappy dispute arose between the king and him respecting his consecration. Eadmer would be consecrated by the archbishop of Canterbury, whom he regarded as primate of all Britain, while Alexander contended that the see of Canterbury had no pre-eminence over that of St. Andrew's. After many conferences, their dispute becoming more warm, Eadmer abandoned his bishopric, and returned to England, where he was kindly received by the archbishop and clergy of Canterbury, who yet thought him too precipitate in leaving his bishopric. Eadmer at last appears to have been of the same opinion, and wrote a long and submissive letter to the king of Scotland, but without producing the desired effect. Wharton fixes his death in 1124, which was not long after this affair, and the very year in which the bishopric of St. Andrew's was filled up. Eadmer is now best known for his "History of the Affairs of England" in his own time, from 1066 to 1122, in which he has inserted many original papers, and preserved many important facts. This work has been commended, both by ancient and modern writers, for its authenticity as well as for regularity of composition and purity of style. It is indeed more free from legendary tales than any other work of this period, and affords many proofs of the learning, good sense, sincerity, and candour of its author.

EARLE, JOHN, a distinguished English divine, who was born at York in 1601. He received a good collegiate education, and was appointed chaplain and tutor to Prince Charles. For his steady adherence to the royal cause he was deprived of every thing he possessed, and at length was compelled to fly into exile with Charles II., who made him his chaplain and clerk of the closet. He was intimate with Dr. Morley, afterwards bishop of Winchester, and lived with him for some time at Antwerp, in Sir Charles Cotterel's house, who was master of the ceremonies; thence he went into France, and attended James, duke of York. On the Restoration he was made dean of Westminster, and in 1662 was consecrated bishop of Worcester, and in the September of the following year was removed to the see of Salisbury, on the translation of Dr. Hinchman to London. In 1665 he attended the king and queen to Oxford, who had left London on account of the plague, and died on the 17th of November in the same year. He was buried in Merton College Chapel, near the high

altar, where, on a monument of black and white marble, is a Latin inscription to his memory. Walton sums up his character by saying that, since the death of the celebrated Hooker, none have lived "whom God hath blest with more innocent wisdom, more sanctified learning, or a more pious, peaceable, primitive temper."

EATON, WILLIAM, an American traveller, remarkable for his adventures, who was born at Woodstock, Connecticut, in February 1764. He displayed great talent in his childhood, and acquired the rudiments of a good English education. When about sixteen years of age he enlisted in the army, in which he remained for a twelvemonth, in the capacity of waiter to an officer; and in 1783 he was regularly discharged with the rank of sergeant. He then undertook the study of the Latin and Greek languages, which enabled him to gain admission into Dartmouth College. From January 1788 to August 1791 he taught a school in Vermont, devoting himself at the same time to the classics in order to qualify himself for the degree of bachelor of arts, which he obtained from the college in the last-mentioned year. In October of the same year he was chosen clerk to the house of delegates of the state of Vermont, and in 1792 received a captain's commission in the American army. He proceeded with his company down the Ohio to the western army at Legionville, with which he continued until 1794.

In 1797 Eaton was appointed consul for the kingdom of Tunis. Here he became involved in negotiations and altercations with the bey, which he conducted with extraordinary spirit, and at the frequent risk of his life; and the history of them, as left by himself, is not a little entertaining and curious. His official correspondence and private journal are full of striking anecdotes and descriptions. War was declared by the bashaw of Tripoli against the United States in 1801. The reigning chief was a usurper, and the lawful one, his brother, happened to be at Tunis in exile. With him Eaton concerted a project for attacking the usurper by land, while the American squadron in the Mediterranean operated against him by sea. In 1803 he returned to the United States, and opened his plan to the government; but finding that no aid could be had from the government, he set out for Egypt, merely with the character of American agent. He sailed with the squadron for the Mediterranean in July 1804, and proceeded to Alexandria in Egypt, where he arrived in November. In the following month he was at Grand Cairo, where he learned that Hamet Bashaw, after a series of vicissitudes and disasters, had been reduced to the alternative of joining the Mamelukes, and that he was actually with them commanding a few Tripolitans and their Arab auxiliaries in Upper Egypt. Eaton contrived to obtain from the viceroy of Egypt an amnesty for Hamet Bashaw; a rendezvous was appointed, and they met near Alexandria and formed a convention, in the eighth article of which it was stipulated that Eaton should be recognised as general and commander-in-chief of the land forces which were or might be called into service against the common enemy, the reigning bashaw of Tripoli. The march was pursued with a great variety of adventure and suffering, and Bomba was reached, where the United States vessels, the *Argus*, Captain Hull, and the *Hornet*, had arrived with provisions, to enable the almost famished army to proceed to Derne, where

they encamped on an eminence which commands the place, and immediately reconnoitred.

On the morning of the 26th terms of amity were offered the bey, on condition of allegiance and fidelity. The flag of truce was sent back with this laconic answer—"My head or yours!" Derne was taken after a furious assault, but its possession was not secure. An army of the reigning bashaw of Tripoli, consisting of several thousand troops, approached the town and gave battle to the victors, but were repulsed with considerable loss. Shortly after they returned to the assault and met with no better fate. Another engagement took place, in which there were supposed to be not less than 5000 men on the field. The hopes of Eaton were, however, suddenly blasted by the official intelligence received on the 11th, that the American negotiators, in the squadron before Tripoli, had concluded a peace with the usurper. Eaton was required to evacuate the post of Derne, and with his Greek and American garrison to repair on board the ships. Hamet Bashaw embarked at the same time, the Arabians fled to the mountains, and thus ended this gallant and romantic affair, which is stated in the official correspondence of the American commissioners who negotiated the peace to have had the effect of bringing the Tripolitans to terms. Eaton returned to the United States, where he received the most flattering marks of public favour, and the president, in his message to congress, made honourable mention of his merit and services. A resolution was moved in the House of Representatives at Washington, for presenting him with a medal; but the motion, after being warmly debated, was rejected by a small majority. The legislature of Massachusetts bestowed upon him a tract of land of 10,000 acres, in testimony of their sense of his "undaunted courage and brilliant services."

In the winter of 1806 Aaron Burr endeavoured, without effect, to enlist him in his conspiracy, and on the trial of Burr at Richmond he gave full testimony against him. A few years after, this bold and enterprising man fell a victim to habits of inebriety, which he contracted soon after his return. His death took place in 1811. Mr. Eaton was well acquainted with French and Italian, and with history, geography, and tactics. His official and private correspondence is marked by great acuteness and energy. The letters and journal in which he has left the history of his life on the coast of Barbary, and his celebrated expedition to Derne, denote no common powers of observation and description. They are replete with curious remarks and incidents, and may be found in an octavo volume, entitled "The Life of General Eaton," and published by one of his friends in Massachusetts.

EBEL, JOHN GODFREY, an eminent statistical and geographical writer, who was born about 1770 at Frankfort on the Oder, in Prussia. Having finished his medical studies and received a doctor's degree, he went to France, where he became acquainted with Sièyes, whose writings he did much towards circulating in Germany. In 1801 he went to Switzerland, and during his stay in that country made close and accurate observations. The fruits of his enquiries were some works which give us the most valuable accounts of the natural and statistical condition of Switzerland, and are particularly useful to travellers. His "Guide to the Traveller in Swit-

zerland," the best known of his works, is a model for every work of this kind, as it leaves hardly a single subject which can have interest to a traveller untouched. In his "Description of the Mountaineers of Switzerland," he gives a picture of the inhabitants of Appenzell and Glarus. His work on the "Structure of the Earth in the Alps," gives a general view of the structure of the earth, and valuable accounts of the geology of the Alps. In the time of the Helvetic republic, Ebel was honoured with the rights of citizenship, as an acknowledgment of his services to Switzerland.

EBELING, CHRISTOPHER, DANIEL, a learned scholar, born in 1741 at Garmissen in Hildesheim. He studied theology at Gottingen, from 1763 to 1767, paying particular attention to ecclesiastical history and exegesis, which led him to a careful study of the oriental languages, especially the Arabic. He also studied political history, Greek, Roman, and English literature, and the fine arts, for which he at length relinquished theology. In order to procure himself further advancement, he went to Leipsic as a tutor, and in 1769 accepted a place offered him in the Academy of Commerce at Hamburg. As good manuals were wanted for the study of modern languages, he published for the Academy of Commerce in 1773 his "Miscellaneous Essays in English Prose," which passed through six editions, and were soon followed by similar manuals for the Italian, French, Spanish, and Dutch languages. For the same reason he applied himself more to the study of geography, and published translations of many, especially English travels.

Encouraged by his connexions with Hamburg, the Academy of Commerce and the house of Büsching, he soon found means to open for himself new sources of geographical information. England, Spain, Portugal, and America, were the subjects of his particular attention. In the new edition of the great geography of Büsching, he undertook an account of Portugal and the United States of North America. The long interruption of commerce with foreign countries, and the author's wish to give his work the highest perfection, were the causes of the slow progress of this labour. But all that is completed is justly viewed as a masterpiece. This great work of his is entitled "Geography and History of North America." After the removal of Wurm from the Academy of Commerce, Büsching, in company with Ebeling, undertook the management of this establishment, and they published the "Library of Commerce." In 1784 Ebeling was appointed professor of history and the Greek language in the Hamburg gymnasium; and the superintendence of the Hamburg library was afterwards committed to him. He filled both offices till his death, which took place on the 30th of June, 1817. For almost all the literary periodicals of Germany he prepared articles in the geographical and kindred departments. In his earlier years he wrote a history of German poetry for the "Hanover Magazine," and furnished several contributions to the "German Library," published by Frederic Nicolai, and at a later period contributed many literary articles to the "New Hamburg Gazette." His frank, cheerful, and amiable manners never deserted him, though for nearly thirty years he suffered a partial, and finally an almost total deafness, and was thus deprived, among other pleasures, of the enjoyment of music, of which he was passionately fond,



and in which he had made uncommon attainments. He left behind two collections, perhaps unique in their kind—a collection of nearly 10,000 maps, and a library of books containing more than 4000 volumes.

**EBERT, JOHN ARNOLD**, a German poet and translator, born in 1723 at Hamburgh. His love of the English language was awakened and cherished by Hagedorn, who contributed much to the influence of English literature upon the German. Not long after the establishment of the "Carolinum" in Brunswick, he received an appointment in 1748 in the school connected with it, and instructed the hereditary prince, afterwards duke of Brunswick, in the English language. About this time he conceived the idea of translating into the German language Young's "Night Thoughts," and Glover's "Leonidas." In 1753 he obtained the place of regular professor in the Carolinum, and afterwards the station of court counsellor. He died in 1795. Ebert had a lively fancy and a warm imagination. His writings collected by himself appeared under the title of *J. A. Ebert's "Epistles and Miscellaneous Poems,"* to which another volume was added after his death.

**ECKHEL, JOSEPH HILARY**, a learned Jesuit, who distinguished himself greatly by his works on coins, medals, and other remains of classical antiquity. He was born at Enzerfeld in Austria in 1737, and after becoming a member of the society of St. Ignatius, he was appointed keeper of the Imperial Cabinet of Medals, and professor of archæology at Vienna. He died in 1798. Eckhel may be regarded as the founder of the science of numismatics, the principles of which are elaborately developed in his treatise entitled "*Doctrina Nummorum Veterum.*" He also published catalogues of the ancient coins and gems in the Imperial Cabinet, and other learned treatises. His first work was "*Nummi Veteres Anecdoti,*" 1775.

**ECLUSE, CHARLES**.—This eminent naturalist was born at Arras in 1526. As soon as he had completed his education, he commenced a botanical tour, which lasted for several years, and he made many extensive collections of plants. He was ultimately appointed professor of botany at Leyden, where he resided till the time of his death, which occurred in 1609. Ecluse published many valuable botanical treatises, but his principal work is entitled "*Rariorum Plantarum Historia.*"

**EDEN, SIR FREDERIC MORTON**, baronet, a British diplomatist and statistical writer of eminence. He was sent ambassador to Berlin in 1792, and in the following year was removed to Vienna. In March 1794 he quitted that court for Madrid; but, returning thither again, he concluded in May 1795 a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, between England and Austria. He died at his house in Pall-Mall in November 1809. He was the author of a work of considerable research, entitled "*The State of the Poor, or History of the Labouring Classes in England.*"

**EDGAR**, one of the most distinguished of the Saxon kings of England, was the son of King Edmund. He succeeded to the throne in 959, and managed the civil and military affairs of his kingdom with great vigour and success. He maintained a body of troops to control the mutinous Northumbrians, and repel the incursions of the Scots, and fitted out a powerful navy to protect his subjects from the Danes. By these precautions he not only

prevented invasion from the Danes, but secured the submission of the independent provinces of Wales and Ireland, and the surrounding islands. During the reign of Edgar, wolves were nearly extirpated from the southern parts of the island by exchanging a tribute from Wales for payment in the heads of these animals. His adventures and marriage with the beautiful Elfrida, daughter of the earl of Devonshire, are well known. He died in 975, and was succeeded by his son Edward the Martyr.

**EDGEWORTH DE FIRMONT, HENRY ESSEX**, a celebrated father confessor of Louis XVI., who was born in 1745, in Ireland, in the village of Edgeworthstown. His father, an Episcopalian clergyman, adopted the Catholic faith with his family and went to France. His piety and virtue obtained him, the confidence of the princess Elizabeth, sister of Louis XVI., who chose him for her confessor. The revolution broke out, and the king was thrown into prison. Elizabeth was an angel of consolation to her brother during his confinement, and by her means Louis was first made acquainted with the character of Firmont, who then lived in concealment at Choisy-le-Roi, under the name of Essex. When the king was informed of his condemnation he requested a delay of three days to prepare himself to appear before his God, and a free communication with a priest of his own choice. This was Edgeworth. The convention assented to the latter request, but refused the respite. Edgeworth discharged the duties devolving on him with the deepest devotion. He offered personally to attend the king to the place of execution. Edgeworth ascended the scaffold with him. When the executioner placed the king under the guillotine, Edgeworth exclaimed, "Son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!" and the axe fell. Edgeworth succeeded in escaping from France in safety, and arrived in England in 1796. Pitt offered him a pension in the name of the king, which he declined. He soon after followed Louis XVIII. to Blankenburg in Brunswick and thence to Mittau. As he had devoted his life to soothe the unhappy in the true spirit of Christian charity, he lost it in services of benevolence. In 1807 a number of French prisoners of war were brought to Mittau, where Edgeworth was living with Louis XVIII. A contagious fever made the most dreadful devastation among them. Edgeworth, so far from being repelled by the danger, devoted himself to the care of the sick, and was himself attacked by the disease, of which he died, May 21, 1807. The duchess of Angouleme attended him in his sickness; the royal family followed him to the tomb, and Louis XVIII. wrote his epitaph.

**EDGEWORTH, RICHARD LOVELL**, a gentleman distinguished for the versatility of his talents, who was born in 1744 at Bath, of a family possessed of landed property at Edgeworthstown, in the south of Ireland. He received his education at Trinity College Dublin, and Corpus Christi Oxford, after which he entered at the Temple, but not probably with any serious intention of adopting the law as a profession. Mechanics and general literature chiefly attracted his attention. He formed an acquaintance with Doctor Erasmus Darwin, Mr. Thomas Day, and other men of congenial pursuits, to whose researches, as well as his own, what may be termed practical philosophy is not a little indebted. In 1747 he contrived a telegraph, with regard to which,

however, he had not the merit of having started the original idea, neither did he bring it into general use. After residing some years in England, he went to France, where he was engaged in the direction of some works on the Rhone at Lyons. In the latter part of his life he resided much on his own estate, occupying himself with plans for constructing railroads, draining bogs, and other undertakings for the improvement of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Much of his time, too, was devoted to literature, and, in conjunction with his daughter, the celebrated Maria Edgeworth, he wrote a "Treatise on Practical Education," one on "Professional Education," as well as some subsidiary works, all remarkable for the air of good sense and adaptation to the exigencies of common life which they exhibit. He died in June 1817.

Mr. Edgeworth married four wives, of whom two were sisters. His memoirs, partly written by himself and partly by his daughter, were published in 1821. Of this interesting work we subjoin a brief specimen, highly illustrative both of Mr. Edgeworth's style and his peculiar facility of acquiring knowledge:—"When I was about seven years old, a circumstance happened which had considerable effect in forming the principal taste of my life, though at first view it seemed to concern me but little. A gentleman and his wife, on their way to Dublin, were delayed by the sickness of the lady at a wretched inn at Edgeworth town. My mother not only sent what was proper, but invited the distressed travellers to her house, and took such effectual care of the sick lady, that in a few days she recovered and pursued her journey. When my mother went some time afterwards to Dublin, she took me with her. Mr. Deane, the husband of the sick lady, came to see my mother; and as he got out of his coach, I observed that he had brought with him a nice mahogany table, and some uncommon pieces of machinery, which excited my curiosity not a little. These were the parts of an electrical machine that Mr. Deane had made, and which he presented to my mother, in hopes that it might be of service in alleviating the effects of the palsy with which she was affected. The benevolent countenance, melodious voice, and grateful conduct of this gentleman, made a great impression on my young mind. I was permitted, after much entreaty, to be present whilst the experiment was going on. At this time electricity was but little known in Ireland, and its fame as a cure for palsy had been considerably magnified. It, as usual, excited some sensations in the paralytic limb on the first trial. One of the experiments on my mother failed of producing a shock, and Mr. Deane seemed at a loss to account for it. I had observed that the wire which was used to conduct the electric fluid had, as it hung in a curve from the instrument to my mother's arm, touched the hinge of a table which was in the way; and I had the courage to mention this circumstance, which was the real cause of failure. Mr. Deane was so well pleased with my observation, that he took me up in his arms, kissed me, and invited me to come the next morning to see his study and his workshop. I was sent there at the hour appointed, and the good-natured philosopher condescended to answer a number of questions which my eager curiosity suggested. The apartment and its contents are now present to my memory, though it is near sixty years since I was there. Mr.

Deane was then making an orrery, which he afterwards bequeathed to the University of Dublin. This orrery instantly caught my attention; but as its uses could not be explained to me, he very wisely turned my attention to another object, and showed me the engine for cutting teeth in clock-wheels. He was then finishing some large wheels for his orrery, and he explained the parts and uses of the engine so clearly that I soon understood them."

EDMONDSON, JOSEPH, a very distinguished English heraldic writer and historian, who raised himself by persevering industry from a very humble mechanical calling. His principal works are entitled "A Complete Body of Heraldry," and the "Baronagium Genealogicum." He died in London in 1786.

EDMUND I., an able and spirited English prince, who was the son of Edward the Elder, and succeeded his brother Athelstan in 941. One of his most celebrated acts was the conquering of Cumberland, which he bestowed on Malcolm, king of Scotland, on condition of homage. This prince was stabbed at a banquet by Leolf, an outlaw, who entered among the guests, and provoked the king to a personal attack upon him. Edmund immediately expired of the wound in the sixth year of his reign.

EDMUND II., surnamed Ironside, king of England, was the eldest son of Ethelred II. On the death of the latter in 1016 he was obliged to take the field against Canute, by whom he was defeated at Assingden in Essex in consequence of the defection of Edric, duke of Mercia. A compromise was then effected, by which the midland and northern counties were assigned to Canute and the southern to Edmund, but he was soon after murdered at Oxford at the instigation of the traitor Edric. This event made Canute master of the entire kingdom; but the line of Edmund was again partially restored by the marriage of his great grand-daughter, Matilda, to Henry I. of England.

EDRED, king of England, was the son of Edward the Elder, and succeeded to the throne on the murder of his brother, Edmund I. He quelled a rebellion of the Northumbrian Danes, and compelled Malcolm, king of Scotland, to renew his homage for his English possessions. Although active and warlike, he was extremely superstitious, and subservient to the celebrated Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury. Edred died after a reign of nine years, and left the crown to his nephew, Edwy.

EDRIDGE, HENRY, a landscape and miniature painter of considerable eminence, who was born at Paddington in 1768. His earlier portraits are principally drawn on paper, with black lead and Indian ink. It was in later years only that he made those elaborate and highly finished pictures, uniting the depth and richness of oil-painting with the freedom and freshness of water-colours, of which there are so many specimens in England. He died in 1821.

EDWARD THE ELDER, king of England, was the son of Alfred the Great, whom he succeeded in 901; but he was opposed by Ethelwald, the son of his father's eldest brother, who claimed the crown; but this insurrection ended with the death of Ethelwald in battle. The reign of Edward was further distinguished by success over the Anglicised and foreign Danes. He fortified many inland towns, acquired dominion over Northumbria and East Anglia, and subdued several of the Welsh tribes. He died after a reign of twenty-four years in 925.



EDWARD, surnamed the Martyr, king of England, was a son of Edgar, and succeeded his father at the age of fifteen in 975. His step-mother, Elfrida, wished to raise her own son Ethelred to the throne, but was opposed by Dunstan, through whose exertions Edward was peaceably crowned. His short reign was chiefly distinguished by the disputes between Dunstan and the foreign monks on one side, and the secular clergy on the other. The young king paid little attention to any thing but the chase, which led to his unhappy death. Hunting one day in Dorsetshire, he was separated from his attendants, and repaired to Corfe Castle, where Elfrida resided. After paying his respects to her, he requested a glass of liquor, and, as he was drinking it on horseback, one of Elfrida's servants gave him a deep stab behind. He immediately set spurs to his horse, but, fainting from loss of blood, he was dragged in the stirrup until he died. The pity caused by his innocence and misfortune induced the people to regard him as a martyr. He had reigned only four years.

EDWARD, surnamed the Confessor, was a younger son of Ethelred II. On the death of his maternal brother Hardicanute the Dane in 1041, he was called to the throne, and thus renewed the Saxon line. He was not the immediate heir, as his brother Edmund Ironside had left sons; but, as he received the support of Godwin earl of Kent, on condition of marrying his daughter Editha, his claim was established. Edward was a weak and superstitious but well-intentioned prince, who acquired the love of his subjects by his monkish sanctity, and care in the administration of justice. Having been educated in Normandy, he introduced so many natives of that country to his court, that the French language and manners became prevalent in this country, to the great disgust of Earl Godwin and his sons: in consequence of which a rebellion took place, and Edward was forced to dismiss his foreign favourites. Perceiving that the youth and weakness of his son Edgar Atheling would not secure the succession against the power and ability of Harold, the son of Godwin, he turned his eyes upon his kinsman, William of Normandy, in whose favour it has been asserted, with little probability, that he executed a will. He died in 1066, leaving the point of the succession undetermined; and with him ended the Saxon line of kings. Edward caused a body of laws to be compiled from those of Ethelbert, Ina, and Alfred, to which the nation was long fondly attached.

EDWARD, the first king of England of the Norman line who bore this name, was a son of Henry I., and was born at Winchester in 1239. The contests between his father and the barons called him early into active life, and he finally quelled all resistance to the royal authority by the decisive defeat of Leicester at the battle of Evesham in 1265. He then proceeded to Palestine, where he signalized himself on many occasions, and inspired so much terror that an assassin was employed to dispatch him, from whom he received a wound in the arm, which, as tradition reports, being supposed to be from a poisoned weapon, was extracted by his faithful consort, Eleanor of Castile. On assuming the government he acted with great vigour in the repression of the lawlessness of the nobles and the corruption of the administration of justice, but often evinced an arbitrary and grasping disposition.

In 1276 Edward summoned Llewellyn, prince of

Wales, to do him homage, and upon his refusal, except on certain conditions, commenced the war which ended in the annexation of that principality to the English crown in 1283. Edward then spent some time abroad in meditating a peace between the crowns of France and Arragon, and on his return commenced his attempt to destroy the independence of Scotland. The expense attendant upon this strong but unprincipled policy was such that Edward was necessitated to use every expedient to raise supplies; and for this purpose, in the twenty-third year of his reign, he summoned to parliament representatives from all the boroughs in the kingdom; this may therefore be considered as the true epoch of the formation of a House of Commons in this country. After his return from the Scottish expedition in 1296, which terminated in the capture of Baliol, he became involved in a quarrel with his clergy, who, supported by the pope, refused to submit to a tax which he had imposed on them. Edward forced their compliance by placing them out of the protection of the law. His frequent expedients to raise money at length produced great discontent among the nobles and people also, which obliged him to confirm the great charter and charter of forests, and also to give other securities in favour of public liberty. He then made a campaign in Flanders against France, which terminated with the recovery of Guienne, and his marriage with Margaret, the sister of King Philip.

Meantime new commotions took place in Scotland, under the guidance of the celebrated William Wallace. These transactions recalled Edward from Flanders, who hastened to the borders with an army of 100,000 men. The events of this interesting campaign cannot be detailed here; but the ignominious execution of the brave Wallace in 1303, as a traitor, forms a blot in the character of Edward. Neither did it avail, since Robert Bruce was able in 1306 to place himself at the head of a new confederacy. Highly indignant at this determined spirit of resistance, Edward vowed revenge against the whole Scottish nation, and, assembling another army, was on the point of passing the border when he was arrested by sickness, and died at Burgh-upon-Sands, near Carlisle, in 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age and thirty-ninth of his reign. Few princes have exhibited more vigour in action or policy in council than Edward I. His enterprises were directed to permanent advantages rather than to mere personal ambition and temporary splendour. Nor was he less intent upon the internal improvement of his kingdom than its external importance. The laws of the realm obtained so much additional order and precision during his reign that he has been called the English Justinian. He passed an act of mortmain, protected and encouraged commerce, and in his reign first originated the society of merchant adventurers. The manners of this able sovereign were courteous and his person majestic, although the disproportionate length of his legs gave him the popular surname of Longshanks. He left a son and three daughters by his first wife, Eleanor, who died in 1290, and two sons by his second wife, Margaret of France.

EDWARD II., born at Caernarvon Castle in 1284, was the first English prince of Wales. He succeeded his father Edward I. in 1307. He was of an agreeable figure and mild disposition, but indolent and fond of pleasure. After marching a little way

into Scotland with the army collected by his father, he returned, dismissed his troops, and abandoned himself entirely to amusement. His first step was to recall Piers Gaveston, a young Gascon, whom his father had banished, and whom he created earl of Cornwall, and married to his niece. He then went over to France to espouse the princess Isabella, to whom he had been contracted by his father. Soon after his return the barons associated against the favourite Gaveston, whom they more than once obliged the king to send away. He was, however, as constantly recalled when the immediate danger was over, until an open rebellion took place; and, the person of Gaveston being captured, he was executed as a public enemy. In 1314 Edward assembled an immense army to check the progress of Robert Bruce, but was completely defeated at Bannockburn. After the death of Gaveston he selected a similar minion in the person of Hugh Spenser, a young nobleman whose father was living, and upon whom he lavished favours of every kind until the barons again rebelled, and, the parliament dooming the Spensers to exile, the king was obliged to confirm the sentence. Edward, however, on this occasion, in concert with the Spensers, contrived to raise troops and attack the barons, at the head of whom was his cousin, the earl of Lancaster, who, being taken prisoner, was executed at Pomfret. Several others also suffered, and the Spensers were enriched with the spoils. Edward subsequently made another fruitless attempt against Scotland, which ended in the conclusion of a truce of thirteen years.

In 1324 Queen Isabella went to France to settle some disputes in relation to Guienne, and while there entered into a correspondence with several English fugitives, in whose hatred to the Spensers she participated. Among those was Roger Mortimer, a young baron of the Welsh marches, between whom and Isabella a criminal intercourse succeeded; in consequence of which the queen was still more determined upon the ruin of her weak and unhappy husband. Having formed an association with all the English malcontents, and being aided with a force by the count of Hainault, she embarked for England in September 1326, and landed in Suffolk. Her forces seized the Tower of London and other fortresses, captured and executed both the Spensers without trial, and at length took the king prisoner, who had concealed himself in Wales with a view of escaping to Ireland. The unfortunate Edward was confined in Kenilworth Castle, and in January 1327 his deposition was unanimously voted in parliament on the ground of incapacity and misgovernment. A resignation of the crown was soon after extorted from him, and he was transferred to Berkeley Castle, where Mortimer despatched two ruffians, who it is said murdered him on the 21st of September, 1327, introducing a red-hot iron into his bowels, that no external marks of violence might remain.

EDWARD III., son of Edward II. by Isabella of France, was born in 1313. On his father's deposition in 1327 he was proclaimed king under a council of regency, while his mother's paramour Mortimer really possessed the principal power in the state. The pride and oppression of Mortimer soon became so intolerable that a general confederacy was formed against him, at the head of which was the young king himself, who now, in his eighteenth year, could ill brook the ascendancy of his mother's minion.

The result was the seizure of Mortimer in the castle of Nottingham, where he lodged with the queen, and his immediate execution upon a gibbet. The queen was also confined to her house with a reduced allowance, and, although treated with outward respect, never again recovered any degree of authority.

Edward first directed his attention to Scotland. Assisted by some principal English nobles who enjoyed estates in that country which were withheld from them contrary to the terms of the late treaty, Edward Baliol, son of the John Baliol to whom the crown had been awarded by Edward I., raised a force, and defeating the Scots in a great battle, set aside David Bruce, then a minor, and was crowned at Seone in 1332. Baliol being driven away on the departure of his English auxiliaries, applied to Edward, who levied a well-apportioned army, with which he defeated the regent Douglas at the celebrated battle of Halidown Hill in July 1333. This victory produced the restoration of Baliol, who was however again expelled and again restored until the ambition of Edward was called off by a still more splendid object.

The crown of France by the Salique law having devolved to Philip de Valois, cousin-german to the deceased king Charles the Fair, Edward was induced to claim it in the right of his mother, that monarch's sister. There existed other claims that were superior, but these considerations weighed very little with a young ambitious monarch eager for conquest and glory. The first hostilities produced nothing of much moment. Edward, in order to obtain fresh supplies, made concessions to parliament which he never intended to keep; and finding his territory of Guienne threatened, he sent over a force for its defence, and quickly followed, accompanied by his son Edward the celebrated black prince, all his chief nobility, and 30,000 men. The memorable battle of Crecy followed, which was succeeded by the siege of Calais. In the mean time David Bruce having recovered the throne of Scotland, made an incursion at the head of a large army into England, but being met at Durham by a much inferior force, raised by Queen Philippa, and headed by Lord Percy, he was totally defeated and taken prisoner with many of his principal nobles. Philippa went over to her husband at Calais, and by her interference prevented the execution of Eustache de St. Pierre and five other citizens, whom Edward on the capitulation of the place had determined to execute in revenge for his long detention in the siege. In 1348 a truce was concluded with France.

The year 1349 was distinguished by the institution of the order of the garter, which, owing to the fame and chivalrous character of Edward and his eldest son, soon became one of the most illustrious orders of knighthood in Europe. Philip, king of France, dying in 1350, was succeeded by his son John, the commencement of whose reign abounded with intestine commotions, and in 1355 Edward again invaded France on the side of Calais, while the black prince at the same time led a large army from Gascony. Both these expeditions were attended with much plunder and devastation, and Edward, being recalled home by a Scottish inroad, soon repelled it, and retaliated by carrying fire and sword from Berwick to Edinburgh. During this time the prince of Wales had penetrated from Guienne to the heart of France, where he was opposed by King John at the



head of an army nearly five times more numerous. The celebrated battle of Poitiers ensued, in which the French monarch being taken prisoner, Edward held at the same time in captivity the kings of France and Scotland, the most dangerous of his enemies. John was brought to England and treated with the greatest respect, and David was soon after liberated upon ransom.

A truce had been made with France after the battle of Poitiers, at the expiration of which in 1359 Edward once more passed over to Calais with a large army and desolated the provinces of Picardy and Champagne, but at length consented to a peace which was concluded in May 1360. Besides the stipulation of a large ransom for King John, several provinces and districts in the south-west of France and neighbourhood of Calais were yielded to Edward, who in his turn resigned his title to the crown of France and duchy of Normandy. The successor of John, Charles V., invaded the provinces entrusted to Prince Edward, then in the last stage of declining health, and Edward had the mortification of witnessing the gradual loss of all his French possessions except Bourdeaux and Bayonne, and of all his conquests except Calais. In the decline of life he was in other respects unfortunate; becoming a widower, he fell into a species of dotage, and an artful mistress named Alice Piers so abused her influence, that on a parliamentary remonstrance he found it necessary to dismiss her. His administration also became unpopular, and he had the affliction of witnessing his heroic son Edward sink a victim to a lingering illness, which calamity he survived about a year, dying on the 21st of June 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age and fifty-first of his reign.

**EDWARD, Prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince.**—This brave and chivalric prince was the eldest son of Edward III. and Philippa of Hainault. He was born in 1330, and at the age of fifteen accompanied his father in his invasion of France and received from him the honour of knighthood. The victory of Crecy, which King Edward left principally to the exertions of the force under his son's command, to use that king's language, "showed that he merited his spurs;" and it was on this occasion that he assumed the motto of "Ich dien" (I serve), used by all succeeding princes of Wales, and derived it is said from the crest of the king of Bohemia slain in that battle, which tradition however later antiquaries seem disposed to discredit.

In 1355 Edward commanded the army which invaded France from Gascony, and the next year fought the great battle of Poitiers, in which he distinguished himself by the courtesy with which he treated his prisoner King John. By the peace of Bretagne his father had obtained the provinces of Poictou, Saintonge, Perigoux, Limousin, &c., which he annexed to Guienne and formed into a sovereignty for his son under the title of the principality of Aquitaine. There the prince took up his residence, and at his court Pedro the Cruel sought refuge when driven from his throne by his natural brother Henry of Trastamare. Edward undertook the re-establishment of this tyrant, which he accomplished, but lost his health in the enterprise. Disappointed by the perfidy of Pedro of the stipulated reimbursements, the taxes he was obliged to levy on his new subjects rendered his government unpopular, and an appeal was made to the king of France as his liege lord, who

summoned him as his vassal to appear at Paris. "I will come," replied the angry prince, "but it shall be at the head of 60,000 men." His health however was too far declined to enable him to take the field when the king of France invaded his dominions, and having suffered the mortification of seeing his generals defeated he withdrew to England, and after lingering some time died on the 8th of June, 1376, in his forty-sixth year, leaving an only son, afterwards Richard II.

Edward was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, and his monument, of which we furnish a sketch, is still in good preservation.



**EDWARD IV.**, king of England, was born in 1441. His father, Richard, duke of York, was grandson of Edward, earl of Cambridge and duke of York, fourth son of Edward III., while the Lancaster branch descended from John of Gaunt, the third son. The York line had intermarried with the female descendants of Lionel, the second son, which gave it the preferable right to the crown. Edward on the defeat and death of his father at the battle of Wakefield assumed his title, and having entered London was declared king by acclamation in 1461. Soon after his accession he had to fight for his crown against an army of 60,000 Lancastrians assembled in Yorkshire, and the field of Towton confirmed his title by a decisive victory.

Although the high-spirited Margaret was enabled by the aid of Louis XI. of France again to take the field, the result of the battle of Hexham in May 1464 obliged her to return to Flanders and leave her husband, the imbecile Henry, a prisoner in the hands of his enemies, who immured him in the Tower of London. Freed from warlike cares, Edward indulged himself in the gallantries too common to his age and station, and by a marriage of passion with Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey of Groby, a Lancastrian, betrayed himself into very serious difficulties, since at the same time he had despatched the earl of Warwick to negotiate a marriage for him with Bona of Savoy, sister to the queen of France, so that he at once offended two royal houses and his powerful friend Warwick.

Aided by France, Warwick, who had contracted his daughters to the Lancastrian Prince Edward, landed with Clarence and some other lords at Dartmouth, and such was his popularity that he quickly saw himself at the head of 60,000 men, with whom he marched to encounter Edward. They approached each other near Nottingham, where the king by the

treachery of Montague, in whom he placed great confidence, had nearly been betrayed into the hands of his enemies. He had just time to mount on horseback, and with a few attendants proceeded to



Lynn, where he instantly embarked, and reached a port in Holland, leaving Warwick in full possession of his kingdom eleven days after he had set his foot in it. Henry's title was again recognised by parliament, and Warwick and Clarence were declared regents of the kingdom. Edward, who at first had been received rather coldly by his brother-in-law the duke of Burgundy, was at length secretly assisted by him with a small squadron of ships and a force of about 2000 men, with which he safely reached Ravenspur in Yorkshire. Here his forces quickly increased by partisans from all quarters, and he was soon enabled to march to London, where, through the influence of many rich merchants who had advanced him money, he obtained entrance as king, and the unfortunate Henry again became prisoner. Warwick advanced against him as far as Barnet, where, on the 14th of April, 1471, was fought another great battle, which ended in the death of Warwick and a decisive victory on the part of Edward. On the same day Queen Margaret and her son Edward landed at Weymouth and marched into Gloucestershire, where she was met by the victorious Edward, who totally defeated her at Tewkesbury. The queen and her son Edward being taken prisoners and brought into the presence of the victor, Edward asked the latter how he dared to invade his dominions. On receiving a spirited answer, he basely struck the captive prince on the face with his gauntlet, the signal for immediate massacre by the king's brothers and other nobles attendant. Margaret was thrown into the Tower, where Henry VI. soon after died, but whether by violence or disease is uncertain. Edward now once more resigned himself to pleasure and gaiety until seized with a desire to make French conquests. Baffled by the arts, intrigues, and money of Louis XI. (which he condescended to accept), these attempts ended in nothing of importance.

The latter part of his reign was disturbed by his jealousy of his brother Clarence, and the consequence of this ill-will was the attainder of Clarence, who was indulged in his desire of meeting his death by immersion in a butt of malmsey wine. Edward

was preparing for another expedition against France when he died in April 1483, in the forty-second year of his age and twenty-third of his reign. He left two sons and five daughters. Edward IV. possessed some ability and activity, but was however more showy than solid. His valour was stained by cruelty, and he was less fitted to prevent evils than by his courage and enterprise to remedy them.

EDWARD V., king of England, the eldest son of Edward IV., was in his thirteenth year when he succeeded his father in 1483. His uncle, the duke of Gloucester, the regent, is said to have caused the young king and his brother, who were lodged in the Tower, to be smothered, but nothing is known with any degree of certainty respecting this event. But two bodies, answering their description, being found buried at the foot of the stairs of their apartment, in the reign of Charles II., were taken up by that king's order and deposited in Westminster Abbey.

EDWARD VI., king of England, son of Henry VIII. by Jane Seymour, was born in 1538. At his father's death he was only nine years of age, and, as he did not live to attain majority, the public acts of his reign are to be deemed those of his counsellors. His education was entrusted to men of the first character for learning, among whom were Sir Anthony Cooke and Sir John Cheke. The progress of the young king, whose disposition was very docile and amiable, was great, especially in classical acquirements, and a rooted zeal for the doctrines of the Re-



formation, but his reign was on the whole tumultuous and unsettled. After his father's death his maternal uncle, Seymour, duke of Somerset, became protector, but his administration raised up such powerful enemies that he was brought to the scaffold. Edward was much afflicted at the necessity of consenting to his execution, and with equal reluctance consented to the death of a fanatical female, named Joan Bocher, who was sentenced to the flames for heresy.

When Cranmer urged Edward to sign the warrant for her execution, he long resisted, and at length, overcome by his importunities, told him that if it was wrong the guilt lay with him. After the death of Somerset, Dudley, duke of Northumberland, became all-powerful, and through his influence Edward, in a declining state of health, was induced to



set aside the succession of both his sisters, and to settle the crown upon the Lady Jane Grey, claiming through his father's younger sister, the duchess of Suffolk. His decease, from a pulmonary complaint, took place in July 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age and seventh of his reign.

EDWARD, CHARLES, called the *Pretender*, and grandson of James II., was a son of James Edward and Clementine daughter of Prince Sobiesky. He was born in 1720 at Rome, where his father enjoyed the friendship of the popes Clement XI. and Innocent XIII. The last scion of the royal house of Stuart, from the very cradle he was inspired with an impulse that induced him, at the early age of twenty-two, to attempt the recovery of the throne of his ancestors. Supported by the court of Rome, he went to Paris in 1742, disguised as a Spanish courier, and succeeded in gaining over to his views Louis XV. 15,000 men were on the point of sailing from Dunkirk to this country, when the English admiral Norris dispersed the whole French fleet before it had gained the open sea. This prevented the French court from undertaking a second expedition; all the requests of Edward were in vain, and he now resolved to trust to his own exertions.

With borrowed money, and seven trusty officers, Charles Edward landed like a knight-errant on the 27th of June, 1745, on the north-western coast of Scotland, from a ship which contained arms for 1500 men. The attempt succeeded, and he found so many adherents among the discontented Scotch nobles, who went over to his party, together with the Highlanders under them, that he was soon at the head of a small army. With this he marched forward, conquered the British troops which advanced to meet him from Edinburgh, captured Perth, and caused himself to be proclaimed regent of England, Scotland, and Ireland. He also took Edinburgh on the 19th of September, 1745, where he was once more proclaimed regent. In September 1745 he defeated at Preston Pans an army of 4000 English. His force was now 7000 strong. With this he advanced and laid siege to Carlisle, which, after three days, surrendered, and supplied him with a great number of arms. He now caused his father to be proclaimed king, and himself regent of England, removed his head-quarters to Manchester, and soon found himself within 100 miles of London, where many of his friends awaited his arrival.

The rapid successes of the young prince made the government tremble, and a part of the English forces in Germany was recalled. Want of support, disunion and jealousy among the adherents of the house of Stuart, some errors, and the superior force opposed to him, compelled Prince Edward to retire in the beginning of 1746. The victory at Falkirk was his last, but in a final attempt he risked the battle of Culloden against the duke of Cumberland, in which his army was defeated and entirely dispersed. The prince wandered about for a long time through the wilds of Scotland, and the price of 30,000*l.* sterling was set upon his head. He however escaped, and was joined by a faithful Scottish nobleman; they escaped detection by sailing in a miserable skiff from island to island, and wandering from valley to valley, pursued by a thousand dangers; for constant search was made for Charles in every direction. At Lochnanach he was, however, fortunate enough to meet one of the French frigates which had been sent

for his rescue, and five months after the defeat of Culloden he arrived in France destitute of every thing. By the interest of Madame de Pompadour Prince Edward now received an annual pension of 200,000 livres for life; he had also 12,000 doubloons yearly from Spain.

The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle deprived him of all prospect of recovering the throne of England, and when he heard that his own removal from France was stipulated in the articles of peace his anger knew no bounds. Indeed it became necessary to carry him under a guard to the frontiers of Italy. He went to Rome, the residence of his father, James III., but his relations to that court were changed after his father's death. He therefore went to Florence till Pius VI. recalled him to Rome by withdrawing his pension. That his family might not become extinct he married, in the fifty-second year of his age, a princess of Stolberg-Gedern, but his violence led to a separation in 1780, and he died in January 1788. Three years, before, he sent for his natural daughter from France, legitimated her, and declared her, on his royal authority, his lawful heiress under the title of countess of Albany. His body was carried to Frascati, and entombed in a style worthy of a king. A sceptre, crown, sword, and the escutcheons of England and Scotland, adorned his coffin, and his only brother then living, the cardinal of York, performed the funeral service for "dead King Charles." The cardinal of York received from this country an annual pension of 4000*l.* sterling from the year 1799, and died at Frascati in July 1807.

EDWARDS, BRYAN, was born at Westbury in Wiltshire, in 1743. On the death of his father in adverse circumstances, he acquired the protection of his maternal uncle, a person possessed of great property in the island of Jamaica. He inherited not only the large fortune of his uncle, but of a Mr. Hume of Jamaica, and, becoming an eminent merchant, returned to England, and in 1796 took his seat for the borough of Grampound, which he represented until his death in July 1800. His first publication was a pamphlet entitled "Thoughts on the Trade of the West India Islands with the United States, 1784," this was followed by his "Speech on the Slave Trade," but his most distinguished performance is his "History, Civil and Commercial, of the British Colonies in the West Indies, 1793." A new edition of this work, published after his death in 1801, includes a history of St. Domingo. Mr. Edwards also published in 1796 the "Proceedings of the Governor and Assembly of Jamaica in regard to the Maroon Negroes." All these works are valuable for their information, and are written with ease and elegance.

EDWARDS, WILLIAM, a very skilful self-taught architect, born in Glamorganshire in 1719. The life of this extraordinary individual furnishes an interesting example of the progress of genius under the most discouraging circumstances. He was the youngest son of a farmer who died when he was only two years old, and he employed himself with two brothers and a sister on the farm with their mother till he was about eighteen years of age. When he was not more than fifteen, however, he frequently repaired the walls or stone fences of the farm; a species of fence which, every one who is acquainted with Wales knows, is common in the mountain districts. He was observed to perform his work in a style

uncommonly neat and firm, and with an expedition equalled by few.

Some friends, who had noticed his work, advised his elder brother to encourage him in this employment, not only on the family farm, but in the service of any neighbours who should desire to engage him. William readily assented to this proposal, and worked almost continually at wall-building, for which occupation his talents were in eager request. The fences in this part of the country are technically denominated dry walls from the circumstance of their being constructed without mortar. All this time the subject of this memoir, it should be remarked, added his regular earnings to the common stock of his mother and brothers, who were pursuing the business of their farm.

When he had long exercised his ingenuity in this way, some masons regularly trained to their calling came to the neighbourhood in order to erect a shed for horse-shoeing at a smith's farrier's there. Admiring the neatness with which these artificers constructed the pillars and other parts of the shed, William felt anxious to emulate their skill; he often left his own work and repaired to a field opposite the smith's shop, where the masons were employed. Here he first remarked, that with the common mason's hammer of the country, one end of which is an axe, they were enabled to dress their stones so neatly; and this led him to the conclusion, that the principal reason why he could not do the same arose from his hammer not been steeled. He accordingly lost no time in procuring hammers better suited to his purpose, and soon found that he could execute his dry-walling much better and with a neatness far surpassing his former work. Being thus furnished with tools, and having acquired dexterity in the use of them, he aspired to rank higher in the scale of his profession, hoping, from a dry wall builder, to become a builder of houses. Shortly after this, he, in fact, undertook to build a little workshop for a neighbour, and obtained great credit for the propriety with which he performed his contract.

At length he was employed to erect a mill in his own parish, in the prosecution of which he first became acquainted with the principles of an arch. Having completed this mill, it did not meet with merely "faint praise," but was admired by approved judges of masonry, so that he was now considered as the best workman in that part of the country. "Employment was thrust upon him on better grounds than Malvolio's greatness; and as skill and fidelity are indispensably requisite in a business which requires the evidence of time and experience to detect faults, not then to be remedied, application was generally made to William Edwards by those who wished to avoid both disappointment and altercation."

Advancing in fame, he undertook to build a new bridge over the river Taff during 1746. It consisted of three arches, elegantly light in their construction; and was executed in a style decidedly superior to any thing of the kind ever seen in Wales, and it was admired by all who surveyed it. Such a flood unfortunately occurred, however, after the completion of this undertaking, as tore up the largest trees by the roots, and carried them down the river to the bridge, whose arches were not sufficiently expansive to admit of their passage through. Here therefore was the stoppage felt. Brushwood, weeds, hay, straw, and whatever lay in the way of

the flood, came down and collected about the branches of the trees which stuck fast in the arches, and choked the free current of the water. The aggregate of many collected streams uniting in their progress, here rose to a prodigious height, and, with the force of its pressure, carried the bridge entirely away before it! The bridge had stood about two years and a half.

Having given ample security for the stability of the first bridge, during the space of seven years, William Edwards was consequently obliged to proceed to the erection of another with the least possible delay. His second bridge was of one arch, for the purpose of admitting freely under it whatever incumbrances the floods might bring down. The span or chord of this arch was one hundred and forty feet; the altitude thirty-five feet; the segment of a circle whose diameter was one hundred and seventy feet. The arch was finished, but the parapets were not yet erected, when such was the pressure of the unavoidably ponderous work over the haunches, that it sprung up in the middle, and the key-stones were forced out! His second bridge fell in 1751.

William Edwards was not easily depressed. "He commenced his operations once more; and by means of three cylindrical holes through the work over the haunches so reduced the weight, otherwise resting upon them, that there was no longer any danger to be apprehended from it. These holes, or cylinders, rise above each other, ascending in the order of the arch, three at each end, or over each of the haunches; the diameter of the lowest is nine feet; of the second, six feet; and of the uppermost, three feet. They give the bridge an air of unusual elegance. This third bridge was completed in 1755. About half a mile above New Bridge, on the Taff, is a waterfall of considerable celebrity; not for its height, but for the grandeur of its concomitant scenery. The way is along a path beautifully overhung, between the bank of the river and a lofty pile of impending rock, that seems at a distance to be connected with its rival on the other side by the magnificent arch of New Bridge. From the rocks in the middle of the river the reach of the vale is peculiarly advantageous; and perhaps the magic of New Bridge is nowhere so imposing as when viewed from the front of the fall. The abutments on each side are concealed by a small bend of the Taff and by the intervening foliage of the banks, and the arch seems to ride unsupported in the air."

Numbers now came from many parts of the kingdom to see this bridge and its builder. The fame of this bridge introduced Edwards to public notice, and he was employed to build many other bridges in South Wales. Amongst the other bridges more immediately constructed by William Edwards, as to order of time, was Usk-bridge, over the river so named at the town of Usk in Monmouthshire. He successively built the following ones: A bridge of three arches over the river Tawy and Pont ar Tawy over the same river, of one arch, its chord being eighty feet, with one cylinder over the haunches. Bettws-bridge in Caernarthenshire, which consists of one arch, forty-five feet in span. Landover-bridge, Caernarthenshire, consisting of one arch, eighty-four feet in the span, with one cylinder over the haunches. Wychbree-bridge, over the river Tawy, about two miles above Morriston; this has one arch, ninety-five feet in span, twenty feet in altitude,



with two cylinders over each of the haunches to relieve them. He built Abezavon-bridge in Glamorganshire, consisting of one arch seventy feet in span, fifteen feet in altitude, but without cylinders. He likewise built Glasbury-bridge, near Hay, in Brecknockshire, over the river Wye; it consisted of five arches, and was a light and elegant bridge. The arches were small segments of large circles, on high piers, as best adapted to facilitate the passage of floods under the bridge and travellers over it.

The literary knowledge of William Edwards was at first confined to the Welsh language, which he could read and write from early youth. Arithmetical knowledge he had derived from some friendly neighbour, but about his twenty-first year he learnt English reading. He appears, indeed, to have possessed a mind that could not easily be stopped in its progress. Although his attainments in literature were limited to the two languages, their application to the various branches of study in which he was engaged gave constant exercise even to his industry and spirit of inquiry. William Edwards was actively engaged in architectural pursuits till the time of his death, which occurred in 1789. His son David attained considerable eminence as a builder of bridges.

**EDWARDS, GEORGE.**—This eminent English naturalist was born in 1693. After receiving a good classical education, he visited the continent for the purpose of making collections in natural history, and he applied himself closely to the delineation of such animals as fell under his observation. Birds first engaged his particular attention, and some of the best pictures of these subjects being purchased by him, he was induced to make a few drawings of his own. These were admired by the curious, who, by paying a good price for them, encouraged him in labours which now procured him a decent subsistence and a large acquaintance. In 1731 he was enabled to remit his industry, and in company with two of his relations made an excursion to Holland and Brabant, where he collected several scarce books and prints, and had an opportunity of examining the original pictures of various great masters at Antwerp, Brussels, Utrecht, and other large cities.

In 1733, by the recommendation of Sir Hans Sloane, president of the college of physicians, Mr. Edwards was chosen their librarian, and had apartments assigned him in the college. This, which was the principal epocha of his private life, fixed him in an office that was particularly agreeable to his taste and inclination. He had now an opportunity of a constant recourse to a valuable library filled with scarce and curious books on those subjects of natural history which he most assiduously studied. By degrees he became one of the most eminent ornithologists in our own or any other country, and in acquiring this character, such was his scrupulous industry, that he never trusted to others what he could perform himself; and, when he found it difficult to give satisfaction to his own mind, frequently made three or four drawings to delineate the object in its most lively character, attitude, and representation. In 1743 he exhibited to the world an admirable specimen of his labours in the first volume of his "History of Birds." It was published in quarto on royal paper, and contains sixty-one birds and two quadrupeds, most of which had been neither delineated nor described before. A second volume appeared in 1747, dedicated to Sir Hans Sloane, and a

third in 1750, dedicated to the Royal Society. His fourth volume came from the press in 1751, and was the last which at that time he intended to publish. It was accompanied by the extraordinary circumstance of being dedicated to the Supreme Being, in the following words:

"To God, the One Eternal! the Incomprehensible! the Omnipresent, the Omniscient and Almighty Creator of all things that exist! from orbs immensurably great, to the minutest points of matter, this Atom is dedicated and devoted with all possible gratitude, humiliation, worship, and the highest adoration both of body and mind, by his most resigned, low, and humble creature,

"GEORGE EDWARDS."

The well-meaning but vain author of this somewhat impious dedication, afterwards published "Gleanings in Natural History" in several volumes. He died at Plaistow in 1773.

**EDWARDS, JONATHAN**, a celebrated American metaphysician and theologian, whom Dugald Stewart describes as "indisputably the ablest champion of the scheme of necessity since the time of Collins." He was born in East Windsor, Connecticut, on the 5th of October, 1703. Jonathan entered Yale College, in New Haven, in September 1716, where he was distinguished for good morals, diligence, and proficiency in the collegiate studies. His habits of application and thought, and his delight and success in scientific studies, were extraordinary. Papers in his hand-writing show that at fourteen he conceived the design of composing a complete "Treatise on Natural Philosophy and Natural History, including Chemistry and Geology." His piety, his devotion to the Bible, and his propensity for theological enquiries, were equally remarkable.

In 1722 he went to New York, where he preached for about eight months with great distinction, and in September 1723 he was elected a tutor in Yale College, and in the following year began to act in that capacity, but resigned his office in 1726 in order to become the minister of the people of Northampton, where he was ordained February 15, 1727. The record of his labours as a pastor, divine, and metaphysical writer, is instructive in the highest degree, as are also his various sermons and disquisitions. After more than three years of zealous service in Northampton, a total rupture occurred between him and his congregation, owing to the candour and boldness with which he publicly reprov'd certain irregularities in some young persons of the principal families connected with his church. An ecclesiastical council dismissed him in June 1750; and in the following year he went out as a missionary among the Indians at Stockbridge in Massachusetts, where he remained six years, exerting himself with an apostolical spirit, and at the same time prosecuting the deepest investigations in mental philosophy. While there he composed his celebrated works on the "Freedom of the Will," and on "Original Sin." The first is his masterpiece, and worthy of the powers of a Locke or Leibnitz. It was completed within the space of four months and a half. The date of its first appearance is the early part of 1754.

In 1757 Edwards was chosen president of the college at Princeton, New Jersey, and accepted this invitation, though not without reluctance, on account chiefly of his desire to accomplish two great literary

enterprises, which he had begun long before—"A History of the Work of Redemption," and "A View of the Harmony of the Old and New Testament." In January 1758 he repaired to Princeton, where the small-pox then prevailed. He was inoculated by the physician of the college, and had the malady favourably; but a secondary fever set in, and, on account of the number of pustules in his throat, the obstruction was such that the medicines necessary to check the fever could not be administered. This disorder put an end to his life on the 22nd of March, 1758. This eminent man gave to the last moment an admirable example of Christian patience, resignation, and hope. He left five daughters and three sons. One of his sons was president of the college at Schenectady, New York, having been, like his father, a tutor in the institution in which he was educated; subsequently dismissed from a parish under his care on account of his religious opinions, settled again in a retired situation, elected to the presidency of a college, and called to leave this world shortly after his inauguration, and nearly at the same age with his father.

EDWARDS, EDWARD, a clever English artist, who was born in 1738. Mr. Edwards was principally celebrated for his skill in perspective, on which subject he published a treatise. He died of a short illness in 1806.

EDWARDS, RICHARD, an early English poet, who was the first student in Christ Church College Oxford. He wrote "Damon and Pythias," and several other dramas; but his principal work is entitled, "The Paradise of Dainty Devices."

EDWARDS, THOMAS, a learned divine, who was born at Coventry in 1729. His principal works relate to the metre of the Psalms, and he was an excellent Latin and Hebrew scholar. He died in 1785.

EDWIN, JOHN, a burlesque comedian of great merit, who lived in the latter part of the last century. He was born in London in 1749, and was the son of a watch-maker, who gave him an education above his circumstances, and procured him a situation in the pension-office of the Exchequer. This as well as another profitable employment he left for the stage; and after having figured in the private theatricals of the metropolis, he commenced his career as a professional actor at Manchester in 1765. The class of characters in which he first excelled was that of ridiculous old men, as Justice Woodcock in "Love in a Village;" but he afterwards took a wider range, and especially distinguished himself in embodying the ludicrous personifications of O'Keeffe, many of which were expressly designed for him by the author. After performing with applause at Dublin, Bath, and other places, he made his appearance at the Haymarket Theatre in June 1775. He was subsequently engaged at Covent-garden; and continued to enjoy great reputation till his death, which took place October 31st, 1790.

EDWY, king of England was the son of Edmund I., and succeeded his uncle Edred in 955. Taking the part of the secular clergy against the monks he incurred the confirmed enmity of the latter. Having called Dunstan to account for his share in the administration in the preceding reign, the latter refused to attend the summons, and was in consequence banished. His party was however so strong that a rebellion was excited, and Edwy driven from the

throne to make way for his brother Edgar. That his marriage with Elgiva may have given a pretence for his deposition and excommunication is very probable, but there is reason to believe, from his youth and other circumstances, that the story of the fate of Elgiva as related by Carte and Hume is materially incorrect. Edwy died in 959.

EGALITE, PHILIP, that is, Philip Equality, the name adopted after the abolition of monarchy in France by Philip Bourbon Capet, duke of Orleans.

EGBERT.—This monarch is believed to have been the first king of all England. He was of the royal family of Wessex, and on the death of Brithric he succeeded him as king of Wessex in 800. He reduced the other kingdoms, and rendered them dependent on him in 827, but he was much annoyed by the repeated inroads of the Danes. Egbert died in 838.

EGBERT, a celebrated archbishop of York, who lived in the eighth century. He was a prelate of considerable learning for the age in which he lived; and the celebrated Alcuin, who was his pupil, wrote a Latin poem containing a list of the books which composed the library of Egbert. It included the writings of Victorinus and Boethius, Pompeius Trogus, Pliny the Elder, Aristotle, Cicero, &c.; but among the Latin poets only Virgil, Statius, Lucan, and Prudentius. This literary collection was unfortunately destroyed by fire when the Norman garrison burnt the suburbs of York in 1069, that they might prevent the approaches of the besieging Danes and Northumbrians. Egbert died in 767.

EGEDE, JOHN.—This enterprising ecclesiastic was born about 1686 in Denmark, and in 1707 became a preacher at Wogen in Norway. Having heard that Christianity had been once established in Greenland, but had become extinct in the country for want of teachers, he resolved to visit the country and to preach the gospel to the inhabitants. But he was without resources. The merchants in Bergen were unwilling to undertake to trade with Greenland, and the government refused his petition for ships, money, and men, because they were involved in a war with Sweden; the bishops of Bergen and Dronheim praised his noble resolution, but were unable to help him. Having however collected some money to aid him in his purpose he resigned his charge, received from the Danish government, after the conclusion of peace with Sweden, the title of royal missionary to Greenland, with a small pension and three ships, one to remain with him, another to bring back the news of his arrival, and a third to engage in the whale fishery. Egede embarked for Greenland with forty-six persons under his command. The whaling vessel was wrecked, the other two reached Greenland, but an extent of twelve leagues of floating ice seemed to make it impossible to land; however, they finally succeeded, and the conversion of the Greenlanders was now undertaken, but offered great difficulties, and the whole colony, tired of struggling against misery and wretchedness of every description, were eager to return to Denmark. Egede resolved to adopt that course; but the firmness of his wife prevailed upon them all to remain, and trust to the arrival of a vessel from Denmark with the necessary supplies. In the mean time Egede had caused his son Paul to paint several scenes from the Bible, perhaps to convey to the Greenlanders some idea of the history, or to excite their curiosity. As this did



not succeed, he took up his residence with his two sons among the natives in order to learn their language. He carefully noted down every word of which he discovered the meaning; he often performed long journeys at the peril of his life to visit the remotest Greenlanders for the purpose of gaining their confidence, in which he succeeded by a thousand acts of kindness; he also endeavoured to render the trade more profitable to the crown, which sent him a vessel annually with supplies. Though he was unsuccessful in learning the language, his two sons and especially Paul attained it with little difficulty. Egede therefore sent him to Copenhagen for four years to study theology that he might leave him as his successor in Greenland. Egede, the father, after spending fifteen years in Greenland amid innumerable discouragements, returned in 1736 to Copenhagen to make new exertions for the support of Christianity in that country. The government appointed him director of the Greenland missions, and established his son Paul in the office of missionary there. When age rendered him incapable of the exercise of his duties, he retired to the island of Falster, where he died, in 1758. His writings are in Danish, and have been translated into German. They relate to the natural history of Greenland, and his sufferings and adventures there. His son Paul Egede, born in 1708, was his assistant from the time he was twelve years old. He went to Copenhagen in 1723, carrying with him some Greenlanders to be instructed in various trades: they all soon died of the small-pox. Notwithstanding a strong inclination for the naval service he submitted to the wishes of his father, studied divinity, and took charge of the mission in Greenland. In this undertaking he embarked in 1734, carried out with him new colonists, and remained there till 1740. He then returned to Copenhagen, received the office of chaplain in the hospital dedicated to the Holy Ghost, and was commissioned also to direct the affairs of the mission, and the following year he was appointed by the king bishop of Greenland. He died in 1789.

EGERTON, FRANCIS, duke of Bridgewater, a distinguished English nobleman, who was born in 1726. His father, the first person who bore the title of duke of Bridgewater, had obtained in 1732 an act of parliament authorizing him to dig a canal from Worsley, one of his estates containing very valuable coal mines, to Manchester, but the difficulties in the way of executing it deterred him from attempting it. Francis Egerton, by the death of his father and elder brother, coming into possession of the great estates of the family, resolved to complete the plan of his father, and succeeded by the help of Brindley. To effect his object he limited his personal expenses to 400*l.* a year, and devoted all the rest of his income to his great undertaking. The canal which bears the name of the duke was completed in five years, after the expenditure of immense sums, and enabled him to supply Manchester and the neighbouring towns with coal. He afterwards extended his canal to the Mersey, so as to bring Liverpool into the line of his navigation. The success of his undertaking was so great that canals were now projected in every direction. Brindley formed the idea of establishing a water communication between London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull, and completed it in part, as the duke in 1766 began

the grand trunk navigation, so called, by which the rivers Trent and Mersey were united. This canal, which is ninety miles long, was finished in 1777, and connects Liverpool and Hull. The duke of Bridgewater died unmarried in 1803.

EGERTON, THOMAS, Viscount Brackley, a celebrated lord chancellor of England, who lived in the reign of James I. He was born about 1540, and after studying at Oxford he went to Lincoln's Inn to qualify himself for the legal profession. In 1581 he was appointed solicitor-general, and shortly after was knighted on being raised to the office of attorney-general. In 1596 he received the seals with the title of lord-keeper, and was sworn a member of the privy-council. He not only distinguished himself by attention to his official duties, but also by his political conduct, particularly in the suppression of the conspiracy of the earl of Essex. He continued in favour at court in the reign of James I., when he was created Baron Ellesmere and was made lord chancellor; and in 1615 he was appointed to execute the office of lord high steward on the trial of the earl and countess of Somerset for the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury. A conviction of the criminals taking place, the conscientious judge refused to affix the great seal to the pardon, which the king had the weakness to grant to his quondam favourite. Soon after the chancellor voluntarily resigned his office in opposition to the wishes of his majesty, who in 1616 raised him to the dignity of Viscount Brackley. He died at York House in the Strand, March 15th, 1617.

EGIL, SCALLAGRIM, an Icelandic bard or poet of the tenth century, who distinguished himself by his warlike exploits in predatory invasions of Scotland and Northumberland. Having killed in combat the son of Eric Blodox, king of Norway, he was doomed to death on being subsequently taken prisoner by that prince. Egil demanded permission to redeem his life by giving a specimen of his powers as an improvisatore. This was granted, and he immediately composed and recited a poem in praise of Eric, entitled "Egil's Ransom," which procured him his life and liberty. This piece is still extant, and a Latin version of it was published by Olaus Wormius in his "*Literatura Danica Antiquissima*," from which Dr. Percy translated it into our own language, and printed it in his "*Northern Antiquities*."

EGINHARD, EINARD, was at first the companion of Charlemagne, then his private secretary and chaplain, and general superintendent of the emperor's houses. His talents and learning gained him the love and confidence of his royal master, and induced him to bestow on Eginhard his daughter Emma, or Imma, in marriage. On the death of the emperor Eginhard left his wife, entered the order of Benedictine monks, and became first abbot of the monastery at Seligenstadt in Darmstadt, where he died, 839. Eginhard is the oldest German historian, and we have from him a full and well-written history of the life of Charlemagne, which was published by Schmink in 1711 with illustrations and a biography. An edition was published by Bredow in 1806. Eginhard's "*Annals of the Franks*," from 741 to 829, appeared also in 1711 at Utrecht. His letters, which are of much importance as contributions to the history of his age, are still extant. A plan is likewise ascribed to him of uniting the German ocean with the Mediterranean and the Black Seas, by two canals, one of which was to form a connexion between the

Moselle and Saone, and the other between the Rhine and the Danube.

EGMONT, LAMORAL, COUNT OF, was born in 1522 of an illustrious family of Holland. He entered the military service, and gained a high reputation under Charles V., whom he accompanied to Africa in 1544, and he also distinguished himself as a general of cavalry under Philip II. in the battles of St. Quentin and Gravelines. Philip having gone to Spain, Egmont took part in the troubles in the Low Countries; he endeavoured, however, to adjust the difficulties between the duchess of Parma, who governed the provinces, and the nobles confederated against her. He even swore in the presence of this princess to support the Catholic faith, to punish the sacrilegious, and to extirpate heretics. Still his connexion with the prince of Orange and his most distinguished adherents made him an object of suspicion to the court of Aranjuez, and Egmont, with the noble Philip of Montmorency, Count Horn, became the victims of hate and fanaticism. The duke of Alva, who was sent by Philip II. to the Netherlands to reduce the insurgents, ordered them both to be executed at Brussels on the 5th of June, 1563. Egmont was then in the forty-sixth year of his age, and died with heroic firmness. The French ambassador announced the events to his court with these words: "I have seen that head fall which twice made France tremble." Egmont had before written to Philip II. that "he had never joined in any undertaking against the Catholic religion nor violated his duties as a loyal subject." But an example was thought necessary to strike terror into others. Philip II. expressed himself thus on the subject: "he had caused those two heads to fall, because a pair of such salmon heads was worth more than many thousand frogs." Egmont's line became extinct in Procopius Francis, count of Egmont, general of cavalry to the king of Spain and brigadier in the French service, who died without children at Fraga in Arragon in 1707. Maximilian von Egmont, count of Buren, general in the service of the emperor Charles V., who distinguished himself in the wars against Francis I., belonged to another line. A well-known drama of Gothe, called "Egmont," is founded on the above catastrophe; yet we cannot help thinking that if poetry often gives to historical characters a fictitious elevation, the reverse has taken place in this instance, and that Egmont in history, the father of a family, is greater than Gothe's Egmont, a lover and imprudent conspirator.

EHRENSTROM, a Swedish officer, who was one of the principal persons engaged in the conspiracy against the regency in 1793. At the death of Gustavus III., from whom he had received several marks of honour and trust, he joined a conspiracy headed by Baron Armfelt to overturn the regency, and raise the young king to the throne before the time appointed by law and the will of Gustavus III. The plot was accidentally discovered. Armfelt escaped, and the whole weight of vengeance fell upon his accomplices. Ehrenstrom defended himself with eloquence and ability on his trial, but was sentenced to die. He went with calmness and resolution to the scaffold, and the executioner was on the point of giving the death stroke when it was announced that his sentence was commuted to perpetual imprisonment. On the accession of Gustavus IV. he was released, and withdrew into retirement with a pension from the king.

ELIO, FRANCISCO XAVIER, a celebrated Spanish officer, who distinguished himself in the Spanish war against Napoleon, and was appointed by the regency to be captain-general of the provinces of Rio de la Plata during the early part of the revolution in South America. He had to contend with Liniers and Artiga particularly, and was attacked and besieged by the latter in Monte Video. The siege being prosecuted by Rondo with every prospect of success, Elio implored the assistance of the Brazilian government, and an auxiliary force of 4000 Portuguese was preparing to relieve him, when the fear of their approach induced the patriots to close with the propositions for peace made by Elio. This was in 1811, but Elio was again besieged the next year. Meanwhile he was succeeded by Don Gaspar Vigodet and returned to Europe. Upon the return of Ferdinand VII. Elio was one of the first to declare in favour of absolute monarchy, and contributed efficaciously to the revolution which overthrew the regency and the cortes of Cadiz. He was rewarded with the appointment of captain-general of the kingdom of Valencia, which he governed with all the extremity of fanatical rigour. A disturbance in the city of Valencia gave him occasion to inflict upon the friends of liberal institutions, indiscriminately, a series of cruelties shocking to humanity. His career of atrocity lasted upwards of a year, when it was cut short by the revival of the constitution of Cadiz in March 1820. Elio proclaimed the new order of things, and prepared to submit to it, yet would have been killed by the populace but for the intercession of the count of Almodavar. He was imprisoned in the citadel, where he remained until May 1822 without a conclusion of his trial. At that time he was implicated in the movement of part of the garrison in favour of absolutism. He was immediately brought to trial before a military commission for his new crime, and unanimously sentenced to the punishment of death, which was inflicted on the 3rd of September, 1822. When the invasion of the French restored Ferdinand to absolute power, the greatest honours were paid to the memory of General Elio. His eldest son received the title of Marquis of Fidelity, and his full pay as general was continued to his widow and children. The judges, also, who condemned him to death, were among the exceptions from the decree of amnesty of 1824.

ELIOT, JOHN, generally styled the Apostle to the Indians, was born in 1604, and educated at the University of Cambridge. After pursuing the occupation of a teacher in England, he emigrated in 1631 to Massachusetts in North America. He became minister of the church in Roxbury, and soon conceived a strong passion for Christianizing and improving the condition of the Indians, of whom there were nearly twenty tribes within the limits of the English plantations. He acquired their language, and published a grammar and a translation of the Bible in it, and the merit is claimed for him of having been the first Protestant clergyman who preached the gospel to the North American savages. His evangelical labours and personal sufferings, his influence among them, his zeal, courage, and exposure in protecting them from wrong and violence, are celebrated in a number of the publications on New England history and biography. This indefatigable missionary died in May 1690. He left four sons, whom he had educated at Harvard



College, and who were classed with "the best preachers of their generation." His printed works are voluminous. In 1660 he issued a tract, in which he attempted to prove that the Indians are descendants of the Jews. Hutchinson relates in his "History of Massachusetts," that in 1660 the governor and council of Massachusetts pronounced the "Christian Commonwealth," of which Eliot was the author, to be "full of seditious principles and notions in relation to all established governments in the Christian world, especially against the government established in their native country." Upon consultation with the elders, their formal censure was deferred in order to afford the heretical republican an opportunity of making a public recantation. He did this in a paper which he delivered to the general court at its next session, and which was posted up by his order in the principal towns of the colony. He acknowledges that "such expressions as do manifestly scandalize the government of England, by king, lords, and commons, are antichristian, and that all form of civil government deduced from scripture is of God, and to be subjected to for conscience' sake; and whatsoever is in the whole epistle or book inconsistent herewith he does at once most cordially disown."

**ELIOTT, GEORGE AUGUSTUS, LORD HEATHFIELD**, the defender of Gibraltar.—This distinguished naval commander was born in Scotland in 1718 of an ancient family. He was educated by a private tutor, but was afterwards sent to the University of Leyden. He studied military science at the French military school at La Fere, travelled through several parts of the continent, and served in the Prussian army as a volunteer. In 1733 he joined the engineer corps at Woolwich, where he continued till he was made adjutant of the second corps of horse grenadiers. He accompanied George II. to Germany in May 1743, when that monarch assisted Maria Theresa against France, and while there rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel. In the seven years' war he fought under the command of the duke of Cumberland, Prince Ferdinand, and the crown-prince of Brunswick, from 1757, as commander-in-chief of a regiment of light cavalry which he had himself raised. He was, however, called from the continent to be made second in command at Havanna.

In 1775 he was made commander-in-chief of the forces in Ireland, and in the same year received the governorship of Gibraltar. Spain in connexion with France took part in 1779 in the war between England and America, and even before the declaration of war laid siege to Gibraltar by sea and by land. In the course of three years all the preparations had been made for a siege which is one of the most extraordinary in history. In June 1782 the duke of Crillon, commander-in-chief of the Spanish army, who had recently taken the island of Minorca from the English, arrived before Gibraltar with a reinforcement. All the French princes royal were in the camp, and an army of 30,000 Frenchmen and Spaniards were at the foot of the hill. Floating batteries were constructed to attack the fortifications with two roofs so carefully and strongly built that neither balls nor bombs could injure them; there were ten of them, which together had 397 cannons, each cannon being served by thirty-six men. On the 13th of September, 1782, they drew near to the fortress, and the crews (consisting of criminals to whom if they did their duty a pension of 200 livres per annum had been promised) commenced

the attack. Elliott wished to assail the batteries with red-hot shot, but knew no means of preparing them in sufficient quantity. A German smith, however, constructed an oven for the purpose, and more than 4000 hot shot were now showered on the batteries. The same afternoon smoke was seen to rise from the principal battery and two others. The enemy in vain attempted to subdue the flames and close the holes; at one o'clock at night three of the batteries were completely in flames and some of the



others were beginning to burn. The crews in vain made signals to the Spanish fleet of their condition; they could do nothing for the batteries and only attempted to rescue the crews; but seven gun-boats, which left the fortress commanded by Captain Curtis, prevented the boats of the besiegers from approaching, and at the same time continued to fire on the floating fortresses. At break of day the crews were seen on the burning batteries crying for help. The besieged now hastened to assist them, dangerous as it was on account of the balls from the heated cannons and the pieces of wood from the bursting structures which flew against them. An attack by land was also frustrated by Elliott, and at the same time a tempest greatly injuring the Spanish fleet, the siege from the middle of November 1782 was changed into a close blockade, to which the peace concluded at Versailles on the 20th January, 1783, put an end.

His majesty George III. sent Elliott the order of the Bath, which was presented to him on the spot on which he had most exposed himself to the fire of the enemy. Elliott himself, with the consent of the king, ordered medals to be struck, one of which was presented to every soldier engaged in the defence. After the conclusion of peace he came home to England and was created Lord Heathfield. In 1790 he was obliged to visit the baths of Aix-la-Chapelle for his health, and in Kalkofen, a place near that city and his favourite residence, he died of apoplexy on the 6th of July in the same year. His corpse was brought home, and the king himself prepared the plan of a monument erected in honour of him at Gibraltar. General Elliott was one of the most abstemious men of his age. His diet consisted of vegetables and water, and he slept only four hours at a time, inuring himself to habits of order and watchfulness.

**ELIZABETH, ST.**, of Thuringia, a lady distin-

guished for her piety and virtue. She was the daughter of Andrew II., king of Hungary, and was born at Presburg in 1207. Early in life she was married to Louis, landgrave of Thuringia, and Elizabeth was educated at Wartburg in all the elegance of the court of Hermann, the abode of music and the arts. Louis began to govern in 1225, and while the husband devoted himself to knightly exploits, the wife was distinguished by the mild virtues of her sex; and when Germany, and especially Thuringia, was oppressed with famine and pestilence, she caused many hospitals to be erected, fed a multitude of the poor from her own table, and supplied their wants with money and clothing. Louis died on a crusade, and her own life terminated in 1231 in an hospital which she had herself established. She was regarded as a saint by her admiring contemporaries, and four years after her death this canonization was approved by Pope Gregory IX. A beautiful church and a costly monument were erected over her tomb, the latter of which is still one of the most splendid remains of Gothic architecture in Germany.

ELIZABETH, queen of England, and one of its most celebrated sovereigns, was the daughter of Henry VIII., by his queen Anne Boleyn. She was born in 1533, and educated in the principles of the Reformation, and also in those classical studies into which it had then become customary to initiate females of distinction in this country. In her father's testament she was placed the third in the order of succession; but the duke of Northumberland induced her brother, Edward VI., to set her aside, as well as her sister Mary, to make room for Lady Jane Grey. In the reign of Mary she was placed under circumstances of great difficulty from her known attachment to protestantism; and, notwithstanding her great prudence, but for the polite interference of her brother-in-law, Philip of Spain, she might have been in great personal danger. On the death of Mary in 1558, Elizabeth succeeded to the vacant throne without the least difficulty or opposition; and yet the whole episcopal bench actually refused to perform the coronation service; which was at length celebrated, to the great displeasure of his brethren, by Oglethorp, bishop of Carlisle, who had been secretly gained over for this purpose. The nation however, with the exception of the Catholics, rejoiced at her accession.

The sex, the youth, the accomplishments, the graces, the past misfortunes of the princess, all served to heighten the interest with which she was beheld. The age of chivalry had not yet expired; and, in spite of the late unfortunate experience of a female reign, the romantic image of a maiden queen dazzled all eyes, subdued all hearts, inflamed the imagination of the brave and courtly youth with visions of love and glory; exalted into a passionate homage the principles of loyalty; and urged adulation to the very brink of idolatry. The fulsome compliments on her beauty which Elizabeth, almost to the latest period of her life, not only permitted but required and delighted in, have been adverted to by all the writers who have made her reign and character their theme; and those of the number whom admiration and pity of the fair queen of Scots have rendered hostile to her memory, have taken a malicious pleasure in exaggerating the extravagance of this weakness, by denying her, even in her freshest years, all pretensions to those personal charms by

which her rival was so eminently distinguished. Others however have been more favourable, and probably more just, to her on this point; and it would be an injury to her memory to withhold from the reader the following portraiture, which authorize us to form a pleasing as well as majestic image of her person at the period of her accession. "She was a lady of great beauty, of decent stature, and an excellent shape. In her youth she was adorned with more than usual maiden modesty, her skin was of pure white and her hair of a yellow colour. Her eyes were beautiful and lively. In short, her whole body was well made and her face was adorned with a wonderful and sweet beauty and majesty. This beauty lasted till her middle age, though it declined. She was of personage tall, of hair and complexion fair, and therewith well favoured, but high-nosed; of limbs and features neat; and, which added to the lustre of those exterior graces of stately and majestic comportment, participating in this more of her father than her mother, who was of an inferior alloy, plausible, or as the French have it, more debonnaire and affable, virtues which might suit well with majesty, and which, descending as hereditary to the daughter, did render her of a more sweet temper, and endeared her more to the love and liking of the people, who gave her the name and fame of a most gracious and popular princess."

Elizabeth consigned to oblivion all the offences she had received during the late reign, and prudently assumed the gracious demeanour of the common sovereign of all her subjects. Philip of Spain soon made her proposals of marriage, but she knew the aversion borne him by the nation too well to think of accepting them, and she immediately proceeded



with considerable prudence and moderation to the arduous task of settling religion, which was in a great degree affected by the first parliament she summoned.

It was not long before Elizabeth began that interference in the affairs of Scotland which produced some of the most singular events of her reign. Mary, the young queen of Scots, was not only the next



heir in blood to the English crown, but was regarded by the Catholics, who deemed Elizabeth illegitimate, as the true sovereign of England. By the marriage of that princess with the dauphin, and her relationship to the Guises, Scotland was also drawn into a closer union with France than ever. Thus great political causes of enmity abounded, in addition to the female rivalry which was the most conspicuous foible of Elizabeth's character. The first step she took in Scottish affairs was to send a fleet and an army to aid the party which supported the Reformation; and this interference, in 1560, effected a treaty by which the French were obliged to quit Scotland. On the return of Mary from France, after the death of her husband, attempts were made to procure Elizabeth's recognition of her title as presumptive successor to the crown of England; but, although unattended to and very disagreeable to the latter, the two queens lived for some time in apparent amity. In the mean time Elizabeth acquired great reputation by her vigorous conduct and political sagacity, and had many suitors among the princes of Europe, whom, consistent with her early resolution to live single, she constantly refused. Being regarded as the head of the Protestant party in Europe, she made a treaty of alliance with the French Huguenots in that capacity, and gave them aids in men and money. Her government at home also gradually grew more rigorous against the Catholics—one of the mischievous consequences of the incessant intrigues of that party, both at home and abroad, to overthrow her government. She did all in her power to thwart the attempts to unite Mary in a second marriage, and, besides a weak jealousy of the personal charms of the queen of Scotland, she discovered another weakness in the propensity to adopt court favourites with a view to exterior accomplishments rather than to merit, as in the well-known instance of Dudley, earl of Leicester.

The political dissensions in Scotland, which gave Mary so much disquiet, were fomented by Elizabeth and her ministers; and the manner in which Elizabeth detained the unhappy queen in captivity, the secret negotiations of the latter with the duke of Norfolk, the rebellions in the north, and the treasonable engagements made by the earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland with the duke of Orleans in the Low Countries, are affairs rather of history than biography. In the midst of these events the puritanical party gave much uneasiness to the queen, who was warmly attached to the ceremonials of religion, and to the hierarchy of which she had become the head. Inheriting too all the maxims of royal authority maintained by her father, the spirit of civil liberty, by which the Puritans became early distinguished, was very offensive to her. Elizabeth however understood the art of making practical concessions, while she maintained her dignity in language; and such was the general prudence and frugality of her administration, that she retained the affections even of those whom she governed with a rigorous hand.

Almost the only cause of complaint in regard to pecuniary matters in this reign arose from the injurious grant of monopolies, which formed a frequent subject of parliamentary complaint, and were often in consequence revoked. The assistance given by Elizabeth to the Protestants of the Low Countries induced Spain in 1572 to promote a conspiracy, which was chiefly conducted by a Florentine mer-

chant and the bishop of Ross, the Scottish resident in England. The duke of Norfolk, allowing himself to be drawn into a participation of this plot, on its discovery was tried and executed. The massacre of St. Bartholomew in the same year alarmed all Protestant rulers, and especially Elizabeth, who put herself and court into mourning on the occasion, and received in silence the French ambassador sent over to apologize for that execrable deed. She however maintained external amity with the French court, and even suffered negotiations to be commenced for her marriage with the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, which brought that prince to England, and an expectation that the union would take place became general. In 1575 she received the offer of the sovereignty of the revolted Dutch provinces, but from prudential reasons she declined to accept it, and it was not until 1578 that she signed with them a treaty of alliance.

In 1585 Elizabeth ventured openly to defy the hostility of Spain by entering into a treaty with the revolted provinces, by which she bound herself to assist them with a considerable force, the command of which she entrusted to Leicester, who did little honour to her choice. She also sent an armament under Drake against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies, and made a league of mutual defence with James king of Scotland, whose friendship she courted while she detained his mother a prisoner. In 1586 that conspiracy took place the object of which was her assassination by Anthony Babington, and Elizabeth and her principal counsellors were of opinion that the safety of the state demanded the life of Mary. Elizabeth, however, conscious of the invidious light in which the execution of a queen and relation would appear to Europe, practised all the arts of dissimulation to remove as much of the odium from herself as possible. She even wished Mary to be taken off privately, and it was only on the refusal of Sir Amias Paulet and Sir Drue Drury, her keepers, to be concerned in so odious an affair, that the curious transaction of furthering the warrant by Secretary Davison took place, the consequence of which was the execution of Mary in February 1587. The dissembled grief of Elizabeth when informed of this catastrophe deceived no one, although the imputed mistake of Davison, and the sacrifice of him to her assumed resentment, afforded the king of Scotland a pretext for resuming an amicable correspondence with the English court.

The year 1588 was rendered memorable by the defeat of the Spanish armada, on which meditated invasion Elizabeth displayed all the confidence and energy of her character. Soon after this event Elizabeth became the ally of Henry IV. of France in order to vindicate his title to that throne, and for some years English auxiliaries served in France, and naval expeditions were undertaken, in which none more distinguished themselves than the celebrated earl of Essex, who, on the death of Leicester, succeeded to his place in the queen's favour. In 1601 she held a conference with the marquis de Rosni (afterwards the celebrated Sully), who came over on the part of Henry IV. to concert, in concurrence with England, a new balance of European power to control the preponderance of the house of Austria. Elizabeth readily agreed to the project, and the minister quitted England in admiration of the solidity and enlargement of her political views. Having suppressed an

insurrection in Ireland, and obliged all the Spanish troops sent to aid in it to quit the island, she turned her thoughts towards relieving the burdens of her subjects, and gained much additional popularity by suppressing a great number of unpopular monopolies. The execution of the earl of Essex, however, gave a fatal blow to her happiness, and on learning from the dying countess of Nottingham that he had really transmitted the ring which implied his request of pardon, she became furious with rage, and when her anger subsided fell into an incurable melancholy. At length nature began to sink, and as her end manifestly approached, she was urged by her council to declare her successor. She answered, "Who but her kinsman, the king of Scots?" and soon after sinking into a lethargy, she expired without further struggle or convulsion on the 24th of March, 1602, in the seventieth year of her age.

Estimating the character and conduct of Elizabeth from the events of her reign, she will justly rank high among sovereigns. Under her auspices the Protestant religion was firmly established. Factions were restrained, government strengthened, the vast power of Spain opposed, a navy created, commerce rendered flourishing, and the national character aggrandized. She was frugal to the borders of avarice, but, being as economical of the people's money as of her own, her prudent attention to national expenditure contributed materially to the public good. The severity of Elizabeth to Catholic emissaries, Jesuits, and others, whether native or foreign, has latterly been deemed scarcely defensible, nor on a religious ground is it so; but it is never to be forgotten that most of those who suffered really sought the overthrow of the state, and, in addition, acted under the direction of a foreign influence of the most baleful description. The treatment of the queen of Scots can never be defended, but will always remain one of those cases which neither policy nor even personal danger can sufficiently justify. Her principal defects were violence and haughtiness of temper, impatience of contradiction, and insatiable fondness for admiration and flattery.

*Elizabeth*

ELIZABETH, CHARLOTTE, duchess of Orleans, only daughter of the elector Charles Louis of the Palatine, was born at Heidelberg in 1652. She was a princess of distinguished talents and character, and lived half a century in the court of Louis XIV. without changing her German habits for French manners. She was educated with the greatest care at the court of her aunt, afterwards the electress Sophia of Hanover, and at the age of nineteen she married Duke Philip of Orleans from reasons of state policy. She was without personal charms, but her understanding was strong, and her character unaffected, and she was characterized by liveliness and wit; and it is to be regretted that she exercised no more influence on the education of her children. Madame de Maintenon was her implacable enemy, but Louis XIV. was attracted by her integrity and frankness, her vivacity and wit. She preserved the

highest respect for the literary men of Germany, particularly for Leibnitz, whose correspondence with the French literati she promoted. She died at St. Cloud in 1722. She has described herself and her situation with a natural humour perfectly original in her German letters, which form an interesting addition to the accounts of the court of Louis XIV.

ELIZABETH, PETROWNA, empress of Russia, daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine I., was born in 1709, at the time of her father's greatest prosperity and glory. After her accession to the throne in 1741, it was asserted that Catharine I. had by her will appointed her eldest daughter, Anne wife of the duke of Holstein, successor of Peter II., and, after Anne, her younger sister, Elizabeth; but this is not proved, and it is not probable that Prince Menzikoff would have permitted such a will. The nobles and senate, after the death of Peter II., chose Anne, duchess dowager of Courland, daughter of Ivan, and niece of Peter I. She settled the succession to the throne in favour of the young prince Ivan, son of her niece, Anne, who was married to Antony Ulrich, duke of Brunswick, and who, after the death of the empress, caused herself to be proclaimed regent during the minority of her son. Elizabeth, naturally inactive, and more prone to pleasure than ambition, appeared alike indifferent to all political projects. She endeavoured, however, to conciliate the guards, and chose her favourites from among their officers. A party was therefore formed for Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, to whose name so many glorious recollections were attached. The princess did not oppose the attempt made to place her on the throne, and submitted to the advice of Lestocq, a surgeon, who was eager to distinguish himself. The marquis of Chétardie, the French ambassador, whose person and manners had prepossessed Elizabeth in his favour, saw in the proposed revolution only an opportunity of securing to France an ally. Sweden, dissatisfied with the cabinet of Petersburg, was persuaded to declare war against Russia. The conspiracy, however, might easily have been discovered. Lestocq was incautious. The regent was warned of the plot, but the natural goodness of her disposition gave admission to no suspicion. Elizabeth easily succeeded in quieting her with protestations and tears. The conspirators, however, were not without anxiety, and Lestocq urged the immediate execution of the project. Observing a card on Elizabeth's table, he drew upon it a wheel and a crown, saying to the princess, "This or that, madame; one for you, or the other for me!" This decided Elizabeth; the conspirators were immediately informed of it, and in a few hours the conspiracy was ready to break out. The husband of the regent being informed of the danger, urged her to take measures for their safety; but Anne would not credit the reports. They were both seized while asleep on the 6th of December, 1741, and, with their son, were carried to the palace of Elizabeth; at the same time Munich, father and son, Ostermann, Golofkin, and others, were thrown into prison. Anne and the prince Antony Ulrich were afterwards transferred to an island in the Dwina, near the White Sea, and Ivan to the castle of Schlussemburgh; and Elizabeth caused herself to be proclaimed empress. Munich, Ostermann, and others, were condemned to death; but Elizabeth made a display of her clemency by commuting their punishment for exile to Siberia.



Lestocq was made first physician of the court, and president of the medical college, with the title of privy counsellor; but he afterwards fell under her displeasure, while Bestuscheff, who had been minister under Anne, and whom Lestocq had caused to be appointed chancellor, enjoyed great influence.

In 1748 Elizabeth sent aid to Maria Theresa in Germany, by which she hastened the conclusion of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. In the mean time a conspiracy was formed against her, in which, among others, Lapoukin and his wife (distinguished for her wit and beauty) were engaged; but the plot was discovered, and the wife of Lapoukin, in whom the empress saw a dangerous rival, with her husband and son, and the wife of Bestuscheff, received the punishment of the knout; the ends of their tongues were cut off, and they themselves were exiled to Siberia. Elizabeth took part in the seven years' war on account of some railery of Frederic the Great respecting her person. The grand prince Peter, duke of Holstein-Gottorp, nephew of the empress, and her acknowledged successor, was, on the other hand, much attached to Frederic, and the war was not, therefore, prosecuted with much vigour by the Russian generals, who desired to secure the favour of the heir to the throne. But this was soon perceived; the general Apraxin was removed, and his place supplied by Fermor, and the chancellor Bestuscheff was exiled to Siberia. The Russians now advanced into Germany. Soltikoff afterwards succeeded Fermor, and defeated Frederic at Kunnersdorf. Berlin and Colburg were taken; but, notwithstanding this, no decisive result followed. After languishing for several years, Elizabeth died in December 1761, at the age of fifty-two, after a reign of twenty years. She founded the university at Moscow and the academy of fine arts at Petersburg, and she also paid much attention to the completion of a code of laws which was begun under Peter I. She had promised to abolish capital punishments under her reign; but punishments more cruel than death were, nevertheless, allowed to be inflicted. She shed tears at the miseries of war, yet during her reign the fields of battle were drenched with the blood of her subjects. She wished to be considered the greatest beauty in the empire, and this vanity, like that of Elizabeth of England, often produced terrible consequences. Her licentious indulgences were sometimes disturbed by superstitious fears, which she endeavoured to quiet by devotional practices.

**ELIZABETH, CHRISTINA**, wife of Frederic II. of Prussia, princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. She was born in 1715 at Brunswick, and was married in 1733. Being compelled to the marriage, Frederic lived separate from her till his father's death, which took place in 1740. After ascending the throne, however, he gave her proofs of his esteem, and, on his death, ordered her annual revenue of 40,000 crowns to be increased to 50,000; "for," said he, "during my whole reign she has never given me the slightest cause of dissatisfaction, and her inflexible virtue deserves respect and love." Half of her annual income she appropriated to benevolent purposes. She partook of Frederic's taste for literature, and was herself an author. She died in 1797.

**ELIZABETH PHILIPPINE MARIE HELENE, OF FRANCE, MADAME.**—This lady, who stands so high in the annals of virtue, was the sister of Louis XVI., and was born at Versailles in May 1764. Her

life is an image of the tenderest affection, the loveliest virtues, gentleness, and feminine dignity. She was the youngest child of the dauphin Louis and his second wife, Josephine of Saxony, who died while Elizabeth was but three years old. She received an excellent education from the countess of Mackau, under-governess of the children of France, and her acquirements were considerable, particularly in history and mathematics. When Louis XVI. caused himself to be inoculated for the small-pox, Elizabeth did the same; she also caused sixty poor girls to be inoculated at the same time, and to receive the same care as herself. When her private establishment was fixed 25,000 francs annually were assigned her for the purchase of diamonds, but she requested that this sum should be paid during six years to a young favourite, whose poverty prevented her marriage. On an estate which the king had purchased for her, Elizabeth spent the happiest hours of her life, engaged in rural occupations, in benevolent offices, and the enjoyment of the beauties of nature, but the Revolution destroyed her happiness. The assembly of the states-general filled her with terror; and from that moment she was devoted to her unhappy brother. When Louis fled from Paris she accompanied him, and she was brought back with him from Varennes. It was she who was taken from the queen on the 20th of June, 1792, and when the cry was raised, "The Austrian! down with her!" and an officer of the guard hastened to correct the mistake, she exclaimed, "Why undeceive them? You might have spared them a greater crime." On the 10th of August, nothing, not even the king's earnest request, could induce her to leave him, and she followed him into the assembly. There she heard her brother's abdication of the throne, and for two days listened to the debates relative to the safest place of confinement for the royal family, after which she was carried into the Temple. Here she totally forgot herself, and seemed to live only for others. All modesty and goodness at court, she was here all patience and submission. On the 9th of May, 1794, Elizabeth was led from the Temple to the Conciergerie, because it had been discovered that she had corresponded with the princes, her brothers. She was tried with closed doors, and the next morning she was carried before the revolutionary tribunal, and, when asked her name and rank, she replied with dignity, "I am Elizabeth of France and the aunt of your king." This bold answer filled the judges with astonishment and interrupted the trial. Twenty-four other victims were sentenced with her, but she was reduced to the horrible necessity of witnessing the execution of all her companions. She met death with calmness and submission, and not a complaint escaped her against her judges and executioners. Without being handsome, Elizabeth was pleasing and lively. Her hair was of a chestnut colour; her blue eye had a trace of melancholy in it; her mouth was delicate, her teeth beautiful, and her complexion of a dazzling whiteness; she was modest, and almost timid in the midst of splendour and greatness, courageous in adversity, pious and virtuous, and her character was spotless.

**ELLENBOROUGH, EDWARD, BARON.**—This eminent lawyer and political partisan was born in 1748. He was the son of Dr. Edmund Law, bishop of Carlisle, and received the rudiments of a good education at the Charter-house. He after-

wards removed to Cambridge University. After taking his first degree Mr. Law repaired to London, and having determined to adopt that profession which points towards the highest honours in the state, he entered his name as a student on the books of Lincoln's Inn. He practised for some time under the bar as a special pleader, and he was thus enabled to obtain an intimate and thorough knowledge of the technical parts of practice, which proved eminently serviceable both before and after he rose to the honours and dignities of his profession.

At length Mr. Law became ambitious of distinction, and accordingly, after obtaining a "call," he preferred the Northern Circuit, where both he and his family were of course known. Indeed his very name, dignified as it was by the many virtues and accomplishments of his father, afforded ready means for introduction and support.

This seemed however to be an unlucky period for advancement to a young man, even if possessed of the most shining talents. The leaders then were Messrs. Lee and Wallace, both of whom afterwards became attorney-generals; and such were their acknowledged talents that they divided between them the whole harvest. At length they retired in the course of time, and left Mr. Scott and Mr. Law to monopolize the practice of the circuit.

A distinguished bishop, Mr. Law's elder brother, having married a sister of Mr. Wallace, who had risen by his great merits from the humble station of an attorney's clerk, that connexion tended somewhat to the advancement and success of the young lawyer. Indeed he only wanted a fair opportunity for his exertions and a proper arena for the display of those strong natural powers with which he was gifted. The Court of King's Bench, over which the great earl of Mansfield still presided with an acknowledged air of dignity, joined to an unvarying suavity of manners that conciliated all beholders, afforded an appropriate theatre. Dunning yet lingered at the bar, and did not retire until he was ennobled; while Erskine now began to display those precocious talents that rendered him unrivalled as an advocate. As business during the circuit leads to business in term-time, a whole host of northern attorneys and their London agents now poured into his chambers, and his name and talents speedily became known. The first cause in which he distinguished himself is said to have sprung out of a question of insurance, and as this occurred at Guildhall much city business followed of course.

Mr. Law now began to be considered a "rising man," and that circumstance alone, as usual, increased the number of his clients. Just at this critical moment too, the friendship of one of the puisne judges of the King's Bench obtained for him a silk gown, and it was now to be decided whether his talents entitled him to future advancement. The attempt was indeed hazardous, but it proved successful; and from that moment it was readily foreseen that this aspiring young man was not only fully entitled to, but would at length attain all the honours of his profession.

An event now occurred of a great political nature that tended not a little to give new celebrity to the name and ample scope for the display of Mr. Law's talents. This was the prosecution of the late Right Honourable Warren Hastings, who, after occupying the high station of governor-general of Bengal for

many years, resolved in 1785 to return to Europe in order to encounter all the dangers and severities of a parliamentary impeachment. Able counsel now became necessary for his defence, and an attempt was made to retain Mr. Erskine, then in the height of his popularity and renown, but that gentleman declined the offer, and Mr. Law was immediately selected. Two powerful Indian connexions contributed perhaps to this event; for the late Sir Thomas Rumbold had married his own sister, while his brother, Mr. Thomas Law, was, we believe, either at this moment or soon after a member of the council of revenue of Bengal, and could not be unknown to the ex-governor.

It is here only necessary to state a few of the names of the managers in order to afford some idea of the immense difficulties attendant on a professional defence. Mr. Burke occupied even at that period a high and distinguished place in the public esteem; Mr. Fox was acknowledged to be one of the first orators and statesmen of the age; while Sheridan took advantage of this opportunity to develop talents and eloquence far above that rate at which he had hitherto been estimated even by his friends. With such men as these, Messrs. Law, Plomer, and Dallas, who were all, comparatively speaking, but *novi homines*, had to contend; and yet they stood their ground and ultimately succeeded. In commencing the legal proceedings Mr. Burke moved for a voluminous body of papers, and after a long and able speech presented eleven separate articles of accusation. All these were afterwards restricted to four points; viz., Mr. Hastings' misconduct at Benares; his cruelty and injustice to the Begums; reception of presents contrary to law; and the granting of improvident contracts for the sake of obtaining friends and impunity.

From the first contention, not unfrequently of the most acrimonious kind, took place between Mr. Law and the chief manager. To assertion he opposed assertion; accusation was repelled with a demand of proofs; he boldly protested against the rules of evidence laid down by the representatives of the Commons, and seemed to incline towards those modes and usages sanctioned by the courts below. So warm, and indeed so violent, did these arguments, or rather altercations, at length become, that the high court of parliament deemed it necessary for its own dignity to interpose, and the leading counsel for the prisoner at the bar was repeatedly called "to order."

It was not until the fifth year of Mr. Hastings' trial that Mr. Law was enabled to enter on his defence. He discussed all the charges brought against his client with infinite ability; dwelt with high encomiums on the administration of a man whom he somewhat presumptuously deemed the "saviour of India;" vindicated his conduct in respect to Cheyt Sing and the Begums; and boldly affirmed that the crimes of which he was accused existed only in the splendid oratory of the managers. He concluded with a fine peroration, in which he drew a dazzling picture of the ex-governor-general's virtues, and represented him "as an injured persecuted man,—pure, spotless, and unstained."

At length, after a trial that occupied 148 days, and consumed nearly eight years, judgment was finally pronounced. Out of twenty-nine lords then present, twenty-one declared Mr. Hastings "not



guilty," while eight only voted him "guilty," on one or more of the charges. As the law expenses amounted to the sum of 71,080*l.*, we doubt not that the three counsel were liberally rewarded; and indeed we find that they had been presented with the sum of 1500*l.* for drawing answers to the articles of impeachment alone. That a trial so long must have injured their ordinary practice is pretty evident; but it greatly enhanced their reputation, and seemed on the whole to have improved their fortunes.

The period for advancement now arrived, and it was equally rapid and distinguished. In 1801, during a vacancy of both the offices of attorney and solicitor-general, the subject of this memoir was advanced at one single bound to the former without passing as usual through the intermediate step of an honourable but inferior station. On this occasion he was of course knighted, and Sir Edward Law conducted himself with a dignity, a decorum, and a forbearance, that united all suffrages in his favour. This perhaps smoothed the way to a still higher employment, for on the death of Lord Kenyon he was nominated to succeed him, and took his seat accordingly in the King's Bench in 1802. In addition to this he was ennobled, and on that occasion very modestly assumed the title of Ellenborough from a little fishing village in the neighbourhood of which his ancestors had lived on their little freeholds for many generations.

On a change of ministry Lord Grenville came into power, and immediately testified his high respect for Lord Ellenborough, by assigning him a place at the Council-Board. "I thought I perceived bad times approaching," observed the minister, "and I selected him as a man of strong and resolute mind." As this appointment was unaccompanied by any amovable office, it was deemed unconstitutional by some; while others thought that the judicial and political character ought never to be united in the same person. But, notwithstanding these objections, no alteration whatsoever took place. As a lord of parliament, we find Lord Ellenborough frequently taking part in the debates. In 1805, when one of the ministers presented a petition from the Irish Catholics, he strenuously opposed the concession of any fresh privileges. "The question now before us," observed his lordship, "is not a question of toleration in the enjoyment and exercise of civil and religious rights, but of the grant of political power. All that toleration can require in respect to civil and religious immunities has been long ago satisfied in its most enlarged extent." The following was the concluding paragraph of a very long and very able speech: "I feel it my duty, my lords, now and for ever, as long as the Catholic religion shall maintain its ecclesiastical and spiritual union with the see of Rome, to resist to the utmost of my power this and every other proposition which is calculated to produce the undoing and overthrow of all that our fathers have regarded, and ourselves have felt and known to be most venerable and useful in our establishments, both in church and state."

When certain unfortunate disputes first took place in the royal family, Lord Ellenborough was nominated one of the commissioners to inquire into the conduct of the princess of Wales. A considerable time after the delivery of the report to his majesty in 1813, this nobleman rose in his place in the House of Lords, and complained of "slandrous

publications lately circulated against the conduct of individuals employed in situations of the highest trust." "Your lordships need scarcely be told," adds he, "that a few years since his majesty was pleased to issue a commission respecting a subject which it is unnecessary for me to name. Every thing was kept a profound secret to me until I was called upon to discharge the high and sacred duty that upon me was thus imposed. I felt that much was due to this command, and it was accompanied with some inward satisfaction, that the integrity and zeal with which I had endeavoured to discharge my public functions had made a favourable impression on the mind of my sovereign; notwithstanding which, the mode in which this command was obeyed has been made the subject of the most unprincipled and abandoned slanders. It has been said, that after the testimony had been taken in a case where the most important interests were involved, the persons entrusted had thought fit to fabricate an unauthorized document, purporting to relate what was not given, and to suppress what was given in evidence. My lords, I assert, that the accusation is false as hell in every part! What is there, let me ask, in the transactions of my past life,—what is there in the general complexion of my conduct since the commencement of my public career that should induce any man to venture on an assertion so audacious?" His lordship concluded a long and warm speech as follows: "I have spoken merely to vindicate myself and my noble colleagues, and that vindication I trust is complete. We only wish to stand well in the opinion of our country as honest men, who have faithfully discharged a great and painful public duty; and let it be recollected, that having no means of resorting to proof, we are compelled to rest our exculpation on a flat, positive, and complete denial."

On May 12th, 1817, when Earl Grey made a motion in the House of Lords relative to Viscount Sidmouth's circular letter, Lord Ellenborough took an active and prominent part in the debate. He contended, "that justices of the peace had a right to arrest and hold to bail in cases of libel," and he rested his opinion on an induction from the following quotation to be found in Lord Hale's "Pleas of the Crown," viz., "that justices of the peace may issue their warrants within the precincts of their commission for apprehending persons charged with crimes within the cognizance of the sessions of the peace, and bind them over to appear at the sessions."

Whoever is acquainted with the care, anxiety, and fatigues, incident to a chief justice of the King's Bench, cannot be at all surprised that fifteen years of constant and painful attention had made a deep impression on a constitution originally strong and vigorous. This was precisely the fit time for his lordship to have retired, and it is not a little unfortunate that his declining health did not suggest this idea to himself, his family, and friends.

It now becomes a painful duty to mention one of the last judicial proceedings which took place under his superintendence and authority. His lordship was particularly sore, as may have been already perceived, on the subject of libels, and his temper had been unfortunately soured and irritated by some recent attacks on his official character. Mr. William Hone, then an obscure bookseller, had been indicted on three *ex-officio* informations, and was

thrice tried, on December 18, 19, and 20, 1817, before two different judges and three special juries. The subject of accusation was the publication of three parodies, viz., "The late John Wilkes' Catechism," "The Political Litany," and the "Sinecurist's Creed."

At the first trial Mr. Justice Abbot presided, and a verdict of "not guilty" was pronounced and recorded amidst unusual peals of approbation. The next was before Lord Ellenborough, who instantly ordered the attendance of the sheriffs. On this occasion there were six special jurymen and six talesmen.

The reading of the "Political Litany" produced a burst of laughter on the part of the audience, and Mr. Hone very prudently joined the court in reprehending such an irregular interruption of the proceedings. On this Lord Ellenborough once more demanded the attendance of the sheriffs, who arrived soon after.

On the case for the crown being closed, after a very able, novel, and animated defence on the part of the prisoner, the noble judge, who had appeared oppressed with indisposition during the latter part of the trial, delivered his charge to the jury, but in so faint a tone that it was scarcely audible beyond the bench. "The information charged," observed his lordship, "that this was an impious and profane libel: it was a libel on one of the most beautiful compositions that ever came from the hands of men: it was a part of the ritual even before the Protestant form of worship was established; and to bring this into ridicule, to endeavour to write down the Litany, was impious and profane. It was said that there was no such intention; but the law considered that every man intends that which he has done. The smallness of the price for which these works were sold only accelerated the sale and increased the danger. One offence could not be justified by another: on the contrary, it was an aggravation to say that persons had done so before, and thence to add to the number of offenders. Amongst all the parodies that the defendant had read, he could not find any that bore any proportion to the enormity of the present. The Litany, and all the forms of prayer, were in our statute-books, as much as the law of inheritance, which gives to a son the estate of his father. Lord Hale, venerable as well for the sanctity of his character as for the profundity of his learning, had declared, as the attorney-general had told them, that Christianity was part of the common law of the land. If this publication were not to ridicule religion, let them take it with them and see what other purpose it could answer. To raise a laugh—a laugh at whom, if it were not at religion? The last passage in the work seemed to be the worst; for there, instead of the solemn and impressive words, 'May the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ, and the love of God, and the fellowship of the Holy Ghost, be with you all evermore,' it said, 'May the grace of our Lord George, and the love of Louis XVIII., and the fellowship of the pope, be with you all evermore.' The defendant had adverted to many grievances that did not exist. The right of filing informations *ex officio* was expressly saved to the attorney-general by the statute of William. And as to granting copies of the information, in what instance had such copies ever been granted to any subject of the realm? Did the defendant wish a

particular law for himself? He said he was ignorant of the charge to which he had to plead. What! did he not publish this work; and how could he not know what the charge contained? Then what other grievance had he to complain of? Was it that he was discharged upon his own recognizance? It was now for them to consider whether the defendant was guilty. Different persons, it was said, had published similar things. As to going up to the time of Martin Luther, Boys, and so on, the habits of those times were totally different; the first scenic performances were mysteries or representations of incidents in sacred writ. Luther himself was not very temperate when he was engaged in controversy. There were many things in the parodies which have been read that must be considered as profane and impious; but this of the defendant transcended them all in magnitude. He would deliver them his solemn opinion, as he was required by act of parliament to do; and under the authority of that act, and still more in obedience to his conscience and his God, he pronounced this to be a most impious and profane libel. Believing and hoping that they (the jury) were Christians, he had not any doubt but that they would be of the same opinion."

After retiring one hour and three quarters, the jury returned into court, when the foreman pronounced "not guilty!" As the audience became tumultuous in consequence of this decision, the presiding judge of course called on the sheriffs to preserve order, an injunction which they found it difficult, if not impossible, to comply with. Notwithstanding the alarming state of the lord chief justice's health was evident to every one, and he had suffered a severe shock from the long and painful attendance of the preceding day, yet such was the resolution and perseverance of the determined partisan that he actually repaired next morning to Guildhall, to try the same person for the publication of the "Sinecurist's Creed," an avowed parody on the "Athanasian." After an able speech on the part of Sir Samuel Shepherd, Mr. Hone, suddenly recovering from the fatigues of the two former trials, now entered with great spirit on his defence. He complained of his lordship's frequent interruptions, and even hinted at partiality. He then quoted the authority of Gibbon and Warburton to prove that St. Athanasius's Creed was not written by Athanasius; and he affirmed that Archbishop Tillotson once exclaimed, "I wish we were well rid of it!" In the course of a defence protracted for six hours, and in course of which the prisoner must be allowed to have exhibited great and original talents, he affirmed "that his lordship's father, the late worthy bishop of Carlisle, had taken a similar view of the same creed!" On this the noble judge, who was obviously affected, interrupted him, and exclaimed, "For common delicacy forbear!" which was instantly complied with.

His lordship in the charge to the jury observed, "He entertained no doubt that the parody before them was a profane and impious libel. I entreat the jury," continued the noble judge, "to consider the importance of the case on which they are called to decide; for if such publications as this are not prohibited and punished, the country is but too liable to be deluged by irreligion and impiety, which have so lately produced such melancholy results in another nation." After retiring twenty minutes, the



jury returned into court, and the foreman pronounced the verdict of "not guilty!" amidst a spontaneous burst of applause, which no legal authority could either interrupt or prevent.

The exertions incident to these two trials, on two following days, produced a visible effect on his lordship's constitution. He, indeed, appeared several times after in his own court, and occasionally displayed his wonted energy; but the fangs of disease now inflicted still deeper wounds than before, and it was not difficult to perceive that a "total break-up," as medical men term it, was about to take place. Accordingly, after an illness of pretty considerable duration, Lord Ellenborough resigned all his judicial employments, and died December 13, 1818.

Thus closed the earthly career of a man who possessed talents which might have ensured him the esteem of all his contemporaries, but who by his strongly marked political partisanship and frequent display of a violent and irritable temperament did much to bring the laws into contempt. Lord Ellenborough's advancement, as has been already stated, was unexampled on the score of rapidity, and in this particular he proved far more fortunate than a Mansfield, a Kenyon, an Eldon, and a Thurlow. The attorney-generalship, the chief justiceship, and patent of nobility, were all granted to him in the course of a single year. His original merits consisted in long and painful study, a vigorous and manly address, a strong discriminating judgment, an utter contempt of fear, and a bold and nervous eloquence, that scorned to stoop to embellishments. These qualities, in addition to powerful connexions, all formed by himself, and a nice and lucky combination of circumstances, enabled him in the race for fame, honours, and wealth, to outstrip all his competitors.

ELLIS, JOHN, a naturalist, who distinguished himself by his deep researches into the nature of zoophytes, and many valuable papers on this subject were published by Dr. Ellis in the "Transactions of the Royal Society," to which he belonged for many years. He was also the author of several valuable works on other branches of natural history. Dr. Ellis died in 1767.

ELLIS, GEORGE, an ingenious English writer, who received his education at Westminster school and Trinity College Cambridge. He obtained an office under government during the administration of Mr. Pitt, and was secretary to Lord Malmesbury in his embassy to Lisle in 1797. He was one of the junto of wits concerned in the well-known political satire "The Rolliad," and wrote a preface, notes, and appendix to Way's translation of "Le Grand's Fabliaux," besides which he published "Specimens of the Early English Poets, with an Historical Sketch of the Rise and Progress of English Poetry and Language," and "Specimens of Early English Metrical Romances." The two latter works have passed through several editions, and they display much ingenuity, and a general though not a profound acquaintance with English literature. Mr. Ellis, who was a fellow of the Royal Society and the Society of Antiquaries, died in 1815, in the seventieth year of his age.

ELLISTON, ROBERT WILLIAM, a clever dramatist, who was born in 1774. His father was a watchmaker, and he received his education at St. Paul's school. At about sixteen years of age he ab-

ruptly quitted his friends and wandered to Bath, where, to procure the temporary means of subsistence, he engaged himself as a clerk in a lottery office, and remained in that capacity for a few weeks, until he found an opportunity of making his first theatrical essay, which was in the humble part of Tressell in "Richard the Third," April 21, 1791. Although this performance was very successful, the manager was not able to offer him a permanent engagement; he obtained however from Mr. Wallis, the father of Mrs. Campbell, a letter of recommendation to Tate Wilkinson at York, who immediately engaged him. The principal characters in Wilkinson's company being entirely pre-occupied, the truant in a short time became weary of his situation, and wrote to his uncle a letter supplicating for forgiveness. He was allowed to return to his family, but could not be persuaded to relinquish his taste for the stage. In 1793 he appeared a second time at Bath in the character of Romeo, and during the season he continued to play a variety of characters in tragedy, comedy, opera, or pantomime.

As his occupation in life appeared now to be decisively adopted, his uncle the late Professor Martyn had the kindness to use his exertions to introduce him to the boards of Drury Lane, but the terms proposed not being sufficient to induce Elliston to leave Bath, he concluded an engagement there for four years. In 1796 he carried off from that city Miss Rundall, a teacher of dancing; and soon after their marriage in London made his first bow to a London audience at the Haymarket, in June 24 of that year, in the very opposite characters of Octavian in "The Mountaineers," and Vapour in "My Grandmother." Having performed a few nights, he returned to Bath until the latter end of the season, when he again appeared at the Haymarket, as Sir Edward Mortimer in "The Iron Chest," which only a short time before had been produced and condemned at Drury Lane, although Mr. Kemble had taken the character of Sir Edward Mortimer.

Mr. Elliston was afterwards engaged for a limited number of nights at Covent Garden, but owing to some disagreement with Mr. Harris he again joined the Haymarket corps, and on Mr. Colman's new arrangement in 1803 he became not only his principal performer, but also his acting manager. In the succeeding year, when John Kemble quitted Drury Lane, Mr. Elliston was engaged to supply his place: after the theatre was burnt, when the company performed at the Lyceum, he left it in consequence of some quarrel with Thomas Sheridan. He then took the Circus, and having given it the name of the Surrey Theatre, commenced performing some of the best plays of Shakspeare and some operas, having so far altered them as to bring them within the meaning of the license, a practice which he defended in a well-written pamphlet. He acted the principal parts, and was equally applauded in Macbeth and Macheath. In 1805 he published "The Venetian Outlaw, a Drama, in three acts," which he had himself adapted from the French—"Abellino, le grand Bandit."

On the re-opening of Drury Lane Theatre, Elliston again formed part of that company: on the first night he delivered Lord Byron's opening address, and personated the character of Hamlet. When the theatre was let out on a lease in 1819, he became the lessee at a yearly rent of 10,200*l.*, and so continued until declared a bankrupt in 1826. After some spe-

culations in the Olympic Theatre, he again undertook the superintendence of the Circus, and occasionally performed upon its boards in Cumberland's Jew, Dr. Pangloss, and some smaller parts. His death was occasioned by apoplexy on the 7th of July, 1831.

ELLSWORTH, OLIVER, an American judge and statesman, who was born at Windsor in Connecticut, April 29th, 1745. His father was a farmer, and his own youth was passed alternately in agricultural labours and liberal studies. At the age of seventeen he entered Yale College, which he subsequently left for the College of Nassau Hall at Princeton. After completing his academic course at Princeton in 1766, he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1771, in the county of Hartford, Connecticut, where he commenced the practice, and acquired in a few years a high professional reputation, that occasioned his appointment as state attorney. From the commencement of the revolutionary struggle Mr. Ellsworth took part with the colonies; he went into actual service against the British with the militia of Connecticut, and as a member of the General Assembly of that state took a large share in all the political discussions and measures. In 1777 he was chosen a delegate to the Congress of the United States, in which body he continued for three years. In 1780 he became a member of the Council of Connecticut, and in 1784 was appointed a judge of the superior court of the state, an office which he filled for several years with great reputation. In 1787 he was chosen by the legislature one of the delegates of Connecticut to the Convention for framing a federal constitution, to be held in Philadelphia. In this illustrious assembly he obtained much influence and distinction. It is believed that the present organization and mode of appointment of the senate were suggested by him. As he was called away by other duties, his name is not among those of the signers of the constitution which was adopted, but he approved the work, and warmly supported it in the state convention.

When the constitution was ratified Mr. Ellsworth was elected a senator in the first congress, which met at New York in 1789, and he retained his seat till 1796, during almost the whole of Washington's administration. The bill for organizing the judiciary department was drawn up by him, and the part which he took in most of the great questions of politics or public economy raised him to a lofty eminence in the eyes of the country. In 1796, when Mr. Jay resigned the office of chief justice of the supreme court of the United States, Washington appointed Mr. Ellsworth his successor. To this trust he proved fully equal, though he had been long estranged from the practice of his profession. At the close of the year 1799 he was selected to be one of the three envoys to France, Governor Davie of North Carolina and the honourable William Van Murray being his colleagues, in order to adjust those differences which had assumed the character of war. For this errand he was not so well qualified as for the career which he had previously run, but the convention which was concluded by the envoys with the French government obtained the assent of the president and the senate. His health was so much impaired by a long and tempestuous sea voyage, that he was obliged to come over to England from France in order to try the efficacy of our mineral waters. The same cause induced him to transmit from this country to Washington his resignation of the office

of chief justice. As soon as he acquired fresh strength he returned to his native country, and retired to his family residence at Windsor in Connecticut. In 1802 he entered again into the council of the state, and in 1807 was elected the chief justice of the state, but declined this station. The nephritic complaints to which he had been long subject attained a fatal violence this year, and caused his death in the sixty-third year of his age. Oliver Ellsworth was one of the most distinguished of the revolutionary patriots of America, of her statesmen and her lawyers.

ELLWOOD, THOMAS, a celebrated writer among the Friends, who was born in 1639 at Crowell, near Thame, in Oxfordshire, where he received as good an education as the humble circumstances of his parents would afford. In his twenty-first year he was induced to join the society of Friends, by the preaching of Edward Burroughs, and he soon after published his first work, entitled "An Alarm to the Priests, or a Message from Heaven to warn them." He subsequently became reader to Milton, with whom he improved himself in the learned languages, but was soon obliged to quit London on account of his health. In the year 1665 he procured a lodging for Milton at Chalfont, Bucks, and was the occasion of his writing "Paradise Regained," by the following observation made on the return of the "Paradise Lost," which the poet had lent him to read in manuscript: "Thou hast said much of Paradise Lost, but what hast thou to say of Paradise Found?" In 1705 he published the first part of "Sacred History, or the Historical Parts of the Old Testament," and in 1709 "Sacred History, &c., of the New Testament;" which production was well received and is still held in some estimation. His other works are numerous; among them, "Davideis, the Life of David, King of Israel, a poem," which is more distinguished for piety than poetry. He died in 1713. His life, written by himself, affords many interesting particulars of the history of his sect.

ELMSLEY, PETER, D. D., an eminent scholar and philologist, who was born in 1773 and educated at Oxford; and having inherited a fortune from his uncle, he devoted his life to literature. In 1802, being then resident in Edinburgh, he became one of the original contributors to the "Edinburgh Review," in which the articles on Heyne's "Homer," Schweighauser's "Athenæus," Bloomfield's "Prometheus," and Porson's "Hecuba," are from his pen. He also wrote occasionally, at a subsequent period, in the "Quarterly Review." In the pursuit of his philological studies, Mr. Elmsley afterwards visited most of the principal libraries on the continent, and spent the whole of the winter of 1818 in the Laurentian Library at Florence. The year following he accepted a commission from the government to superintend, in conjunction with Sir Humphrey Davy, the unrolling of the Herculean papyri; in which the selection of the manuscripts was left to his judgment. On his return to this country he settled at Oxford, and having taken the degree of doctor of divinity, obtained soon after the headship of Alban Hall, and the Camden professorship in 1823. He died in 1825. Though Dr. Elmsley is chiefly known to the public as a Greek critic, it was by no means in this department of learning that his abilities and acquirements were most extraordinary in the eyes of his friends; and some of them have frequently regretted that he should have confined himself in



what he meant for the world, to so narrow a walk as that of collating manuscripts and attempting to restore the text of a few tragedies. He certainly did not overvalue the importance of this very limited province of philology, which the conspicuous success of one great scholar has rendered perhaps too exclusively fashionable among those who aim at a reputation for classical learning; yet, from whatever cause, he was content to pass several years in a species of labour which, to say the least, did not call into action the full powers of his mind, or impart to others his immense stores of general knowledge. He was probably the best ecclesiastical scholar in England, more conversant than any one with the history of religious opinions, except perhaps for the present times, and with all the details, however trifling, connected with the several churches of Christendom. He was almost equally at home in the civil institutions and usages of different countries, and in every species of historical information, never pretending to knowledge that he did not possess, but rarely found deficient in the power of answering any question. This astonishing comprehensiveness and exactitude of learning was united to a sound and clear judgment, and an habitual impartiality. Averse to all that wore the appearance of passion, or even of as much zeal as men of less phlegmatic temperaments cannot but mingle with their opinions, he was generally inclined to a middle course in speculation as well as practice, and looked with philosophical tranquillity on the contending factions, religious or political, whom history displayed to him, or whom he witnessed in his own age. His life was uniformly regular, and his conversation, though entirely free from solemnity, strictly correct. In all the higher duties of morality no one could be more unblameable. His kindness towards his family and friends, his scrupulous integrity, his disdain of every thing base and servile, were conspicuous to all who had opportunities of observing his character, though never ostentatiously displayed. The last months of his life called forth other qualities which support and dignify the hours of sorrow and suffering—a steady fortitude that uttered no complaint and betrayed no infirmity, with a calm and pious resignation, in that spirit of Christian philosophy he had always cultivated, to the pleasure of his Creator.

ELPHINSTON, JAMES, a Scottish writer, who was born in 1721. He received a good education in the city of Edinburgh, and afterwards became tutor to Lord Blantyre. His first literary production appears to have been a translation of the mottoes prefixed to the papers of Dr. Johnson's "Rambler," for which he received the thanks of the essayist. In 1751 he came to London, and opened an academy in its immediate neighbourhood, and for many years devoted himself to the education of youth. He, however, formed a very absurd plan of reforming the orthography of the English language by spelling all words as they are pronounced, and he published several works on the subject, which however never met with any degree of success. Mr. Elphinston died in 1809.

ELPHINSTON, WILLIAM.—This distinguished Scottish prelate was born in 1431, and educated at Glasgow. He was employed by James III. on an embassy to France; and, on his return home in 1479, he was made bishop of Ross. The bishop employed himself actively in political affairs during that disturbed period; but, the distractions of the state being

appeased and tranquillity restored both at home and abroad, the bishop found leisure to attend to an object that he had long meditated, and which engrossed much of his thoughts. Religion and learning had been the chief pursuits of his life, and he wished to diffuse the happy influence of both over the north of Scotland. For this purpose he applied to the king to solicit the papal authority for the foundation of the university of Aberdeen, which was granted by a bull from Pope Alexander VI. dated Feb. 10, 1494. From this time the bishop bent all his attention to the completion of his design, and, having requested the king to permit the college to be founded in his royal name, letters patent under the great seal were passed accordingly, and the college called King's College, in Old Aberdeen, was erected in 1506 in a very magnificent manner. It was endowed with great privileges, similar to those granted to the universities of Paris and Bononia. A doctor in theology was constituted principal of the college. Doctors of the canon law, civil jurisprudence, and of medicine, were appointed for the cultivation of those sciences; a professor of humanity, or *literæ humaniores*, to instruct the students in grammar and languages, and a sub-principal to instruct them in philosophy. The plan of endowments made provision also for the maintenance of twenty-seven students, a chanter, organist, &c. Bishop Elphinston died in 1514.

ELPHINSTON, GEORGE KEITH, a distinguished naval officer, who was born in 1747 of a noble Scottish family. He served with great distinction in the American war, and was also of great service to Rear-Admiral Goodall in the reduction of Toulon, for which he was rewarded by the red ribbon of the Bath. In 1795 he commanded the fleet destined for the capture of the Cape of Good Hope, and not only succeeded in the object of the expedition, but compelled the Dutch, who advanced to the relief of the colony, to surrender at discretion. On this occasion he was rewarded with an Irish barony. After a variety of gallant and valuable services, his exertions procured his elevation to the House of Peers; and in 1814 he was created a viscount of the United Kingdom. Lord Keith died early in 1823.

ELSTOB, WILLIAM.—This eminent antiquary was born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne in 1673. He was educated at Oxford, and took the degree of master of arts. In 1701 he translated into Latin the Saxon homily of Lupus, with notes, for Dr. Hickeys. About the same time he translated into English Sir John Cheke's Latin version of Plutarch, "De Superstitione," which is printed at the end of Strype's "Life of Cheke." The copy made use of by Mr. Elstob was a manuscript in University College, out of which Obadiah Walker, when master of that college, had cut several leaves, containing Cheke's remarks against popery. In 1702 Mr. Elstob was appointed rector of the united parishes of St. Swithin and St. Mary Bothaw, London, where he continued to his death, and which appears to be the only ecclesiastical preferment he ever obtained. In 1703 he published, at Oxford, an edition of Ascham's "Latin Letters." He was the author likewise of an "Essay on the Great Affinity and Mutual Agreement between the Two Professions of Law and Divinity," printed at London, with a preface by Dr. Hickeys.

Besides the works already mentioned, Mr. Elstob, who was a great proficient in the Latin tongue, compiled an essay on its history and use, collected ma-

materials for an account of Newcastle, and also the various proper names formerly used in the north; but what is become of these manuscripts is not known. In 1709 he published, in the Saxon language, with a Latin translation, the homily on St. Gregory's day. Mr. Elstob had formed several literary designs, the execution of which was prevented by his death in 1714, when he was only forty-one years of age. The most considerable of his designs was an edition of the Saxon laws, with great additions, and a new Latin version by Somner, together with notes of various learned men, and a prefatory history of the origin and progress of the English laws, down to the conqueror, and to Magna Charta.

Mr. Elstob had a sister who was also celebrated for her literary attainments. She was born at Newcastle, Sept. 29, 1683. It is said that she owed the rudiments of her extraordinary education to her mother, of which advantage, however, she was soon deprived; for at the age of eight years she had the misfortune of losing this intelligent parent. Her guardians, who entertained different sentiments, discouraged as much as they were able her progress in literature, as improper for her sex; but she had contracted too great a fondness for literary studies to be diverted from the prosecution of them. Miss Elstob died in 1756.

**ELYOT, SIR THOMAS.**—This learned scholar was highly distinguished in the reign of Henry VIII., who employed him in several embassies. He was the author of several small treatises; but his most celebrated work is entitled "The Governor." Sir Thomas Elyot also translated several Greek works. Strype says that "The Governor" was designed to instruct men, especially great men, in good morals, and to reprove their vices. It consisted of several chapters treating concerning affability, benevolence, beneficence, the diversity of flatterers, and other similar subjects. In these chapters were some sharp and pungent sentences which offended many of the young men of fashion at that time. They complained of Sir Thomas's strange terms, as they called them, and said that it was no little presumption in him to meddle with persons of the higher and noble ranks. The complaints of these gentlemen, "who were always kicking at such examples as did bite them, our author compared to a galled horse, abiding no plasters." King Henry read and much liked Sir Thomas Elyot's treatise, and was particularly pleased with his endeavours to improve and enrich the English language. It was observed by his majesty that throughout the book there was no new term made by him of a Latin or French word, and that no sentence was hereby rendered dark or hard to be understood."

**ELZEVIR, or ELZVIER.**—This family of printers, residing at Amsterdam and Leyden, is celebrated for beautiful editions of various works, principally published from 1595 to 1680. The best known are Louis, who was associated with Buonaventura, John, and Daniel, at Amsterdam and Leyden. Although the Elzevirs were surpassed in learning, and in Greek and Hebrew editions, by the Stephenses, yet they were unequalled in their choice of works and in the elegance of their typography. Their editions of Virgil, Terence, the New Testament, the Psalter, &c., executed with red letters, are masterpieces of typography, both for correctness and beauty.

**EMANUEL THE GREAT,** a distinguished king

of Portugal, who ascended the throne in 1495. During his reign were performed the voyages of discovery of Vasco da Gama, of Cabral, of Americus Vesputius, and the heroic exploits of Albuquerque, by whose exertions a passage was found to the East Indies (for which the way was prepared by the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1486, by Bartholomew Diaz), the Portuguese dominion in Goa was established, the Brazils, the Moluccas, &c., were discovered. The commerce of Portugal under Emanuel was more prosperous than at any former period. The treasures of America flowed into Lisbon, and the reign of Emanuel was justly called "the golden age of Portugal." He died in December 1521, deeply lamented by his subjects, but hated by the Moors, whom he had expelled, and by the Jews, whom he had compelled to submit to baptism. As a monument of his discoveries, Emanuel built the monastery at Belem, where he was buried.

**EMERSON, WILLIAM,** an eminent English mathematician, who was born at Hurworth, near Darlington, in the year 1701. Having derived from his parents a moderate competence, he devoted himself to a life of studious retirement. From the strength of his mind and the closeness of his application, he acquired a deep knowledge of mathematics and physics, upon all parts of which he wrote sound treatises, although with few pretensions to originality of invention, and in a rough and unpolished style. He died in 1782, in his eighty-first year.

**EMERY, JOHN.**—This deservedly popular actor was born at Sunderland, in the county of Durham, on the 22d of December, 1777. He received the rudiments of his education at Ecclesfield, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, where he doubtless acquired that knowledge of the dialect for which he was afterwards so much celebrated. He may almost be said to have been born an actor, as both his parents were of that profession and had attained some degree of provincial celebrity. His father originally designed him for the orchestra, probably in consequence of his early aptitude in acquiring a knowledge of music, which was such that, when only twelve years of age, he was engaged by Mr. Bernard of the Brighton theatre as an instrumental performer. The stirrings of ambition, however, rendered him uneasy in a post so subordinate; and he determined to woo the comic muse and aspire to Thespian honours. The part which he either chose or accepted for his *début* was, perhaps, of all others the most oddly suited to his tender years: it was old Crazy, the bellman, in "Peeping Tom." He imitated with such exact fidelity the palsied gait, the tremulous accent, in short, "the second childishness," of fourscore, as to give the Brighton audience a high opinion of his dawning abilities, and hold forth a fair augury of his future eminence.

It was chiefly by his talent for delineating old age that Emery gained the notice of the London managers, who at first probably regarded his skill in the representation of rustics as a secondary accomplishment. In the twenty-first year of his age he was engaged by Mr. Harris, of Covent Garden theatre, for three years, at a rising salary; and in 1798 he made his first appearance before a London audience, on which occasion he selected the very opposite characters of Frank Outland in "A Cure for the Heart-Ache," and of Lovegold in "The Miser." The applause which he received was an earnest of



that constant favour with which the public ever afterwards regarded his exertions for their amusement.

It may seem a trivial compliment to an actor to say that he understands his author; but the compliment is by no means trivial when the author happens to be Shakspeare. Emery had no great range of characters in the plays of our national dramatist, but the little that he had to do in them he did well. As the elder grave-digger in "Hamlet," he vented his humorous equivocations very effectively, and with this special observance, that "the clown said no more than was set down for him." In his personation of Caliban, he delivered with wonderful propriety and intenseness of feeling the fine snatches of rich poetry which Shakspeare has assigned to that strange offspring of his fancy; while, by a manner of action suited to his brutified form, he heightened the effect of John Kemble's sublime acting in "Prospero."

Admired for his professional talents, he was no less respected and beloved by his particular friends for his excellent qualities as a son, a husband, and a father. Being still in the prime of life, it was expected that he would long continue to be an ornament of the stage; but these hopes suddenly vanished; for after an illness, apparently sudden, but in reality resulting from a gradual decay of nature, he expired on the 25th of July, 1822, in the forty-fifth year of his age. His remains were interred on the 1st of August, at St. Andrew's, Holborn, and the funeral was attended by the principal members of the theatrical profession then remaining in town, as well as by a numerous concourse of the actor's friends. The circumstances in which he died occasioned a strong expression of public sympathy. On Monday, the 29th of July, pursuant to public notice, a meeting of his professional and other friends took place at the Lyceum, when Mr. Robins, who had been called to the chair, stated, in a very feeling address, that Mr. Emery had left a widow and seven children, the youngest eighteen months old, with a father eighty years old and a mother seventy-five, whom for a series of years he had supported, in addition to his numerous family, and who by his death were left nearly destitute,—his constant attention to these sacred claims,—the assistance he had also frequently afforded to distant relatives and friends, as well as his kindness to others,—had contributed to the melancholy result, that, dying in the prime of life, he had not been able to leave any provision whatever for his parents, his wife, or his little ones. This appeal was answered on the instant by a subscription, amounting to above 100*l.*, and by an offer on the part of Mr. Arnold of his theatre for a free benefit, which was followed by another on the part of the proprietors of Covent Garden. The subscription, aided by handsome contributions from Mr. Elliston, Mr. Morris, Mr. Dibdin, and other managers, advanced rapidly; the benefits proved abundantly productive; and by these and other expedients, devised in the same spirit of beneficence, a fund was raised for securing a respectable competency for the actor's widow, and a provision for the education and future welfare of his children. It should be mentioned to the honour of Mrs. Coutts (now duchess of St. Alban's) that she concurred in the highly gratifying act of humanity, not only by contributing a handsome donation, but by settling an annuity on the aged parents of Mr. Emery.

EMLYN, THOMAS, an English dissenting divine, who was born at Stamford, in Lincolnshire, 1663;

and, after studying at the university of Cambridge, he finished his education at an academy in London. In 1682 he became chaplain to the countess of Donegal; but he left this situation in 1688, and went to London, and the following year became pastor of a congregation at Lowestoff in Suffolk. In 1691 he accepted an invitation to become assistant to the reverend Joseph Boyse at Dublin. Mr. Emlyn had adopted sentiments approaching to Arianism; and, the circumstance being suspected, an inquisitorial examination was set on foot by his brethren, the dissenting ministers of Dublin, who, as he would not disavow what he conceived to be the truth, restricted him from continuing his pastoral duties. Finding himself the object of public odium, he published his "Humble Enquiry into the Scripture Account of Jesus Christ, or a Short Argument concerning his Deity and Glory, according to the Gospel." Immediately after this work appeared he was arrested on the charge of blasphemy, tried before the chief justice of the Queen's Bench, and sentenced to a year's imprisonment, a fine of 1000*l.*, and detention in prison till it should be paid. The fine was reduced to 70*l.*, through the interposition of the duke of Ormond and other humane persons; and, after somewhat more than a year's confinement, Mr. Emlyn was set at liberty. He removed to London, where he preached for some time to a small congregation, and occupied himself in writing controversial tracts. He enjoyed the friendship of Doctor Samuel Clarke, William Whiston, and other individuals distinguished for their learning, and was generally respected for the excellence of his character and amiable disposition. He died July 30th, 1743.

EMMET, THOMAS ADDIS, an eminent Irish lawyer and patriot, was born in the city of Cork, in Ireland, in 1765. His parents were highly respectable inhabitants of that city, in easy circumstances. The son was placed, in his boyhood, at the university of Dublin, and designed by his father for the profession of medicine. He was educated accordingly, and pursued his medical studies at Edinburgh; but the death of his elder brother, a member of the Irish bar, occasioned him to pass from the practice of medicine to the study of the law, at the desire of his parents. He afterwards came to London, read two years in the Temple, and attended the courts at Westminster. On his return to Dublin he commenced practice, and soon obtained distinction and business. Being of an ardent character and enthusiastically Irish, he imbibed deeply the resentment and antipathy of the majority of his countrymen against the British rule and connexion; and, when the societies of united Irishmen were revived in the year 1795, Emmet joined the association, and soon became a leader. Their object was revolution and an independent government for Ireland. Emmet acted as one of the grand executive committee of the societies, who consisted of at least 500,000 men. On the 12th of March, 1798, he was arrested, and committed to prison at Dublin, as a conspirator, by the viceregal government, along with Oliver Bond, Doctor Macneven, and other chiefs of the disaffected party. In July, after a severe confinement, an interview took place between Emmet and Lord Castlereagh at Dublin Castle; and it was agreed that he and the other state prisoners should be permitted to go to the United States, as soon as they had made certain disclosures of their plans on

revolution, and the projected alliance between the united Irishmen and France. These disclosures were made in a memoir delivered on the 4th of August, 1798, but without the confession of any names, which were inflexibly refused by the writers. They were soon after examined in person before the secret committees of both houses of the Irish parliament. Instead, however, of being sent to the United States, Emmet and nineteen more were, early in 1799, landed in Scotland, and consigned to Fort George, a fortress in the county of Nairn. Here they were liberally treated, but their detention lasted three years. At the expiration of that period, the list of pardons arrived, including the name of every prisoner except Emmet. The governor of the fortress released him notwithstanding, taking all the responsibility. Emmet and his exemplary wife, who had shared unremittingly his imprisonment both in Ireland and Scotland, were landed at Cuxhaven from a British frigate, spent the winter of the year 1802 in Brussels, and that of 1803 in Paris. In October 1804 they sailed from Bourdeaux for the United States, and arrived in New York on the 11th of the next month.

Emmet, then about forty years of age, at first hesitated between the professions of the law and medicine; but his friends determined him to undertake the former. George Clinton, then governor of the state of New York, induced him to abandon his original plan of settling in Ohio, and to remain in the city of New York. He was admitted to the bar at once by special dispensation, and reached the first ranks of the profession in a short time by indefatigable industry and fervid eloquence; and in the course of a few years he rivalled in business and fame the most eminent of the American lawyers. Occasionally the ardour of his temperament and the vivacity of his recollections betrayed him into party politics; but his general career and character were those of a laborious, able, and most successful pleader, an energetic and florid orator, a sound republican citizen, and a courteous gentleman. In 1812 he was appointed to the office of attorney-general of the state of New York. His death took place in the sixty-third year of his age in a remarkable way. On the 14th of November, 1827, while attending the trial of an important cause at New York, in the circuit court of the United States, he was seized with an apoplectic fit, which put an end to his existence the following night. It was only on the 13th that he had delivered a most animated and powerful address to a jury in a cause of the greatest importance and difficulty. Mr. Emmet was a thorough classical scholar, and conversant with the physical sciences. During his detention at the fortress in Scotland he wrote part of an "Essay towards a History of Ireland," which was printed in New York in 1807.

**EMMET, ROBERT.**—This unfortunate Irish patriot was the brother of the preceding, and resided in Cork. He was educated for the legal profession, on the practice of which he was about to enter, with every prospect of success, when the rebellion of 1798 took place in Ireland, in which he took a prominent part and became deeply involved. He was secretary to the secret directory of the united Irish; and, being arrested in the city of Dublin, was executed for rebellion against the state.

**EMPEDOCLES,** a Greek philosopher, whose

doctrines, in many respects, resembled those of Pythagoras. He was born B.C. 460 at Agrigentum, in Sicily. His fellow-citizens esteemed him so highly that they wished to make him king; but, being an enemy to all oppression and the elevation of a few above the rest, he refused the offer, and prevailed on them to abolish aristocracy and introduce a democratical form of government. The Agrigentines regarded him with the highest veneration, as the restorer and preserver of their liberty, the public benefactor, the great poet, orator, and physician, the favourite of the gods, the predictor of future events, and the mighty magician who could stop the course of nature, and overrule the power of death itself. He is said to have thrown himself into the crater of Mount Etna, in order to make it believed, by his sudden disappearance, that he was of divine origin. According to others, he was a victim to his rash curiosity, when, in order to examine more accurately the nature of the mountain, and of its fiery eruptions, he went too near the edge of the chasm, and fell in. But it is probable that this is a fiction, as well as the story of Lucian about him, that his sandals were thrown out from the volcano, and thus the manner of his death ascertained, and the people undeceived as to his pretended divinity. Others assert that he was drowned in his old age. Empedocles presented his philosophy in a poetical dress, and his verses are marked by bold and glowing imagery, as well as by harmony and softness.

**ENFIELD, WILLIAM, LL.D.,** a dissenting divine of great learning and amiable character, who was born at Sudbury in 1741. He was educated for the dissenting ministry, at Daventry, and, in 1763, was chosen pastor to a congregation at Liverpool, where he published two volumes of sermons, and a "Collection of Hymns and Family Prayers," which were well received. In 1770 he became resident tutor and lecturer on belles lettres at the academy at Warrington, where he remained for several years, and published several works, including his well-known "Speaker." Here he also drew up "Institutes of Natural Philosophy, Theoretical and Experimental." After the dissolution of the academy, he accepted an invitation to preside over a congregation at Norwich. In 1791 he published his "Abridgment of Brucker's History of Philosophy," a clear and able performance, and subsequently joined with Doctor Aikin and others in the "General Biography." He died in 1797.

**ENGEL, JOHN JAMES,** one of the most eminent prose writers of Germany, whose works should be among those first read by every learner of the German language. He was born at Parchim in 1741, and received the rudiments of his education from his father, the clergyman of that place. After studying at several German universities, he accepted the office of professor in a gymnasium at Berlin, where he was soon made a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, and wrote the greatest part of his works. On the accession of the king of Prussia to the throne, whose tutor he had been, he was invited by his former pupil to Berlin, where he made himself exceedingly useful in the Academy of Sciences by his excellent and instructive writings, and enjoyed the esteem and the society of the most eminent men. His unremitting labours hastened his end, and he died at the place of his birth in 1802. Among his philosophical works may be mentioned his "Philosoph. für die Welt,"



distinguished for acute observations on men and manners, enlivened by elegant illustrations.

ENGHIEN, LOUIS ANTOINE HENRI DE BOURBON, DUKE OF.—This unfortunate nobleman was born at Chantilly, August 1772. He was the son of Louis Henry Joseph Condé, duke of Bourbon, and a descendant of the great Condé. In 1789 he emigrated, travelled through various parts of Europe, and went in 1792 to Flanders, to join the troops of his grandfather, the prince of Condé, in the campaign against France. From 1796 to 1799 he commanded, with distinguished merit, the vanguard of Condé's army, which was disbanded at the peace of Luneville. He was then, in 1804, led by his love of the Princess Charlotte de Rohan Rochefort to Ettenheim, in Baden, where he resided as a private citizen, and where he married this lady. At this period the newly established peace of France, and of all Europe, was threatened, in the person of Bonaparte, the first consul of France. Some of those enemies who had not been able to subdue him in the field of battle attempted his assassination. In the middle of January 1804 bets were made at London that the first consul would not live to see the next April, and a new edition of the old pamphlet of "Titus against Cromwell," entitled "Killing no Murder," was dedicated to Bonaparte. One of the principal commercial houses in Vienna wrote to a banker at Paris, "Here, as well as in Paris, the winter is mild; but the end of February is dreaded. Well-informed persons assert that you will have an earthquake. If you intend to make any speculations, regard this information as certain. I am not at liberty to say more." These indications were soon actually followed by a conspiracy in Paris against the life of the first consul. Many persons at Paris, some of distinction, were engaged in the conspiracy before it was discovered by the police. Among them were Armand and Julius Polignac (the late prime-minister of France), sons of the duke of Polignac, who had played so conspicuous a part at Louis XVIth's court. At the frontier on the Rhine corps of emigrants were again collected. Georges had been arrested some time previously; and those who had been employed by him stated that, at intervals of ten or twelve days, a person came to visit him, to whom he and Rivière and Polignac showed great respect. The police believed this person to be one of the Bourbon family, and after several conjectures the duke of Enghien, who for some time had been lost sight of at Ettenheim, was fixed upon as the probable person. The distance between Ettenheim and Paris was such that the duke might have reached that city in a few days. An officer of the *gendarmérie*, being sent to observe him, was informed at Strasburg that the prince sometimes visited the theatre of that city, which was not true, but it was commonly believed that the prince was often absent from Ettenheim, hunting for some days, and that Dumouriez lived with him. In short, the French government became impressed with the idea that the duke was at the head of the conspirators, considering it, probably, unlikely that the prince would reside so near the frontier if he had no political designs, and, probably, no one at present doubts that the duke would have acted the part of a Bourbon prince if any revolution had taken place in the heart of France.

The first consul, according to the account given by Las Cases, was taken by surprise in this affair. One

day after dinner the discovery of some new plots was announced to him, and such urgent representations were made to him that a special council of state was convened for investigating this subject, where the chief justice, Regnier, acting minister of police, read a report on the state of things within the country, and Talleyrand, minister of foreign affairs, another report, on the state of things without the country, connected with the conspiracy. Fouché attended by particular invitation, not being a member, but having displayed superior talent as well as zeal in tracing the conspiracy. Talleyrand's report closed with a proposition to seize the duke of Enghien at Ettenheim, and bring him by force into France, for examination. The object was to confront him with the two followers of Georges and ascertain whether he was the mysterious personage in the habit of calling on him, as before mentioned. At this time, Pichegru's presence in France was unknown; he was supposed to be in London, where he had been. The proposition to violate the neutral territory of Baden, and forcibly carry off the object of suspicion, was warmly contested by Cambacères, then second consul, but, being put to the vote, was adopted by the council of state.

The first consul, who did not know the duke of Enghien either by name or character, and was far from being inclined to groundless suspicions, left the whole management of this affair to those to whose department it belonged. Such was his practice on all occasions. For instance, Bourienne says he would declare in council, where the discussions were perfectly free, "Gentlemen, I am here under your tuition: take care to set me right, as I shall act on your information and impulse. Woe be to him that misleads me." The order for the arrest of the prince was issued to General Ordener; he was also ordered to arrest Dumouriez, who was supposed to be with the prince, a mistake arising from the German pronunciation of the name of Thumery, a companion of the prince. General Ordener, who was sent to Strasburg, transferred the duty of seizing the duke and all his suite to a major of the *gendarmérie*. This officer having, by means of his soldiers, ascertained the situation of the house which the prince inhabited, surrounded it on the night of the 17th of March, 1804, with 400 soldiers and *gendarmes*. The duke at first wished to defend himself; but the force was too great to be opposed, and thus the duke and Thumery, who had been taken for Dumouriez, a Colonel Grundstein, Lieutenant Schmidt, an abbé named Weinbrunn, and five domestics, were seized and carried prisoners to Strasburg. This was done with such celerity that the prisoners were not even allowed time to dress themselves. Early upon the 18th the escort set off with the duke for Paris; and as they arrived, towards evening, upon the 20th, at the gates of the capital, they received an order to conduct their prisoner to Vincennes, where he arrived exhausted by hunger and fatigue; and, just as he had dropped asleep, he was awaked, at 11 o'clock at night, to undergo his trial. The troops which were marched to Vincennes on this occasion were commanded by Savary. He found a court-martial, consisting of General Hullin, the president, together with five colonels, and a captain, who was secretary. He was accused of having borne arms against France,—of having offered his services to England, received agents from this country, and supplied them with means

of maintaining connexions in the interior of France,—of having put himself at the head of a band of insurgents and other persons, collected from Baden and Freiburg, and paid by England,—of having had communications with the fortress of Strasburg, to excite insurrection in the neighbouring departments,—and of having aided England against the life of the first consul. To these charges the duke answered that he had always commanded the vanguard of his grandfather, the prince of Condé,—that he had a pension of 125 guineas a month from England, his only means of living,—that he never knew Pichegru, and was glad that he did not, if what was said of him was true. The charge of having had any part in the conspiracies against the life of the first consul he repelled with indignation. At the end of the minutes of his answer, he placed a note in his own handwriting, at the suggestion of the captain-reporter (the official accuser), requesting an interview with the first consul. “My name,” he wrote, “my rank, my way of thinking, and the horrors of my situation, induce me to hope that he will not refuse my request.” Though nothing was proved against the prince, no witnesses being brought against him, he was executed the next morning at six o’clock, in the fossé of the castle.

The prince met death with the greatest composure. Several circumstances have been related respecting his execution, as that a lantern was tied to his breast to direct the aim of the soldiers,—that he gave a lock of his hair to one of the soldiers to carry to the Princess de Rohan,—and that an officer snatched it away with the words, “No one shall receive the commissions of a traitor,” and many other particulars, some of which have been proved false, and some are not authenticated. Very different accounts have been given of the conduct of the first consul in this affair. Thus it has been said that Josephine and Hortense entreated him to spare the life of the prince,—that Cambacères and Berthier represented to him, in the most pressing manner, the uselessness of this bloody measure,—and that he seemed disposed to yield to them when the news of the prince’s death arrived. According to others, he would not listen to the entreaties and representations of his wife and his friends. On the other hand, it is known to every impartial investigator, that Napoleon was far from being of a cruel disposition, that he was never deaf to prayers for mercy, if the great interests of France allowed him to listen to them. He pardoned most of the persons implicated in the conspiracy of Georges; he pardoned the prince of Hatzfeld; he offered pardon even to Staps, the young assassin at Schönbrunn; in short, proofs enough exist to show that his disposition was the opposite of cruel. The narratives of several persons concerned in the duke’s death tend also to exculpate the chief consul. Savary, duke of Rovigo, informs us, in his “Memoires,” that the consul heard through him of the execution of the prince with amazement, and greatly regretted it. The count Réal, counsellor of state, then prefect of Paris, and therefore charged with the police of that city, declared the same, that Napoleon did not know of the execution of the duke until after it had taken place, and that he learned it with amazement from Savary’s mouth, and that the consul had intended to set the prince at liberty. This agrees with the following statement:—Joseph, the brother of the consul, found him after this catastrophe much affected, and highly

indignant at those persons whom he accused of having occasioned it. He regretted much that he had lost so fine an opportunity of doing an act of mercy. Even long after, in conversation with his brother, he frequently alluded to this sad event, and, with his usual vivacity, observed, “It would have been noble to pardon a prince who, in plotting against me, *avait fait son métier*.” “He was young,” continued Napoleon, “my favours would have attached him to me; he would have become better acquainted with the state of France, and would have ended by entering my service. It would have been gratifying to have had the descendant of the great Condé for my aid-de-camp.” This view is corroborated by Napoleon’s own assertions in Las Cases’ “Memorial.”

The declarations of Napoleon himself in his will, however, are at variance with this view of the subject. He there says, “I ordered the duke of Enghien to be arrested and executed, because it was necessary for the safety, the welfare, and the honour of the French nation. Under the same circumstances I should act in the same way; the death of the duke of Enghien is to be imputed to those who plotted in London against the life of the first consul, and who intended to bring the duke of Berri by Beville, and the duke of Enghien by Strasburg, into France.” Savary, who was himself a witness of the regrets of the consul on account of the death of the duke, gives the following explanation of this inconsistency:—that Napoleon, even on his deathbed, preferred to take the charge of the duke’s death upon himself, rather than to allow his power to be doubted,—and that he acted thus from regard to the dignity of a sovereign, who, if he enjoys the credit of the good which is done in his name, would act unworthily in throwing the blame of the evil done in his name upon others. He says, when the emperor uses the words *Le duc d’Enghien est mort parceque je l’ai voulu*, his meaning amounts only to this: “When I reigned, no one dared conceive the thought of disposing of the life or liberty of any one. It might have been possible to impose upon me, but never for a moment to encroach upon my power.” Las Cases gives a long passage, as containing the words of Napoleon himself on this subject. In this he says that France was infested with conspirators sent from London, that his life was in constant danger, and that he acted as in war, to put a stop to these outrages. He there goes only on the ground of justice, thinking it due to his honour to defend himself personally. It is certain that in the critical situation in which he found himself, walking upon volcanoes, still active and ever ready for eruption, he could not have suffered it to be believed that such an act could be committed without his consent. A belief in his power was of the utmost importance to the peace and order of France. The welfare of France required that he should take upon himself the responsibility of every act done in his name.

Another account of this catastrophe is given in Bignon’s “Histoire de France.” He says, among other things, such was the character of the first consul that none of his acts can be taken from him—*Le mal, comme le bien qu’il a fait, lui appartient et n’appartient qu’à lui*—an assertion much too general, because the greatest man can build only with the materials which the time affords him. Napoleon himself often repeated, “I am no God; I do not do



what I wish, but what I can." Bignon says that, in a note written by Napoleon himself, but not published, there is the following passage respecting the duke d'Enghien:—"If guilty, the commission was right to sentence him to death; if innocent, they ought to have acquitted him, because no order whatever can justify a judge in violating his conscience." He says also that, at this time (before the execution), people who were near the first consul saw him internally struggling between what he thought a fatal necessity and what his own disposition dictated, but that no friend advised mercy. He then continues, "None of the statements given of the arrest and sentence of the duke of Enghien explain why there was no communication between the court-martial and the superior authority, between Vincennes and Malmaison." And the question forces itself on our minds, Was every thing so preconcerted, was the sentence of death so certain, that it was not even sent to the first consul for consideration? Here we may add, at the same time, Why was the duke's request for an interview with the chief consul not reported to the latter, neither the petition which he presented to the court-martial, nor the letter which he wrote, some say from Strasburg, others from Vincennes? The answer is this: Count Réal declared that, on the fatal night, a *gendarme* delivered a letter, not knowing the import of it. Réal was asleep, and the letter was put on his mantel-piece. In the morning, when he opened the letter, he hastened to the first consul, but it was too late. The fatal sentence had been executed. But who sends despatches of such a nature without orders to deliver them immediately and personally? In the whole of the process there was an odious haste. Napoleon says that, when he was first spoken to of Enghien, all the orders for his arrest, &c., were already drawn up; and here is an unpardonable delay. Who is guilty of both? To whom are to be ascribed the irregularities in the whole process, which M. Dupin, in his publication on this catastrophe, proves to have existed, and which the duke of Rovigo acknowledges, and even imputes to certain individuals? We are far from pretending to be able to clear up this mystery. Individuals have accused each other; but Count Hulin accuses Savary of the haste, and himself of the irregularity of the process, pleading ignorance respecting the forms of courts-martial. Savary accuses Talleyrand most positively of the whole crime, and, it cannot be denied, makes it plausible. His motive is said to have been to precipitate the first consul into an act which should stain him with Bourbon blood (with which Talleyrand and many others were themselves stained), so as to prevent him from becoming a second Monk, and restoring the Bourbons, which, of course, would have ruined Talleyrand. Talleyrand, on the other hand, defended himself in a letter to Louis XVIII., on this subject, with which the king was fully satisfied. History, we trust, will eventually fix the guilt on the name to which it belongs. With regard to Napoleon, we cannot but believe that he actually considered the duke of Enghien guilty of having plotted against France (he could not imagine him so insane as to live on the frontier of France without an object), probably, also, of having been concerned in, or at least acquainted with, the conspiracies of Georges, &c., at Paris,—that he therefore believed the duke might be sentenced to death by the court-martial,—

but, at all events, intended to pardon him (for such a pardon would not only have accorded with Napoleon's disposition, but have been serviceable to his politics: he wanted peace),—that however others, either from a criminal desire to please the first consul, and acting under the supposition that he wished the duke's death, or from some other motive, hastened the execution,—that Bonaparte, justly, was then unwilling to have it supposed that such an act could be committed against his will, as he was just forming a government and establishing order in its different departments, and the belief in his power was indispensable,—and that he finally thought it beneath his dignity to accuse his servants, on his deathbed, preferring to take the odium upon himself.

ENGLEFIELD, SIR HENRY CHARLES.—This learned classical scholar and antiquary was born in 1752, and in 1780 succeeded on the death of his father to the baronetage. In 1788 he was elected a member of the Royal Society, and in the following year he became a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, of which latter he was long a useful and valuable member, and once filled the president's chair. He was the author of many valuable papers in the "Archæologia," the "Transactions of the Royal Society," &c.; in addition to which he published "Tables of the Apparent Places of the Comet of 1661," "A Description of the Principal Picturesque Beauties and Geological Phenomena of the Isle of Wight," and several other works. He died in March 1821.

ENNIUS, QUINTUS, a celebrated Latin poet of the earlier times of the Roman republic, who was born at Rudia, in Calabria, B. C. 239. Cato the Censor became acquainted with him in Sardinia, was his pupil, and brought him to Rome, where he soon gained the friendship of the most distinguished men, and instructed the young men of rank in Greek. With an extensive knowledge of the Greek language and literature, he united a thorough acquaintance with the Tuscan and Latin tongues, and was thereby enabled to exert a great influence on the last. The rough and unpolished style which is to be attributed to the time in which he lived was more than compensated by the energy of his expression and the fire of his language. Quintilian extols him highly, and Virgil shows how much he esteemed him by introducing whole verses from his poems into his own works. He attempted every species of poetry, sometimes more, sometimes less, after the Greek manner. He wrote an epic, "Scipio," in hexameters, Roman annals, from the most ancient times to his own, tragedies and comedies, of which we have some fragments, satires, and epigrams, and translations. He was presented with the citizenship for his services to the Latin language and poetry, of which the Romans regarded him as the father. The fragments of his works have been collected by Hesselius.

ENTICK, JOHN, a miscellaneous writer, who was born in 1713. At the early age of eighteen he engaged in a controversy with Woolston, against whom he wrote a tract entitled "The Evidence of Christianity proved from Facts." He afterwards opened a school at Stepney, and was employed by the booksellers for many years, during which period he compiled much more than he wrote. He died in May 1773.

EPAMINONDAS, a Theban hero, who for a short time raised his country to the summit of

power and prosperity. He was descended from the ancient kings of Bœotia, but was without fortune, and lived in seclusion till his fortieth year. He was fortunate in enjoying the instructions of the Pythagorean philosopher Lysis, who inspired him with the high sentiments which ennobled his life. He made his first public appearance in Sparta, whither he had been sent, with others, at the invitation of the Lacedæmonians, in order to end the war between the two countries by negotiation. In this affair he displayed as much firmness and dignity as eloquence, and stedfastly opposed the surrender of the towns of Bœotia in the possession of Thebes. The war was continued, and Epaminondas was made general. With 6000 men he defeated the invading army, of double the number, at Leuctra. He led the attack in person on the enemy's phalanx, while his friend Pelopidas, at the head of the sacred band, fell upon their flank. The Spartans lost their king, Cleombrotus, and 4000 men. Two years after Epaminondas and Pelopidas were made Bœotarchs. They invaded Peloponnesus together, detached several nations from the alliance of Lacedæmon, and delivered the Messenians, whose capital they rebuilt. Epaminondas then marched with his army to Sparta; but this city was so bravely and skilfully defended by Agesilaus that the Theban hero, finding winter approaching and the Athenians now in declared hostility with Thebes, evacuated Laconia, after laying waste the low country.

An accusation was brought against him, on his arrival in Thebes, because he and Pelopidas had kept the Bœotarchate beyond the legal time. "Yes," he replied, "I have deserved death; yet I pray that you would write on my grave, 'The Thebans put Epaminondas to death because he compelled them, at Leuctra, to attack and overcome those whom they had never before dared to meet,—because his victory delivered his country and made Greece free,—because the Thebans were led by him to the siege of Lacedæmon, which thought itself fortunate in escaping total ruin,—because he rebuilt Messene and secured it with strong walls.'" These words produced a general excitement in his favour, and he was acquitted.

After procuring, by his influence, the freedom of Pelopidas, who was kept prisoner by the tyrant of Phære, a new war broke out between Sparta and Thebes. Both sides raised large armies. Epaminondas invaded Peloponnesus again, and advanced suddenly upon Lacedæmon, which he expected to find destitute of defenders. But Agesilaus, having been apprized of his march, had hastened back, and was prepared to meet him. The Thebans, however, attacked him and forced their way into the city; but despair stimulated the courage of the Lacedæmonians, and the Thebans were forced to retreat. To make amends for this failure, Epaminondas marched with 33,000 men into Arcadia, where the greatest force of the enemy was assembled. Here was fought the battle of Mantinea. Epaminondas led one of the wings against the Lacedæmonian phalanx, and routed it; but was surrounded by the enemy while he was pursuing them, and wounded in the breast by a javelin. After a hard conflict the Thebans rescued his body and shield. On the other wing the battle was indecisive, and both parties, on hearing of the death of Epaminondas, had retired, after erecting a trophy. The hero was still alive, but was informed by the phy-

sicians that he must die as soon as the weapon was extracted from the wound. When news of the victory was brought him, he exclaimed, "I have lived long enough," and drew out the weapon with his own hands. His friends regretting that he left no children, "I leave," said he, "two immortal daughters, the victories at Leuctra and Mantinea." He died B. C. 363.

EPEE, CHARLES MICHAEL, ABBE DE L'.—This benefactor of the deaf and dumb was born in 1712 at Versailles. He had chosen the clerical profession; but, being unwilling to subscribe to the formulæ of faith introduced on the occasion of the Jansenist controversy, he devoted himself to law for a while, but was afterwards preacher and canon at Troyes. His intimacy with the celebrated Bishop Soanen, and the accordance of their religious sentiments, drew upon him the displeasure of the archbishop of Paris, who forbade the abbé, for some time, to hear confessions, even those of his pupils. The idea of bestowing on the deaf and dumb the advantages of society, by means of a language of signs, was not first conceived by him, though, according to his own account, it arose in his mind without any foreign suggestion. As early as the end of the sixteenth century, a Spanish Benedictine monk, Pedro de Ponce, had educated two children of the constable of Castile, who were born deaf and dumb, so successfully that they were able not only to read and write, but also learned arithmetic, several languages, and the principles of religion, and even gained some knowledge of natural philosophy and astronomy.

In England, Switzerland, &c., successful experiments had also been made with the deaf and dumb; and in 1748 a Spaniard named Pereira came to Paris, and exhibited to the Academy of Sciences some deaf and dumb persons, educated by him, who excited general astonishment by their acquirements. None of these teachers, however, had published any thing on the method employed by them, and, excepting the works of Bonet and Ramirez, both Spaniards, only imperfect accounts of it had ever been given to the world. So that it is plain that De l'Épée was, in some measure, the inventor of this mode of instruction, which he first tried on two sisters, and found his efforts so successful that he resolved to devote his life to the business. This noble-spirited man was a true father to the unfortunate, for whom he established an institution at his own expense. He spent his whole income, besides what was contributed by benevolent patrons, such as the duke of Penthièvre, in the education and maintenance of his pupils, for whose wants he provided with such disinterested devotion that he often deprived himself of the necessaries of life. He once, when quite advanced in life, passed the winter without fuel, in order that his adopted children might suffer no want of any thing; and he was often miserably dressed, while they were constantly well clothed. This benevolent zeal he carried so far as to derange his pecuniary affairs, and to excite the displeasure of his relations; and yet he sent a request to Catherine II. of Russia, who was desirous to aid him, that she would send him a deaf and dumb boy from her dominions, instead of presents. His compassion for a deaf and dumb youth whom he found in rags in the streets of Pronne involved him in much difficulty. He was convinced that this forlorn youth was the injured



hair of the rich family of the count of Solar: he took him under his protection, and demanded the restoration of his rights. A lawsuit followed, which was at first decided in his favour; but, when he and the duke of Penthièvre (the only protectors of the poor Joseph Solar) were dead, the decision was revoked, and the youth, driven into poverty again, was compelled to enter the army as a common cuirassier, and died soon after in a hospital. The abbé de l'Épée died in 1789. Notwithstanding his efforts, he never could accomplish his favourite project, an institution for the deaf and dumb at the public expense, which was first obtained by his successor, the abbé Sicard, who has much improved the mode of instruction.

**EPICHARMUS OF COS**, a philosopher of the Pythagorean school, who lived in the latter part of the fifth century before Christ, at Syracuse, and there wrote his celebrated comedies, now lost. The tyrant Hiero banished him from Syracuse, on account of his philosophical principles and some allusions in his comedies, and he ended his days in his native place, at an advanced age. The Sicilian comedy of Epicharmus, prior to the Attic, grew out of the mimes, which were peculiar to that island, making a sort of popular poetry. He arranged the separate unconnected scenes, exhibited in the mimes, into continued plots, as in tragedy. His comedies were long regarded as models in this species of composition, and are as much distinguished by their knowledge of human nature as by their wit and lively dialogue.

**EPICETUS**.—This celebrated Stoic was born at Hieropolis, in Phrygia, A. D. 90, and lived at Rome, where he was the slave of Epaphroditus, a brutal freeman of Nero, whose abuse and mal-treatment he bore with the fortitude of a Stoic. It is related of him that, his master once striking a severe blow upon his leg, he calmly remonstrated, telling him that he would break the limb. The tyrant redoubled his blows, and broke the bone. "Did I not tell thee so?" was the only exclamation of the philosopher. He was afterwards set at liberty, but always lived in the greatest poverty. The foundation of his morality was patience and abstinence. Domitian banished him, with other philosophers, from Rome; for the tyrant could not but hate men whose principles breathed scorn of all injustice and wickedness. Epictetus settled in Epirus, but returned after the death of Domitian, and was in high esteem with Adrian and Marcus Aurelius, and, A. D. 134, was made governor of Cappadocia. Arrian collected the sayings of Epictetus, his teacher; we have them still, under the title of "Enchiridion." Besides this manual, we have four books more of philosophical maxims by him. As a proof of the high respect in which Epictetus was held, it is said that his study lamp was sold after his death for 3000 drachms.

**EPICURUS**.—This celebrated Greek philosopher was born at Gargettus, near Athens, B. C. 342, of poor parents, and was of so studious a disposition that in his twelfth year he went to Athens to attend the instructions of the grammarian Pamphilus. Once hearing him repeat a verse of Hesiod, in which Chaos is called the first of all created beings, he enquired who created Chaos, for he must be the first of existences. The grammarian referred him to the philosophers, whom Epicurus henceforth zealously attended. But he was not contented with seeing

Athens only, for in order to cultivate his mind, and to collect information, he travelled through various countries, and at last, in his thirty-sixth year, opened his school in a garden at Athens, and was soon surrounded by crowds of scholars. He taught that the greatest good consists in a happiness, springing not from sensual gratification or vicious pleasures, but from virtue, and consisting in the peace and harmony of the soul with itself. He accordingly renounced vice, and embraced virtue, not for their own sakes, but for their connexion with happiness, vice being as incompatible with it as virtue is essential to it. He recommended wisdom, moderation, temperance, seclusion from political affairs, gentleness, forbearance towards the self-love of men, firmness of soul, the enjoyment of decent pleasures (so far as it does not incapacitate us for new pleasures), and contempt of life. Freedom from pain he regarded as desirable; but, at the same time, he bore with fortitude the most excruciating pains of body.

Although he distinctly showed the meaning of his doctrines by his own exemplary life (which some, however, charged with pride and envy), yet they have been often misunderstood or misrepresented. His doctrine of the origin of the universe, borrowed from Democritus, is atomical and material. Proceeding upon the axiom that nothing can be produced from nothing, he assumed two necessary, eternal, and infinite first causes—space and atoms, or indivisible bodies, arranged in endless variety. These atoms, by virtue of their natural gravity, moved in space and mingled with one another. To make the union possible, he supposed them to move not in straight but in curved lines. By these motions they crossed and hit each other in all possible ways; and, from their numberless combinations and intervolutions, arose bodies and beings of all kinds. Although single atoms had no other qualities than figure and gravity, they produced, when combined in bodies, the various qualities that affect the senses, as colour, sound, smell, &c. He further taught that as all things arose from the union of atoms, so all things will be again destroyed by their dissolution,—that there are multitudes of worlds, formed by chance, which are continually rising and falling,—the world as it has had a beginning, must have an end, and out of its ruins a new one will be formed. He found no difference between men and brutes, and ascribed the origin of the soul to the same material process above described. The gods, he thought, lived in eternal tranquillity, unconcerned about the world. This doctrine, which was justly charged with atheism and materialism, drew upon him much opposition and hostility. His system, however, found many followers in Rome, among whom Celsus, Pliny the elder, and Lucretius, were the most eminent, although it never attained the reputation of the Peripatetic, Stoic, and Platonic schools. An Epicurean, according to the perverted meaning of the Epicurean doctrine, is one who is devoted to sensual enjoyments, particularly those of the table.

**EPIMENIDES**, a celebrated philosopher and poet of antiquity, born in Crete in the sixth century before Christ. By some he is reckoned among the seven wise men, instead of Periander. He is represented as favoured with divine communications and as an infallible prophet. When the Athenians were visited with war and pestilence, and the oracle declared that they had drawn on themselves the divine



anger by the profanation of the temple in which the followers of Cylon had been put to death, and must expiate their offence, they sent for Epimenides, who was renowned for his wisdom and piety, from Crete, to reconcile them to the gods. He gratified their wishes, and introduced various useful institutions. On his departure he refused to accept any presents, and asked no other reward than a branch from the olive consecrated to Minerva. There is a story of his having slept in a cavern, according to some, forty years, and, according to others, a still longer period. On awaking he found, to his astonishment, every thing changed in his native town. He died in his native country, at an advanced age.

EPINAY, LOUISE, MADAME D'.—This female, who was notorious for her connexion with Rousseau, was the daughter of M. Tardieu Desclavelles, who lost his life in Flanders in the service of Louis XV., and left his family in very moderate circumstances. This, and the favour which Desclavelles had enjoyed at court, excited an interest for the daughter, and she was married to M. Delaliv de Bellegarde, who received the office of farmer-general. But the extravagance of the young man soon disturbed the happiness which had been expected from this union. During the earlier part of her life, she formed an acquaintance with the philosopher of Geneva, who, quick and susceptible in all his feelings, devoted himself to Madame d'Epinaÿ. She was not insensible to the homage of her *beau*, as she used to call him, on account of his eccentricities, and did all that was in her power to place him in a situation corresponding to his wishes. She gave him a cottage (the hermitage, since so celebrated) in her park of Chevrette, in the vale of Montmorency. Here the author of the "Nouvelle Héloïse" passed many days, rendered happy by his romantic attachment to Madame d'Epinaÿ, until he became jealous of Baron Grimm, whom he had himself introduced to his mistress; and in consequence of this feeling, which he took no pains to conceal, a coolness, and finally an aversion, took place between him and the lady, which is but too plainly expressed in his "Confessions." A defence of the later conduct of Madame d'Epinaÿ towards Rousseau may be found in Grimm's "Correspondence," where an account is also given of some works written by her, of which the most celebrated is "Les Conversations d'Emilie." In this the authoress, in a rather cold but neat style, sets forth the principles of moral instruction for children, with equal elegance and depth of thought. It obtained, in 1783, the prize offered by Monthlon for useful works of this kind in preference to the "Adèle et Theodore" of Madame de Genlis. She also wrote "Lettres à Mon Fils," and "Mes Moments Heureux." An abridgment of her interesting memoirs, and her correspondence, showing her relations with Duclos, Rousseau, Grimm, Holbach, Lambert, &c., appeared in Paris in 1818. They give a true picture of the refined but corrupt manners which prevailed among the higher classes in France during the government of Louis XV. Madame d'Epinaÿ died in 1783.

ERASMUS, DESIDERIUS.—This learned Dutch writer was born at Rotterdam in 1467. He was a singing-boy in the cathedral of Utrecht till his ninth year, then entered the school at Deventer, where he displayed such brilliant powers that it was predicted that he would be the most learned man of his time.

After the death of his parents, whom he lost in his fourteenth year, his guardians compelled him to enter a monastery; and at the age of seventeen he assumed the monastic habit. The bishop of Cambray delivered him from this constraint. In 1492 he travelled to Paris, to perfect himself in theology and polite literature. He there became the instructor of several rich Englishmen, from one of whom he received a pension for life. He accompanied them to this country in 1497, where he was graciously received by the king. He returned soon after to Paris, and then travelled into Italy to increase his stock of knowledge. In Bologna, where he received the degree of doctor of theology, he was one day mistaken, on account of his white scapulary, for one of the physicians who attended those sick of the plague; and not keeping out of the way of the people, as such persons were required to do, he was stoned, and narrowly escaped with his life. This accident was the occasion of his asking a dispensation from the vows of his order, which the pope granted him.

He visited Venice, Padua, and Rome; but, brilliant as were the offers here made him, he preferred the invitation of his friends in England, where the favour in which he stood with Henry VIII. promised him still greater advantages. When he visited the lord chancellor, Sir Thomas Moore, without making himself known to him, the chancellor was so delighted with his conversation that he exclaimed, "You are either Erasmus or the devil." He was offered a benefice, but was unwilling to fetter himself by an office of this kind. He was for a short time professor of Greek at Oxford. He afterwards travelled through Germany and the Netherlands, and went to Basle, where he had his works printed by Froben. He died in 1536.

To profound and extensive learning Erasmus joined a refined taste and a delicate wit. Naturally fond of tranquillity and independence, he preferred the pleasures of literary ease and retirement to the pomp of high life. His caution and worldly prudence offended many of the best men of his times, but he did great and lasting service to the cause of reviving learning. Although he took no direct part in the reformation and was reproached by Luther for lukewarmness, he attacked the disorders of monkery and superstition, and every where promoted the cause of truth. He wished for a general ecclesiastical council, to be composed of the most learned and enlightened men, but did not live to see his wish accomplished. He therefore confined his efforts to serve the world by his writings, which will always be prized for their interesting matter and graceful style.

Erasmus was highly pleased with his reception in this country, as appears by a letter dated from London December 5th, 1497; and, as it is highly characteristic of his style, we prefix an extract. It is written to a nobleman at Bologna, and he says, "If, my friend, I have any credit at all with you, I beg you to believe me when I assure you that nothing ever yet pleased me so much. Here I have found a pleasant and salubrious air. I have met with humanity, politeness, learning, not trite and superficial, but deep, accurate, true old Greek and Latin learning, and withal so much of it that, but for mere curiosity, I have no occasion to visit Italy. When Colet discourses, I seem to hear Plato himself. In Groeyn I admire an universal compass of



learning. Linaker's acuteness, depth, and accuracy are not to be exceeded; nor did nature ever form any thing more elegant, exquisite, and better accomplished than Moore. It would be endless to enumerate all, but it is surprising to think how learning flourishes in this happy country."

**ERATOSTHENES.**—This learned individual, who lived in the times of the Ptolemies, was librarian at Alexandria, and improved the science of mathematical geography, which he corrected, enlarged, and reduced to system. He rendered much service to the science of astronomy, and first observed the obliquity of the ecliptics. Of his writings one only remains complete, "Catasterismi," which treats of the constellations. Of his geographical works, which were long in high repute, the scattered remains were collected and published in 1798.

**ERCILLA, Y ZUNIGA ALONZO**, a celebrated knight of St. James, and chamberlain to the emperor Rodolph. When he was born is uncertain, but it was before 1540; and his mother, from whom he inherited the name of Zuniga, carried him, after the early death of his father, to the court of the empress Isabella, consort of Charles V. The young Alonzo became page to the infant don Philip, and accompanied him on his travels through the Netherlands and a part of Germany, and through Italy, Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary, and in 1554 came with him to England, on his marriage with Queen Mary. Soon after this, an insurrection breaking out among the Araucanians, a tribe of Indians on the coast of Chili, Erquilla joined an expedition sent against them. The difficulties which the Spaniards had to encounter, the heroic resistance of the natives, and the multitude of gallant deeds by which the war was signalized, inspired the young and brave Erquilla with the idea of making it the subject of an epic poem, to which he gave the name of "La Araucana." He began the work on the spot, writing often during the night what had been achieved in the day, and was obliged sometimes for want of paper to use pieces of leather. Erquilla is said afterwards to have been near losing his life on account of a groundless charge of mutiny, and to have been actually on the scaffold before his innocence was made known. He returned to Spain very much out of health, and after having finished the first part of his epic. All this he performed before completing his twenty-ninth year.

In 1570 he married Maria Bazan at Madrid, whose charms and virtues are celebrated by him in various passages of his poem. In 1577 the first part of his poem, and shortly after the whole, was published. His merits were not rewarded, for he died at Madrid in great poverty and obscurity. The time and circumstances of his death are uncertain; he must have been alive, however, in 1596, as Mosquera, in his book on military discipline, speaks of him as his contemporary.

The "Araucana" is a historical epic in the octave measure, in which the author confines himself, with the exception of some episodes and a few fictions, to the exact historical course of events. Hence the poem often assumes almost the character of a chronicle. Cervantes, in the sixth book of "Don Quixote," ranks it by the side of the best Italian epics; but probably few persons uninfluenced by patriotic pride will agree with him.

**ERHARD, CHRISTIAN DANIEL**, a learned

professor of criminal law, who was born in 1759 at Dresden, and studied law at Leipsic, where he devoted himself to history, philosophy, and the arts. In 1801 the emperor Alexander I. appointed him correspondent of the legislative commission at Petersburg with a pension; several academies, likewise, appointed him an honorary member, and he also obtained important places as an instructor in his science, and as a practical jurist. His writings are on the important subjects of philosophical and positive law, and contain many original views. In his remarks on the works of Algernon Sidney, on forms of government, in several treatises published by him in his periodical work called the "Amalthea," in the preface to his translation of the commercial code, and the civil code of France, and in his essays "De Arbitrio Judicis," and "De Notione Furti," he has discussed some of the most important subjects of legislation; and his translation of the "Code Napoleon" is universally acknowledged to be the best. His last, and perhaps his greatest labour, was the sketch of a criminal code of Saxony. He died in 1813. He united variety of learning, acuteness, wit, and agreeable manners to the most excellent feelings.

**ERHARD, JOHN BENJAMIN**, was born in 1766, at Nuremberg, where his father was a poor wire-drawer, who had a good deal of musical and literary taste, and endeavoured to cultivate the same tastes in his only child. The boy left school at the age of eleven years, and was desirous of learning his father's trade, and becoming acquainted with engraving. Being destitute of books, he endeavoured to procure philosophical works from the dealers in old books; but he could obtain nothing but a few Latin manuals of the school of Wolf. A love for Latin and Greek was awakened in him; philosophy led him to mathematics, and here too the writings of Wolf were his guides. Thus Erhard was engaged till his thirteenth year, when an epileptic attack obliged him to renounce for a time all mental exertion. After his recovery he resumed his studies in philosophy and mathematics, and formed an acquaintance with a celebrated surgeon, Siebold, who was astonished at such proficiency in a young mechanic, and endeavoured to engage him in the study of medicine at Wurzburg. Erhard, however, in consequence of his republican principles, continued still to live as a mechanic. He had chosen his guides in morals when a boy of fourteen, and in the main was always faithful to them. He says in a manuscript essay, "One of these guides was a slave and the other an emperor—Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius; and by their advice I determined to desire nothing but what fate forced upon me; while they both taught me to seek for happiness, not in external circumstances, but in my own heart." After the death of his mother in 1787, Erhard resolved to go to Wurzburg to study medicine. He remained there two years, and in 1792 obtained a doctor's degree at Altorf. He had no inclination to the practice of physic, on account of the situation of affairs at that time, as the French revolution filled him with fears for the fate of Germany. He was in doubt what part to act, hating the aristocratic party for what they intended to do, and the democratic party for what they had actually done; he determined therefore to visit North America. But, having lost all his property in 1703 by the treachery of an agent, he



became much embarrassed, and in 1797 accepted a place in Anspach under the minister Von Hardenberg. Two years after he went to Berlin, where he received permission to practise physic, to which he afterwards entirely devoted himself. He died in 1827. Among his works are his "Treatise on the Medical Science," and his "Theory of Laws," which relate to the health of citizens, and the use of medical science in legislation, which was published at Tubingen in 1800.

**ERIC.**—Fourteen kings of this name have reigned in Sweden, the last of whom ascended the throne in 1560. He exhibited much energy of character, but drove his brothers to rebellion by his violence and severity. His tyranny, and a disgraceful marriage, alienated the minds of his subjects; and his brothers, John and Charles, formed a party against him, which deprived him of the crown in 1568, with the consent of the states. He died in 1577, in prison, by poison. He was, however, a patron of the arts, and esteemed and patronised artists and mechanics, received the Huguenots with open arms, abolished many superstitious usages in religion, and rendered commerce and navigation flourishing. His judicial institutions, too, are particularly worthy of praise.

**ERIGENA, JOHN SCOTUS.**—The birth-place of this eminent scholar and metaphysician has been disputed; but the weight of evidence seems to predominate in favour of Ayrshire in Scotland. At an early age he visited Greece, and especially Athens, where he devoted himself to the study of oriental as well as classical literature, and became no mean proficient in logic and philosophy. Charles the Bald, king of France, invited him to his court, and encouraged him in the production of some metaphysical disquisitions, which gave great offence to the church, by the boldness with which he impugned the doctrines of transubstantiation and predestination. But his grand offence was the translating into Latin a pretended work of Dionysius the Areopagite, the supposed first Christian preacher in France. Many passages in this treatise, although popular among the clergy of the east, were extremely obnoxious to the Romish hierarchy; and a peremptory order from Pope Nicholas to Charles, commanding the immediate transmission of the culprit to Rome, induced that monarch to connive at his escape to England, in preference to delivering him up to the vengeance of the papal see. Alfred the Great received Erigena gladly, and placed him at the head of the establishment founded by him in Oxford, then called the King's Hall, and now more generally known as Brazen-nose College. Here he continued to lecture on mathematics, logic, and astronomy, all the year 879; but, after a residence of little more than three years, disputes arising, traditionally said to have proceeded from the severity of his discipline, he gave up his professorship, and retired to the abbey of Malmesbury, where he again superintended a number of pupils whom the fame of his learning had drawn to him. The time of his decease or murder, for he is said to have been stabbed to death by his scholars with the iron styles or bodkins then in use for writing, is variously stated as having occurred in the years 884, and 886; it is, however, more credibly asserted that the jealousy of the monks, rather than the insubordination of his pupils, was the real cause of his death, inasmuch as his heterodoxy had given great offence to their frater-

nity. This statement of facts has, however, been with considerable probability disputed by other writers, who are of opinion that the English historians have confounded John Scotus Erigena with another, John Scot, abbot of Ethelingay, who taught at Oxford.

**ERNESTI, JOHN AUGUSTUS**, the founder of a new theological and philosophical school in Germany, who was born at Tennstädt in Thuringia in 1787. He studied theology at Pforta, Wittenberg, and Leipsic. Having been made associate instructor and rector of the Thomas School in Leipsic, he devoted himself principally to ancient literature and the studies connected with it. In 1742 he was appointed extraordinary professor of ancient literature in the university there, and in 1756 ordinary professor of eloquence, and two years later an ordinary professorship of theology was added to his other offices. He performed the duties of both professorships till 1770, when he resigned the former. He became in succession first professor of the theological faculty, canon at Misnia, assessor of the consistory at Leipsic, and president of the Jablonowski Academy of Sciences at Leipsic. He died in 1781. By a careful study of profane philology he had fitted himself for a thorough study of theology, and was thus led to a more judicious exegesis of the biblical writers, and, in general, to more liberal theological views. Theological criticism, so far as it is founded on philology and grammatical illustrations, was greatly promoted by him. Of his accuracy as a critic and grammarian his editions of Xenophon's "Memorabilia of Socrates," the "Clouds of Aristophanes," Homer's works, Callimachus, Polybius, Suetonius, Tacitus, and above all his admirable edition of Cicero's works, are sufficient proofs. For the elegance of his Latin style he well deserves to be called the Cicero of Germany.

**ERNESTI, AUGUSTUS WILLIAM**, nephew of the preceding, was born 1733, and died 1801. He was professor of philosophy and eloquence, and a distinguished philologist; and we are indebted to him, among other works, for a good edition of Livy and Ammianus Marcellinus.

**ERPENIUS, THOMAS**, a learned orientalist, who was born at Gorcum in Holland in 1584, and studied at Leyden, where he at first despaired of success. His confidence, however, was soon revived, and he returned to his studies with so much zeal that his progress justly astonished his instructors. His fame rests principally on his acquaintance with the oriental languages, which he began to learn under Joseph Scaliger. To extend his knowledge of them he visited England, France, Italy, and Germany, and became acquainted with the most eminent scholars, who gave him advice and instruction. He was received with particular marks of friendship by the great Casaubon. After a tour of four years he returned in 1612 to Holland, and was appointed professor of Arabic and other oriental languages, except the Hebrew, the Hebrew professorship being already filled. In 1619 a second Hebrew professorship was founded at Leyden, and committed to Erpenius. Soon after he received the office of oriental interpreter to the states-general. The most learned Arabs admired the elegance with which he expressed himself in their language, so rich in delicate peculiarities. His reputation as a perfect master of the Arabic became universal; and he was repeatedly invited by the



king of Spain to explain inscriptions on the Moorish buildings and monuments. The works of Erpenius (some of which were published after his death) are held in the highest estimation. It was his intention to publish an edition of the Koran, with a Latin translation and a commentary, a Thesaurus Grammaticus of the Arabic, and an Arabic dictionary; but he died suddenly of a contagious disease in 1624.

**ERPINGHAM, SIR THOMAS.**—This distinguished knight, who lived in the reign of Edward III., is principally known from having built the celebrated Erpingham gate, which forms the highly ornamental entrance to the church of Ethelbert in the city of Norwich. He is said to have done so as a penance for having, in early life, been an abettor of Lollardism.



This edifice, a view of which is given in the above engraving, furnishes a peculiarly elegant specimen of the architecture and sculpture of the period.

The time of Sir Thomas Erpingham's death is not known with any degree of accuracy, the English historians being silent on the subject; but the French chroniclers, Froissart and Monstrelet, have done ample justice to his memory, and they ascribe the brilliant success, and almost indeed the result, of the battle of Agincourt to the skill of Sir Thomas Erpingham, in the admirable mode which he adopted in the placing of the English archers and men at arms.

**ERSCH, JOHN SAMUEL,** was born at Grossglogau, in Lower Silesia, in June 1776, and while a mere child showed uncommon love for bibliography. Being encouraged in this pursuit by Tabri and other learned men, he published the "Repertory of the German Journals," and other periodical collections of information on the subjects of geography, history, and sciences connected with them. Becoming known to Schutz and Hufeland they engaged him in the editing of their "Universal Repertory of Literature," and this work was published in 1793, and was followed by the "Quinquennium," extending from 1791 to 1795, and in 1806 by another, extending from 1796 to 1800. These works contain notices of

all the separate publications which appeared during that period, and even all the essays printed in the journals and other periodicals. They are executed with accuracy, on a good plan, and with a general account of reviews, whose character for partiality or impartiality is illustrated by examples. At the same time Ersch began to prepare a universal dictionary of modern authors, which he afterwards limited to European writers. In the year 1803 he was made professor of geography and statistics in the university of Halle, where he published his "Manual of German Literature from the Middle of the Eighteenth Century till the Latest Times," and the "Universal Encyclopædia of Arts and Sciences." By the former work he first gave a systematic character to modern German bibliography, and its completeness, accuracy, and arrangement make it a model for such a work. He died in January 1828.

**ERSKINE, JOHN,** a learned clergyman of the Scottish church, who was born of a noble family in 1720. He was educated under a private tutor, after which young Erskine was admitted as a student in the university of Edinburgh. While there he appears to have been extremely industrious, and to have formed those literary habits which accompanied him through life. In one of his works he has given a eulogium on the merits of two professors of that day, Doctor Stevenson and Sir John Pringle, whose elegant prelections appear to have made a great impression on his youthful mind.

Mr. Erskine, about this time, became a member of a well-known political association, which existed for nearly half a century. To this institution Doctor Robertson, Doctor Carlyle, Mr. John Home, and other distinguished individuals, belonged. Among his immediate companions, who afterwards became the ornaments of the bar and of the bench, were the lord president Miller, and the lords Ellick, Alva, Kennet, Gardenston, and Braxfield; but he himself declined the profession of the law, and became a minister of the established church of Scotland, soon after which he commenced a correspondence with the celebrated Warburton.

About this period the English Methodists sent missionaries into Scotland, and Mr. Whitefield at first formed a connexion with the Seceders, or those who had left the kirk, but he refused to confine his ministration to their sect, on which they declared themselves hostile to him. Mr. Erskine, some time before he obtained the living of Kirkintilloch, appears to have been a great admirer, and to have strenuously defended the character of this celebrated preacher. He felt the force of his powerful and popular eloquence, and seems to have had a strong impression of the usefulness and efficacy of his evangelical doctrines. The following anecdote will serve to show with what a degree of zeal both the friends and enemies of Mr. Whitefield were actuated at this moment:—Dr. Robertson and Dr. Erskine had been associated in a literary society in the university, with a number of individuals who became afterwards considerable in different departments. Unfortunately the question relating to Mr. Whitefield's character and usefulness was introduced into their debates, and, creating very contrary opinions, was agitated with so much zeal and asperity that it occasioned the dissolution of their society, and is said to have for some time interrupted even their intercourse in private life.

Dr. Erskine commenced his literary career by the

publication of some sermons, and he was in 1758 preferred to the new church of the Grey Friars in Edinburgh, and in 1759 appointed, in conjunction with Dr. Robertson, to that of the Old Grey Friars in the same city. He assisted Bishop Horsley in his controversy with Dr. Priestley, and published in his life time an essay, written as a college exercise, "On the Legitimate Use of Reason and Liberty of Conscience," besides several other works. He died in 1803.

ERSKINE, HENRY, an eminent Scottish lawyer, who was born at Edinburgh in November 1746. He was educated, in conjunction with his brothers, first at the college of St. Andrew's, and then went to the universities of Glasgow and Edinburgh.† Having completed his studies he was admitted a member of the faculty of advocates, and then commenced practice at the bar.

Mr. Henry Erskine, like his brother, was a Whig, and that too at a period when it was scarcely possible to avow it with impunity "in the gude auld town of Edinburgh!" The members of this distinguished family, however, boldly asserted their right to a freedom of thought and of discussion, and openly stigmatized the American war as hostile, both in its origin and progress, to the constitution. At the conclusion of that contest, the merits of the subject of this memoir were not forgotten; indeed it would have been impossible to have overlooked them, for he was now, if not the very first, yet in the foremost rank, at the Scotch bar, and in short almost the only constitutional lawyer of any distinguished talents there. Accordingly, when Lord North (afterwards earl of Guilford), was reluctantly driven from power, and the Rockingham administration came into place, the office of lord advocate of Scotland, a post far more important than that of attorney-general in England, was conferred on Mr. Henry Erskine. This occurred in 1802, after which he was immediately nominated a member of parliament. But his opportunities to support the new administration were few, on account of its ephemeral existence. On its retreat he was immediately stripped of his official dignity, without any manner of ceremony whatsoever, and his place instantly supplied by a new candidate for office.

Mr. Erskine, however, became a dean of the faculty of advocates, to which all the members are entitled to elect, and which was now obtained in a manner honourable to both parties. In 1806, when Mr. Fox again returned to office, overwhelmed by disease rather than by years, Mr. Thomas Erskine was nominated lord chancellor, and his brother Henry once more became lord advocate. On this occasion he was returned member for a district of burghs, in the last session of the second imperial parliament, which met January 21, 1806, in the room of Major Dalrymple, who accepted of the Chiltern Hundreds to make way for him. On the dissolution, which soon after ensued, he was re-elected without opposition. This, however, like the former Whig administration, at the close of the American war, was not suffered to continue long in power; and on its dismissal Mr. H. Erskine found his seat in parliament supplied at the next dissolution by a new candidate.

At length Mr. Erskine's constitution began to give way to the pressure of disease, and his good sense wisely induced him, on this occasion, to withdraw from the bar. This occurred in 1812, and the five

remaining years of his life were chequered, or rather consumed, by maladies of various kinds; and he died at his country seat in West Lothian, on the 8th of October, 1817, when he had nearly completed the seventy-first year of his age.

In his person Mr. Henry Erskine was tall and genteel; in point of height he surpassed both his brothers; and in the first bloom of youth was considered handsome in no common degree. Although a man of great gaiety, his habits were, fortunately both for himself and family, of a domestic nature. Even in the early part of his life he was temperate, and in the latter part abstemious.

ERSKINE, THOMAS, LORD.—This eminent lawyer and politician was born in Scotland early in 1750. He completed his education at the university of St. Andrew's, and shortly afterwards entered into the naval service, which he exchanged for the army in 1768. Still, however, finding but little chance of promotion, in his twenty-sixth year he commenced the study of the law. In order to acquire a necessary insight into the technical parts of his future profession, he was persuaded, by the judicious counsels of his friends, to enter as a pupil into the office of Mr. Buller, then an eminent special pleader.



During this period of his life, Mr. Erskine experienced all the difficulties arising out of a very limited income. He had already been married about seven years, had a family, and was obliged to adhere to a most rigid frugality. The part sustained by Mrs. Erskine, before the cloud that overhung their first entrance into life was dissipated, was highly honourable to her feelings. She accompanied her husband to Minorca, followed his fortunes with cheerful constancy, and, while he was engaged in the pursuits of a most laborious profession, never suffered any pleasure or amusement to interrupt her in the assiduous discharge of her domestic duties.

Mr. Erskine, having completed the probationary period allotted to attendance in the inns of court, was called to the bar in Trinity Term, 1778. It has been remarked by a barrister of great eminence, and who has had abundant means of observation, that those who enter the bar rather late in life are much more likely to succeed than those who enter very early.



When a suitable occasion for distinguishing himself is presented to a very young man, his want of judgment and knowledge of the world frequently prevents him from availing himself of it as he ought; and the mortification caused by an unsuccessful attempt often throws a damp over the spirits, fatal to future effort. However that may be, it is certain Mr. Erskine was a singular exception to the tardy advance of professional merit at the English bar.

In 1779 the public attention was altogether occupied by the interesting trial of Admiral Keppel. Mr. Erskine was retained as counsel for the admiral, a circumstance occasioned by the ignorance which Mr. Dunning and Mr. Lee, who were originally engaged as his counsel, displayed relative to the sea phrases, without some knowledge of which the case was in a great measure unintelligible. The former (afterwards Lord Ashburton) recommended Mr. Erskine as completely qualified for the task, in consequence of the manner in which he had passed the early part of his life.

The duty of a counsel before a court-martial is limited by the rules and usages of the court. He is not permitted to put any question to the witnesses, though he may suggest to his client such as occur to him as necessary to be asked; nor is he suffered to address the court; and almost the only assistance he can render is in the arrangement of the defence, and the communication of such remarks on the evidence as are likely to present themselves only to the minds of those who are habituated to the rules of testimony in courts of justice. This service was most ably and effectually rendered to Admiral Keppel by Mr. Erskine. Having drawn up the gallant officer's defence, he personally examined all the admirals and captains of the fleet, and satisfied himself that he could substantiate the innocence of his client before the speech which he had written for him was read. For his exertions on this occasion Mr. Erskine received a thousand guineas.

In the month of May 1783, Mr. Erskine received a silk gown, his majesty's patent of precedence being conferred upon him, as has been said, on the suggestion of the venerable Lord Mansfield. He was a remarkable instance of a rapid advancement to that rank, not having been at the bar quite five years. In the same year he was elected member of parliament for Portsmouth, an honour which he derived from the reputation he had acquired at the court-martial which sat there on the trial of Admiral Keppel. He was unanimously rechosen for the same borough on every succeeding election, until he was raised to the dignity of the peerage.

No occurrence of his life shed greater and more permanent lustre on the name of Erskine than his struggles in defence of the trial by jury. A strange paradox had crept into judicial practice, which, restricting the power of juries in questions of libel, reduced their verdict to a shadow and a nullity. It was reserved for Mr. Erskine, in the year 1784, in his argument in support of a rule for a new trial in the dean of St. Asaph's case, to concentrate all the doctrines, and to combine all the reasonings on the subject, which lay scattered through many volumes of legal learning. In this elaborate argument he triumphantly established his position, that juries ought to be the judges of the libellous nature of a publication, as well as of the fact of its having been published; and, upon the principles laid down in

Mr. Erskine's speech, Mr. Fox soon after framed his bill, which terminated the controversy by the establishment of a criterion to which the powers and duties of juries in libel cases may at all times be referred.

Mr. Erskine's oratory, or rather his rhetoric (for it was quite under discipline), while it was melting the hearts and dazzling the understandings of his hearers, never made him swerve even by one hair-breadth from the minuter details most befitting his purpose and the alternate admissions and disavowals best suited to put his case in the safest position. This indeed was the grand secret of Mr. Erskine's triumphant career at the bar. Without it he might have filled Westminster Hall with his sentences and have obtained a reputation for eloquence, somewhat like the fame of a popular preacher or a distinguished actor; but his unparalleled success was built on the matchless skill with which he could subdue the genius of a first-rate orator to the uses of the most consummate advocate of the age. The independence manifested by Mr. Erskine on every occasion naturally threw upon him the defences of persons prosecuted for sedition or libel. No reasoning, however, can be more uncandid than the inference that he sympathized in opinion with all those who resorted to him for legal aid. As a servant of the public, a counsellor is bound by the obligations of professional honour to afford his assistance to the individuals who engage him in their behalf. It is the privilege of the inhabitant of a free country to be heard impartially and equitably, and to be tried by the fair interpretation of the laws to which he is amenable. Those who imagine that the advocate identifies with his own the sentiments and acts of the party he happens to represent are carried away by an erroneous notion, tending in its consequences to deprive the innocent of protection by denying a fair measure of justice to the guilty. No sound and well-constituted mind can hesitate to condemn the scurrility and indecency with which Paine, in his "Rights of Man," reviles and ridicules the principles which have so long supported and illustrated the British constitution. Yet Mr. Erskine, when applied to in 1792 to defend Paine against a prosecution for libel, felt that he had no right to withhold from that person his services. In the opening of his speech he, in a very pointed manner, described the duty he had undertaken as one which no personal advantage recommended, and from which a thousand difficulties repelled him. "But," added he, "I will for ever, at all hazards, assert the dignity, independence, and integrity of the English bar, without which, impartial justice, the most valuable part of the English constitution, can have no existence. From the moment that any advocate can be permitted to say that he will or will not stand between the crown and the subject arraigned in the court where he daily sits to practise, from that moment the liberties of England are at an end. If the advocate refuses to defend from what *he may think* of the charge or of the defence, he assumes the character of the judge, nay, he assumes it before the hour of judgment, and, in proportion to his rank and reputation, puts the heavy influence of perhaps a mistaken opinion into the scale against the accused; in whose favour the benevolent principle of English law makes all presumptions, and commands the very judge to be his counsel."



Immediately after this trial, Mr. Erskine was called upon to resign the office he held as attorney-general to the Prince of Wales. That the argument in his defence of Paine was, however, the argument of an advocate bound to give the best assistance in his power to a client, rather than the assertion of Mr. Erskine's own opinions and principles, may justly be inferred from a passage in his speech, delivered five years after in support of the prosecution of the printer and publisher of "The Age of Reason," in which eloquent, solemn, and impressive speech, he says, "Every man has a right to investigate, with decency, controversial points of the Christian religion; but no man, consistently with a law which only exists under its sanctions, has a right to deny its very existence, and to pour forth such shocking and insulting invectives as the lowest establishments in the gradations of civil authority ought not to be subjected to, and which soon would be borne down by insolence and disobedience if they were." If that be so, it seems to follow that Paine, though he might legally have impugned by argument the principles of the British constitution, yet could not, without being guilty of a libel, attack and defame the very foundations of it, in the gross and indecent terms which characterize the second part of the "Rights of Man," for which he was indicted.

The most arduous effort in Mr. Erskine's professional life arose out of the part cast upon him, in conjunction with Mr. Gibbs (afterwards Sir Vicary Gibbs), at the state trials in the year 1794. Never, perhaps, were any persons accused of high treason exposed to greater difficulties in making their defence. Almost the whole of the evidence produced by the crown against them had been collected by both houses of parliament just before the trial, and printed by their authority; and a statute had been passed declaring that the treacherous conspiracy with which the prisoners were charged did actually exist within the kingdom. Under these perilous circumstances they looked to Mr. Erskine's efforts as their only hope of safety; and he undertook their several cases with an enthusiasm which rendered him insensible to the fatigues of the most stupendous exertion. Nothing was omitted that could tend to elucidate their innocence, nothing overlooked that could tend to weaken the force of the powerful arguments urged against them by the attorney and solicitor-general. These trials lasted several weeks, and the public expectation hung upon them with inconceivable anxiety. Eventually, as is well known, the accused persons were acquitted. Amidst the variety of opinions which naturally existed in the country respecting the merits or demerits of the individuals in question, the splendid talents and indefatigable labour exhibited by Mr. Erskine on the occasion were acknowledged and admired by all parties.

Mr. Erskine, for a few years, travelled the home circuit; but his rapidly increasing eminence soon withdrew him from that sphere. This was owing to the numerous special retainers which poured in on him from all parts of the kingdom. Every one of these was accompanied by a fee of 300 guineas; and, during his professional career, Mr. Erskine had, on an average, not fewer than a dozen in a year. We believe that the practice of giving special retainers originated in the celebrity of this distinguished advocate; and it is certain that no gentleman at the bar, either during or since his time, ever received so

many. On these occasions, Mr. Erskine never failed to earn meritoriously the large remuneration which was paid to him. He not only made himself from his brief a perfect master of his client's case, but he brought to it the full measure of his zealous feeling, and the perfect exercise of his brilliant faculties. Thoroughly acquainted with the world, he even condescended to have recourse to little artifices, pardonable in themselves, to aid his purpose. He examined the court the night before the trial, in order to select the most advantageous place for addressing the jury. On the cause being called, the crowded audience were, perhaps, kept waiting a few minutes before the celebrated stranger made his appearance; and, when at length he gratified their impatient curiosity, a particularly nice wig and a pair of new yellow gloves distinguished and embellished his person beyond the ordinary costume of the barristers of the circuit.

In no part of his professional engagements did Mr. Erskine deserve or acquire a higher reputation than in his mode of conducting trials for crim. con. It most frequently fell to his lot to be concerned in behalf of the plaintiffs in these actions, a circumstance which gave him considerable advantage; for, besides the attention which is always afforded to accusing eloquence, the sympathies of mankind are in alliance with him who hurls his invectives against the disturber of domestic peace and the invader of conjugal happiness. To this honourable and useful end the powers of Mr. Erskine were especially subservient. He called the slumbering emotions and the virtuous sensibilities of men into active league against the crime which he denounced; and several of his recorded speeches on such occasions must ever be considered as extraordinary efforts of rhetorical ability.

Mr. Erskine's eloquence was altogether different from any thing that had been witnessed before his time, and assuredly he has left no equal behind him. His contemporaries, though many of them men of high talents, bowed before it, and acknowledged its superiority. He could not display the peculiar energy of Law, invigorated as it was by a Latinized phraseology and a northern pronunciation; he had not the broad humour of Mingay, or the interrogative astuteness of Garrow; but he possessed a richness of imagination, a fertility of fancy, a power of commanding at the instant all the resources of his mind, and a dexterity in applying them, to which the whole united bar of England could not approach. He was successful, with nearly the same degree of excellence, on all subjects—in dry legal argumentation, and in *nisi prius* popular orations. His merit shone no less in plain matter of fact, commercial and navigation causes, at Guildhall, than on occasions when it became necessary to appeal to the passions and to excite the imagination. His judgment in the conduct of a case was at least equal to his other merits; and those who were associated with him in holding briefs had no less reason to admire his prudence in what he did not say than the bystanders had to extol his ingenuity in what he did. To these intellectual qualifications Mr. Erskine added the less substantial but perhaps to an advocate the not less useful advantages of person, countenance, and voice. His features were good, and capable of infinite variety of expression; the whole animated and intelligent at all times, and occasionally lighted up and beaming with great sweetness. The clear melodious tones of



his voice were nicely and almost scientifically modulated to the subject, and were accompanied by exceedingly graceful action. His demeanour was uniformly respectful to the bench, and kind and courteous to his brethren at the bar. During his twenty-eight years' practice, he was never known, but on one occasion, to say a rude or harsh word to any learned gentleman opposed to him in a cause; and on that occasion he made ample amends by a voluntary and instantaneous apology.

Mr. Erskine's success in the House of Commons, however, was very far from commensurate with the splendour of his professional reputation. On several occasions he was evidently overpowered by the haughty air, the commanding tone, the sarcastic invective, and the cutting irony of Mr. Pitt. He was a warm friend of Mr. Fox, and a strenuous opposer of the war with France. His sentiments on that subject he embodied in a pamphlet, published in 1797, entitled "A View of the Causes and Consequences of the War with France," which went through the unprecedented number of forty-eight editions.

In 1802 the prince of Wales not only restored to Mr. Erskine the office of his royal highness's attorney-general, but also revived in his favour that of chancellor, which had long been dormant, and made him keeper of the seals of the duchy of Cornwall.

In 1804, when Bonaparte threatened England with invasion, Mr. Erskine feeling, to use his own words, "a just reverence and affection for the constitution of our ancestors and a proper zeal to defend them against the invaders of our country," was at its formation, with one voice, invited to command that highly respectable corps of volunteers, the Law Association. When, in consequence of Mr. Pitt's death, Lord Grenville, in the year 1806, received the king's commands to form a new administration, Mr. Erskine was sworn a member of the privy council, created a baron, by the title of Lord Erskine of Restormel Castle in Cornwall, and raised to the dignity of lord high chancellor of Great Britain, in which capacity he soon after presided at the impeachment of Lord Melville.

Lord Erskine's judicial life was much too short to afford a fair test of his qualification for the high and important station of lord chancellor. He succeeded to that office under many disadvantages. Of these it was no slight one that he superseded an eminent lawyer, then in the prime of his life, whose whole professional existence (with the exception of a short interval, when he was chief justice of the common pleas) had been passed in courts of equity, and whose extraordinary attainments are still acknowledged by the very opponents who arraign the mode in which he used them. It was Lord Erskine's misfortune to come after this learned person, and to have practised only in courts of common law, the greatest experience in which gives no insight into the practice of the court of chancery and no acquaintance with its principles. Under these circumstances it is no disparagement to Lord Erskine to say that he was not equal to the most able of his predecessors. But still his quickness and readiness in catching points and adopting instruction were singularly conspicuous. Without the assistance which he derived from the learned bar of the court, Lord Erskine certainly could not have administered the business; but, with the information which that assistance gave

him, he, at least, avoided material error, if he did not distinguish himself by new and original exposition.

On the dissolution of Lord Grenville's administration, which took place within twelve months of its formation, Lord Erskine of course retired from the woolsack. Here his public life may be said to have closed. We must however except one effort, as honourable to his humanity as to his talents—the bill which he brought into the House of Lords, in 1809, for preventing malicious and wanton cruelty to animals. The speech made by Lord Erskine on moving the second reading of that bill, while it justly exposes the unmanly outrages so frequently perpetrated by base and worthless persons on the unoffending and unhappy creatures in their power, admonishes the legislature, in a simple but eloquent strain of benevolence, to endeavour to prevent the repetition of such atrocities. "Whatever," says the noble and learned lord, "Whatever may be the creatures which, by your own voluntary act, you choose to take from the wilds which nature has allotted to them, you must be supposed to exercise this admitted dominion for use, or for pleasure, or from curiosity. If for use, enjoy that use in its plenitude; if the animal be fit for food, enjoy it decently for food; if for pleasure, enjoy that pleasure, by taxing all its faculties for your comfort; if from curiosity, indulge it to the full. The more we mix ourselves with all created matter, animate or inanimate, the more we shall be lifted up to the contemplation of God. But never let it be said that the law should indulge us in the most atrocious of all propensities, which, when habitually gratified on beings beneath us, destroys every security of human life by hardening the heart for the perpetration of all crimes." Every one knows the fate of this measure. Supported in the House of Lords, as it deserved to be, by men of all parties, it was passed without a division, but fell a victim in the House of Commons to wit which, however brilliant, was on such a subject most reprehensibly misplaced.

The sudden reduction of Lord Erskine's income, which before his acceptance of the seals was between 10,000*l.*, and 12,000*l.*, to his pension of 4,000*l.*, as ex-chancellor, involved him in considerable embarrassment, to which the unfortunate purchase of an estate that, from the fall in the price of land, became considerably deteriorated in value, and the expense of a large family of children and grandchildren, greatly contributed. An unhappy second marriage aggravated these difficulties; and there is reason to fear that, notwithstanding the natural buoyancy of his spirits, the last ten years of Lord Erskine's life were embittered by occurrences against which it required all his fortitude to enable him to bear up.

In his intervals of leisure Lord Erskine amused himself by editing several of the "State Trials." The preface to "Mr. Fox's Speeches" is by him. He also published a political romance, in two volumes, called "Armata," and some pamphlets in support of the Greek cause. His last production was a poem, humanely written in behalf of the rooks, so unmercifully sacrificed by farmers. It appeared in the "Literary Gazette," and was much read and admired.

But age, and its attendant infirmities, now began to invade him; and it must be acknowledged that

they appeared to operate on his intellectual as well as on his bodily faculties. Lord Erskine had been twice before ill of the complaint which ultimately proved fatal to him, in 1807 and in 1819. His recovery at the last of those periods was deemed impossible; but his extraordinary stamina carried him through the disorder, contrary to the expectation of his physicians. In accompanying one of his sons to Edinburgh by sea, in the autumn of 1823, he caught cold in the packet, and was seized with his old malady, an inflammation of the chest. He was in consequence set ashore at Scarborough, whence he travelled by easy stages to Scotland. The complaint however rapidly gained ground; and on the 17th of November, 1823, he died at Almondale, his late brother's seat, six or seven miles from Edinburgh. On the 28th of the same month his remains were interred in the ancient family vault at Uphall Church. The funeral was private and unostentatious, the body being conveyed in a hearse drawn by six horses, which was followed only by the family carriages, and those of a few friends.

*Eschbach*

ESCHENBACH, WOLFRAM VON, a distinguished German poet of the thirteenth century. Of a lively imagination and penetrating spirit, rich and original in his description, and a complete master of language and versification, he elevated himself to a high rank among epic poets. But little is known of his private circumstances, except that he belonged to a noble family, probably in the Upper Palatinate. He was knighted at Henneburgh, and passed his life in the performance of the duties of chivalry, being supported by his poetical genius and the liberality of princes. Towards the end of his life he returned to the castle of his fathers, and was buried in the church of Our Lady of Eschenbach. His poems are partly original, and partly imitated from the French and Provençal literature. The most esteemed of his numerous works are the "Parcival," the "Titorell, or the Guardian of the Graale," the "Margrave of Narbonne," "Lohengrin," "William of Orange," and "Godfrey of Boulogne."

ESCHENBURG, JOHN JOACHIM, professor in the Carolinum at Brunswick, who was born at Hamburg in 1743. He received his early education at Hamburg, then studied at Leipsic, under Ernesti, Gallert, Morus, and Clodius, and at Gottingen under Heyne and Michaelis. He afterwards went to Brunswick as a tutor; and, at the death of the poet Zacharias, he was appointed to the professorship in the Carolinum there—an office which he filled till his death. Eschenburg translated the works of many of the best English authors, and made many valuable additions to some of them. He also published, in different periodicals, accounts of English literature, and thus contributed to make the literary treasures of England an object of great admiration among the Germans. His most valuable work was a translation of Shakspeare. Wieland had engaged in this undertaking before Eschenburg; but the translation of the latter is the most complete which has yet been made, and is still esteemed, though inferior to Schlegel's in elegance, harmony, and verbal accuracy. He died in 1820.

ESCOQUIZ, DON JUAN, a confidential friend

of Ferdinand VII., who was born, in 1762, of an ancient family of Navarre. From an inclination for serious studies he chose a religious in preference to a military life, and received a canonicate in the cathedral at Saragossa. His amiable qualities acquired for him many friends and patrons at court, and he was appointed instructor to the prince of Asturias, and he soon succeeded in winning the favour of the prince. The courage and frankness with which he expressed himself to the king and queen in 1797, 1798, on the subject of the calamities which pressed so heavily on Spain, drew upon him the enmity of the prince of peace (Godoy), who procured his banishment to Toledo; but Escoquiz sought, even in his exile, by memorials which he sent to the king, to undeceive the royal family respecting the favourite. The prince of peace however gained a continually increasing influence with the king, so that the prince of Asturias, in March 1807, wrote to Escoquiz that "he was in fear of his crown," and "looked to him for advice and assistance." Escoquiz immediately hastened to Madrid, where the revolting affair of the Escorial was agitated, and he defended the prince of Asturias with so much ability as to effect a decided change in public opinion. When Ferdinand ascended the throne, in 1808, Escoquiz was made counsellor of state. He advised the journey to Bayonne, and accompanied Ferdinand thither, and he was present at the interview with Napoleon, who knew his influence, and laboured to gain him. Escoquiz constantly exhorted the king of Spain not to abdicate the throne, whatever consequences might ensue. The abdication, however, took place, and Escoquiz accompanied Ferdinand to Valençay, but was soon after separated from him, and removed to Bourges, where he lived in retirement four years. He returned to Valençay, December 1813, when the course of events had rendered Napoleon inclined to a reconciliation with Ferdinand VII. and the infanta, and took part in all the proceedings which seated the Bourbons on the throne of Spain, immediately before the final fall of Napoleon. In 1814 he left the court and retired to Saragossa, having fallen into disgrace because he had advised the king to accept, at least in part, the constitution of the Cortes. Escoquiz acquired some reputation as an author, and translated into Spanish Young's "Night Thoughts," Milton's "Paradise Lost," and other works. His explanation of the motives which induced Ferdinand to go to Bayonne is an important document for the history of the time. He died in exile, at Ronda in Andalusia, in 1820. His fate is a fair commentary on Ferdinand's character.

ESMENARD, JOSEPH ALPHONSE, a poet, born in 1769 at Péliassane in Provence. After having finished his education at Marseilles he made a voyage to St. Domingo, and, on his return, formed an acquaintance with Marmontel, which developed his literary tastes. At the beginning of the revolution he belonged to the club of the Feuillans, and on its downfall was obliged to leave the country. He travelled through England, Germany, and Italy, and, on his return from Constantinople, settled in Venice, where he formed the design of his poem "La Navigation." He returned to France, was again banished for his political writings, returned again and laboured with La Harpe and Fontanes on the "Mercure de la France." He accompanied Le Clerc to St. Domingo, and, after his return, received a place in the ministry of the interior. His "Navi-



gation" appeared in the year 1805. He is blamed for many defects, but his talent for describing scenes on the ocean is universally admired. In 1808 he brought upon the stage an opera entitled "Trajan," and was banished once more by Napoleon, after having been assailed by numerous enemies, and made a member of the Institute. After three months he returned from exile, and died in 1811.

**ESPREMENIL, JAMES DUVAL D'**, a native of Pondicherry, counsellor of the parliament of Paris, and deputy from the nobility to the states-general in 1789. D'Espréménil had entertained the project of restoring to France the states-general; and, at the session of the parliament which sat in November 1787, he spoke with energy in favour of that scheme and in opposition to the measures of the ministry. He renewed his animadversions in May 1788, in consequence of which he was seized and banished to the isle of St. Margaret. Being recalled to Paris in 1789, he was nominated a deputy to the states-general, when he defended the monarchy against innovators with as much warmth as he had before opposed the despotism of the ministry. He made a speech against the union of the different orders; and, when he saw the minority of the nobles about to leave the chamber of session, he exclaimed, "We are on the field of battle: the cowards desert us; but let us close our ranks, and we are still strong enough." In opposing the establishment of paper money, in September 1790, he made the singular proposition to re-establish the monarchy in the full plenitude of its power. He afterwards endeavoured in vain to curb the revolutionary fury, to which he was destined to fall a victim. On the 27th of July, 1792, he was assailed by a band of armed men, by whom he was badly wounded, and narrowly escaped being killed. His friends then entreated him to leave France; but he refused, saying he ought to await the consequences of a revolution of which he had been one of the prime movers. He was at length condemned by the revolutionary tribunal, and perished on the scaffold in 1793.

**ESS, CHARLES VAN**, an ecclesiastic, who was born in 1770 at Warburg, in the bishopric of Paderborn. He entered the Benedictine abbey of Huysburg, near Halberstadt, in 1788, where he subsequently became prior; but, on the suppression of the abbey in 1804, he became a parish preacher at that place. In 1811 the bishop of Paderborn appointed him episcopal commissioner, with the full powers of vicar-general in the departments of the Elbe and Saal. In this situation he evinced a great predilection for the Roman see. It is said that he took but little part in the translation of the New Testament which was published under his and his brother's name, and he subsequently disclaimed any co-operation in it. In 1810 he wrote a "History of the Abbey of Huysburg," and, at the time of the Protestant jubilee in 1817, a "Short History of Religion," which was publicly burnt by the scholars in Halberstadt, at the celebration of the festival of the Reformation, and which was answered by some scholars in the vicinity.

**ESTAING, CHARLES HENRY, COUNT D'**.—This celebrated admiral and lieutenant-general of the armies of France before the revolution was a native of Ravel in Auvergne, and was descended from an ancient family in that province. Count d'Estaing commenced his career by serving in the

East Indies under Lally, when he was taken prisoner by the English, and sent home on his parole. Having engaged in hostilities again before he had been regularly exchanged, he was taken a second time, and imprisoned at Portsmouth. During the American war he was employed as vice-admiral. At the capture of the island of Grenada he distinguished himself; but on every occasion he showed more courage than conduct or professional skill. He promoted the revolution; and in 1789 he was appointed a commandment of the national guards at Versailles. In 1791 he addressed to the national assembly a letter full of protestations of attachment to the constitution, on the occasion of the approaching trial of the king. He suffered under the guillotine in 1793, as a counter-revolutionist, at the age of sixty-five.

**ESTE**, one of the most ancient and illustrious families of Italy. Muratori traces its origin to those petty princes who governed Tuscany in the time of the Carolingians. In later times they received from the emperors several districts and counties to be held as fiefs of the empire, viz., Este, Rovigo, Montagnana, Casal, Maggiore, Pontremoli, and Ober-tenza, with the title of marquis. Of this family was Guelfo IV., who, having received the investiture of the duchy of Bavaria, founded the house of Brunswick, which from this circumstance was called the Estensian Guelf. During the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, the history of the house of Este is connected with the vicissitudes of the other ruling families and free states of Upper Italy. In the contests between the Guelfs and Ghibelines the marquises of Este, as leaders of the Guelf party, acquired the territories of Ferrara and Modena, notwithstanding many reverses. This house was much distinguished for its patronage of the arts and sciences. Nicolas II. first made the court of Ferrara the seat of refinement and taste, and the reign of Nicolas III. was still more brilliant. He opened in 1402 the university of Ferrara, founded by his father Albert, and which had been suppressed during his minority. He also founded that of Parma, and his great liberality attracted the most distinguished men of the age, among whom were Guarini of Verona, the ancestor of the celebrated poet, and Giovanni Aurispa. He transmitted his love of literature to his sons, Lionel and Borso, who endeavoured to render Ferrara the country of scholars and poets.

The reign of Lionel was distinguished neither by conquests nor other great political occurrences, but no prince of the house of Este was more beloved by his contemporaries for his amiable disposition, the charms of his wit, and the elegance of his manners. He encouraged industry and commerce, the arts and sciences, by every method, and was himself a model of eloquence in the Latin and Italian languages. He corresponded with the most distinguished men of Italy, and contributed more than any prince of his time to restore ancient literature to that splendour which rendered the sixteenth century so illustrious. Under his brother and successor, Borso, agriculture, commerce, and all the arts of peace, were in a flourishing condition. Borso was fond of pomp, but as he neither maintained fortresses nor armies, his expenditures did not exhaust his finances; and the emperor Frederic III. was so much enchanted with his reception by Borso, on his passage through Ferrara, that he conferred on him the title of duke



of Modena and Reggio. Borso also obtained from the pope, Pius V., the duchy of Ferrara, which he held as a fief of the church. His successor, Ercole I., suffered much from the Venetians and their allies, who wished to deprive the house of Este of its territories; but Milan, Florence, and Naples took arms in his defence, and a general war was the consequence.

After concluding a disadvantageous peace in 1484, Ercole maintained a neutrality for twenty-one years, although important revolutions took place in Italy. During this period his subjects enjoyed all the blessings of peace, and his capital was distinguished for elegance and refinement. Boiardo, count of Scandiano, the celebrated author of "*Orlando Innamorato*," was his friend and minister. Ariosto, yet very young, already enjoyed the ducal favour, and the court of Ferrara was adorned by the most celebrated geniuses of the period. His son, Alfonso I., succeeded him. His second wife was the celebrated Lucretia Borgia, whose brilliant talents and love of literature contributed in some measure to obliterate the infamy of her early years. Ariosto was in the service of Alfonso's brother, the cardinal Ippolito, a patron by no means worthy of such a poet, as his sacred office could not restrain him from violence and crime; and he caused the eyes of his brother Julius, his rival in the affections of a lady, to be put out because she had praised their beauty. Alfonso suffered this barbarous act, at which all Ferrara was indignant, to go unpunished; but the injured Julius and his brother Ferdinand entered into a conspiracy to dethrone him, for the purpose of rendering his revenge on Ippolito more sure. The conspiracy was detected, and the punishment of the two brothers was commuted into perpetual imprisonment, at the moment when the axe was suspended over their heads. Alfonso entered into the league of Cambray in 1509; and when the Venetians, under Angelo Trevisani, appeared at the mouth of the Po, and spread terror through the whole province of Ferrara, he enclosed their fleet, which ascended the river, within the fire of his batteries constructed on both banks, captured part, and burnt the rest. This victory was commemorated by the most celebrated Italian poets.

Pope Julius II. abandoned the league of Cambray, and joined the Venetians; he laid Alfonso, whom he could not persuade to follow his example, under an interdict, and declared all his papal fiefs forfeited. By this measure of Julius Alfonso lost Modena, and was deserted by his allies. The French, however, continued in their alliance with him, and he contributed to the victory which they gained at Ravenna in 1512. But, the French being soon after obliged to leave Italy, Alfonso stood alone. Meanwhile Julius died; but his successor, Leo X., refused to restore to Alfonso the cities of Modena and Reggio, which Francis I., who favoured the house of Este, had obliged him to promise. The papal court even attempted the assassination of the duke by the captain of his guard. Alfonso, thus menaced on all sides, was preparing to defend himself when the death of Leo X., in 1521, delivered the house of Este from the impending ruin. Adrian VI. revoked the censures of the church; but Clement VII., his successor, seemed to have inherited the hatred of his uncle Leo: he kept Alfonso out of possession of his Modena, and even endeavoured to deprive him of

his other estates. Soon afterwards the capture of Rome, in 1527, enabled the emperor Charles V. to restore to him his ancient possessions, and to confirm the claims of the house of Este. Alfonso excelled all the Italian princes of his time in uniting military glory with political talents; none of them was surrounded by more distinguished men, and none has been celebrated by nobler poets, among whom Ariosto is the most illustrious. His successor, Ercole II., was attached to Charles V., who, by his great preponderance, subjected all Italy to his influence. His brother Ippolito, at Rome, on the contrary, was attached to the French interest. This cardinal, who built the splendid villa d'Este at Tivoli, was the most munificent patron of the arts and sciences of that age. Alfonso II., who died in 1579, inherited, it is true, from his ancestors a love of letters, but a still greater fondness for pomp and luxury; and his disputes with the grand-duke of Tuscany regarding the precedence, and his efforts to obtain the crown of Poland, which involved him in great expense, occupied his whole political career. His finances were exhausted, and his subjects burdened with taxes. The first poets, and most distinguished men of Italy, continued however to adorn his court; but the persecutions of Tasso suggest only melancholy or disgraceful recollections for the house of Este. The seven years which the poet passed in a mad-house, either for having dared to love the princess Leonora, sister of the duke, or because, in the excess of his passion, he had so far forgot himself as to offend the pride of his sovereign, bear witness to the cruelty of Alfonso. Although he was married three times he was childless, and he appointed his cousin Cæsar, son of a natural son of Alfonso I., his successor.

On Cæsar's accession to the dukedom, Pope Clement VIII. declared the choice to have been illegal, and all the papal fiefs held by the house of Este to have reverted to the church. Cæsar possessed so little firmness of character that he immediately yielded to the menaces and armies of the pope, and surrendered Ferrara, together with the other ecclesiastical fiefs. Fortunately the emperor did not dispute his succession to the imperial fiefs; he remained in possession of Modena and Reggio, but was obliged to dispute the possession of Garfagnano in two wars with the republic of Lucca, until the contest was finally settled by the mediation of Spain. The violent temper of his son and successor, Alfonso III., at first excited apprehensions of a cruel and tyrannical reign; but the death of his wife Isabella of Savoy, to whom he was warmly attached, effected such a change in his character, that he resigned the government into the hands of his eldest son Francis, and retired to a capuchin monastery in the Tyrol, under the name of Giovanni Battista of Modena, where he passed his days in religious meditation and acts of piety. Since the loss of Ferrara the house of Este has been distinguished only for its ancient splendour. Francis I., son of Alfonso III., died in 1658, Alfonso IV. in 1662, Francis II. in 1694; Rinaldo I. died in 1737. The last-mentioned prince, who was in early life a cardinal, married Charlotte Felicitas of Brunswick, daughter of the duke of Hanover, and thus reunited the two branches of the house of Este, which had been divided since 1070. His son Francis III. deserves to be mentioned as a patron of literature. Ercole III., the last duke of Modena, Reggio, and



Mirandola, married his only daughter, Maria Beatrice, to the arch-duke Ferdinand of Austria: a fruit of this marriage was the second wife of Francis of Austria. Ercole had accumulated great treasures, but lost the affections of his subjects, and on the approach of the French armies in 1796 he fled to Venice. Modena and Reggio were included in the Cisalpine confederacy or republic, and the house of Este was definitively deprived of the sovereignty by the treaty of Campo-Formio, which took place in October 1797.

ESTCOURT, RICHARD, a well-known writer and actor, who was born at Tewkesbury in Gloucestershire in 1668, and received his education at the Latin school of that town; but, having an early inclination for the stage, he stole away from his father's house at fifteen years of age, and joined a travelling company of comedians then at Worcester, where, for fear of being known, he made his first appearance in woman's clothes, in the part of Roxana, in "Alexander the Great." But, this disguise not sufficiently concealing him, he was obliged to make his escape from a pursuit that was made after him, and, in the dress of a girl, proceeded to Chipping Norton. Here, however, being discovered and overtaken by his pursuers, he was brought back to Tewkesbury; and his father soon after bound him apprentice to an apothecary in Hatton Garden. At the expiration of his apprenticeship he went to Ireland, where he met with good success on the stage, from whence he came back to London, and was received in Drury Lane Theatre. His first appearance there was in the part of Dominic, the "Spanish Fryar," in which he established his character by a close imitation of Leigh, who had been very celebrated in it. And indeed, in this and all his other parts, he was mostly indebted for his applause to his powers of mimicry, in which he was inimitable. Sir Richard Steele, in the "Spectator" and in the "Tatler," often mentioned Estcourt as a person of easy and natural politeness. His company was courted by every one, and his mimicry so much admired that persons of high rank frequently invited him to their tables. Among others, he was a great favourite with the duke of Marlborough; and, at the time the celebrated beef-steak club was erected, Mr. Estcourt had the office assigned him of their providore; and, as a mark of distinction of that honour, he used, by way of a badge, to wear a small gridiron of gold hung about his neck with a green silk ribbon. He quitted the stage some years before his death, which took place in 1713, when he was interred in the parish of St. Paul's, Covent Garden, where his brother comedian, Haines, had been buried a few years previous.

ESTRADES, GODFREY, COUNT D', a celebrated marshal of France, who was born in 1627, and served for a considerable period in the Low Countries under Prince Maurice with whom he acted as agent of France. Count d'Estrades, having negotiated in 1662 the sale of Dunkirk, was commissioned to receive that town from the hands of the English. Though Charles II. had signed the treaty, the parliament strongly opposed its execution, and the English garrison refused to evacuate the place. But the count d'Estrades (according to the French historian's account) judiciously distributed considerable sums of money, and the governor and the garrison embarked for London. On their passage they met the packet conveying to them the order of parliament not to

surrender Dunkirk to the French; but the affair was already settled, owing to the active and ingenious address of d'Estrades. Being returned to Paris he was despatched again to London, in 1666, in quality of ambassador extraordinary, and the year following went over to Holland, invested with similar powers, and there concluded the treaty of Breda. He distinguished himself not less, in 1673, when sent ambassador extraordinary to the conferences of Nimeguen for the general peace. He died on the 26th of February, 1686.

ESTREES, GABRIELLE D', DUCHESS OF BEAUFORT, a celebrated mistress of Henry IV. of France, who was born about 1571. She was the daughter of Antoine d'Estrees, a descendant of one of the noblest families in Picardy, who distinguished himself in the defence of Noyon against the duke of Mayenne, for which Henry IV. made him governor of the Isle de France. Gabrielle was about twenty years of age when Henry first saw her on a visit to Cœuvres Castle; and her beauty immediately captivated him. Gabrielle however, who was attached to the duke of Bellegarde, was at first little inclined to gratify the wishes of the king. But Henry still urged his suit, and often stole by the sentinels of his enemies, in the dress of a peasant, to see the object of his love. The heart of the lady was at length moved by his ardour and entreaties. She became the mistress of the chivalric monarch, who never loved any other woman so passionately. To escape the severe scrutiny of her father Henry married her to a nobleman named Damerval, of Liancourt; but Henry intended to raise Gabrielle to the throne as his lawful wife. For this purpose he not only procured a divorce from Margaret of Valois, but also raised the county of Beaufort to a duchy, which he bestowed on Gabrielle, thus giving her a high rank at court. This design was strongly opposed by Sully, who often represented to the monarch the bad consequences of such a measure. Gabrielle, therefore, became his bitter enemy, and, instigated by the enemies of the minister, she once so far forgot herself as to urge the king to discharge him. Henry's reply was, "By God, madam, if I must lose one of you, I would rather give up ten mistresses like you, than one servant like him." So ardent, however, was his passion for Gabrielle that he once wrote to her in a moment of danger, "If I am conquered, you know me too well to believe that I shall flee. My last thought shall be God's, my last but one yours."

Notwithstanding the determination of the king and the wishes of Gabrielle, their marriage never took place. Just before Easter, in 1599, when negotiations were already in train for the divorce of the king, she retired from court, by the advice of René Bénoit, the king's confessor, and went to Paris to spend Passion week. On Maunday Thursday, having eaten an orange after dinner, she was suddenly seized with convulsions, and on Saturday she died in the most excruciating torments. Apoplexy, with convulsions, was the cause assigned for her death; but no one can doubt that she was poisoned. The king's grief for her loss was excessive; and, what is seldom the case, the royal mistress was universally lamented. Her amiable disposition, the gentleness of her character, and the modesty which prevented her from meddling with public affairs, won her general favour. She had three children by the king, Cæsar and Alexander, afterwards dukes of Vendome, and a daughter.

Catharine Henrietta, afterwards the wife of the duke of Elbeuf.

**ESTREES, LOUIS CÉSAR, DUC D'**, a distinguished marshal of France and minister of state, who was born at Paris in 1695. He fought against the Spaniards under the duke of Berwick, and distinguished himself so much that he was raised to the rank of field-marshal and inspector-general of the cavalry. In the war of 1741 he obtained the confidence of Marshal Saxe, by the passage of the Maine at Seligenstadt, his conduct at the battle of Fontenoy, and the sieges of Mons and Charleroi. In 1756 he received the baton of marshal of France, and appeared in Germany at the head of 100,000 men. His audience with Louis XIV. closed with these words: "By the 1st of July I shall have driven the enemy beyond the Weser, and shall be preparing to enter Hanover." He kept his word, and gained a decisive victory over the duke of Cumberland at Hastenback. The Hanoverians were preparing to leave the electorate, when the marshal was recalled by court intrigues, and succeeded by Richelieu. After the defeat at Minden, he was sent to Giesen, where he assumed no command, but was content to assist Contades with his advice. At the close of the war he was created duke. He died in 1771, without issue.

**ETHELBERT, SAINT**, king of the East Angles. This monarch owes his principal historical importance to his sudden and tragic death at the court of Offa, king of Mercia. It appears that the latter monarch having long desired the dominions of the king of the East Angles, decoyed the unfortunate Ethelbert to the royal palace at Sutton Walls near Hereford, under pretence of giving him his daughter in marriage. He was received with the highest honours, and a sumptuous banquet afterwards prepared; but soon after midnight, when Ethelbert had retired to rest, the floor of his bedroom was lowered into a vault prepared beneath where ruffians were waiting to strangle him. So carefully was this done, and so silently was the machinery put into operation, that the pages and chamberlain who slept in an adjoining apartment were in no shape disturbed, and several years elapsed before the cause of the king's death was known.

Ethelbert possessed considerable literary acquirements; and, having through life been a great patron of the church, miracles were ascribed to his remains, and he was canonized. Pilgrims now flocked from every part of England to the scene of his murder, and there was scarcely a disease to which humanity is heir which was not said to be cured.



Ethelbert was buried in Hereford Cathedral, and on the south side of the chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, formerly called *our Lady's Chapel*, but now used as a library, is a mutilated effigy of the royal saint. This figure, which is about five feet in length, was dug up some years ago at the entrance to the chapel; it is sculptured in stone, is dressed in a Saxon surcoat and robes, and has a regal

crown on its head. On the surcoat appear to have been painted the arms of Ethelbert, and it has been illuminated in different places with gilt Saxon characters. On the crown, surcoat, and robes, are the traces of rich gilding and colouring, and the whole figure very much resembles the one carved on the shrine which formerly stood on the high altar, of which Duncumb has given a representation. The feet of the figure rest on a pediment or projection of stone; the under part of which being left in a rough state, renders it evident that it was intended to stand upright against a wall. The figure is much mutilated: the lineaments of the face are completely obliterated, the head is separated from the shoulders, and part of the hands are gone; but enough remains of this once worshipped image to render it an object of extensive interest. In the situation in which this figure would stand, if again replaced, it would look directly to the high altar, and occupy a place immediately over the spot where the body of Ethelbert is said to have been deposited.

**ETHELRED I.**, king of England, son of Ethelwolf, succeeded his brother Ethelbert in 866. The Danes became so formidable in his reign as to threaten the conquest of the whole kingdom. Assisted by his brother Alfred, Ethelred drove them from the centre of Mercia, where they had penetrated; but, the Mercians refusing to act with him, he was obliged to trust to the West Saxons alone, his hereditary subjects. After various successes, the invaders continually increasing in numbers, Ethelred died in consequence of a wound received in an action with them in 871.

**ETHELRED II.**, king of England, son of Edgar, succeeded his brother Edward the Martyr in 978, and, for his want of vigour and capacity, was surnamed *the Unready*. During his reign, the Danes, who had for some time ceased their inroads, renewed them with great fury. After having repeatedly obtained their departure by presents of money, he effected, in 1002, a massacre of all the Danes in England. Such revenge only rendered his enemies more violent, and in 1003 Sweyn and his Danes carried fire and sword through the country. They were again bribed to depart; but, upon a new invasion, Sweyn obliged the nobles to swear allegiance to him as king of England; while Ethelred, in 1013, fled to Normandy with his family. On the death of Sweyn, he was invited to resume the government. He died at London in 1016.

**ETHELWOLF**, king of England, succeeded his father Egbert in 838, and, soon after his accession, associated his son Athelstan with him, giving him the sovereignty over Essex, Kent, and Sussex. In 851 the Danes poured into the country in such numbers that they threatened to subdue it; and, though opposed with great vigour by Athelstan and others, they fixed their winter quarters in England, and the following year burnt Canterbury and London. During these troubles Ethelwolf made a pilgrimage to Rome, with his son Alfred, where he staid a year, and, on his return, found Athelstan dead, and succeeded by his next son, Ethelbald, who had entered into a conspiracy with some nobles to prevent his father from again ascending his throne. To avoid a civil war, the king gave up the western division of the kingdom to his son, and soon after, summoning the states of the whole kingdom, solemnly conferred upon the clergy the tithes of all the produce of the



lands. He survived this grant about two years, dying in 857.

ETHEREGE, SIR GEORGE, one of the wits of Charles the Second's day, who is principally known as a writer of comedy. He is supposed to have been for some time at Cambridge, then to have travelled, and, on his return, to have been entered at one of the inns of court. He appears, however, to have paid little attention to any thing but gay pursuits. In 1664 he presented to the town his first comedy, entitled the "Comical Revenge, or Love in a Tub," which, although written with a very incongruous mixture of prose and verse, as suited the taste of the times, was well received. The author was immediately enrolled among the courtly wits of the day, and in 1668 brought out his next piece, entitled "She would if she could," which was very coarse and licentious. In 1676 he produced his third and last comedy, entitled "The Man of the Mode, or Sir Fopling Flutter," at which time he was, as the dedication implies, in the service of Mary of Modena, the second duchess of York. This performance was still more applauded than the preceding, and the Sir Fopling was, for a long time, deemed the ideal of the superlative beau or coxcomb of the age, as Dorimant was intended to represent its rakish fine gentleman, or Rochester. Etherege's plays are little more than lively conversation pieces, with a great paucity of genuine humour or felicitous plot, and have long been placed on the manager's shelf. His future career was very much in character. Having injured his constitution and fortune, he sought to marry a rich elderly widow, who made his acquirement of the honour of knighthood the condition of her acceptance. This, on the accession of James II., he attained, and was appointed envoy to Ratisbon. On the revolution he is said to have joined his former master in France. He was courtly and companionable, sprightly and generous, but deemed a little too much of his own Sir Fopling. Besides his plays, he wrote much light and easy poetry, such as songs, lampoons, panegyrics, &c., which are not without merit. Sir George Etherege died at an advanced age.

EUCLID, one of the most learned mathematicians of antiquity, who was born at Alexandria in Egypt, and taught his favourite science during the reign of Ptolemy Lagos. He reduced into regularity and order all the fundamental principles of pure mathematics, which had been delivered down by Thales, Pythagoras, Eudoxus, and other mathematicians before him, and added many others of his own discovering, on which account it was said he was the first who reduced arithmetic and geometry into the form of a science. He devoted himself to the study of applied mathematics, particularly to astronomy and optics. His works are the "Elements," "Data," "Introduction to Harmony," "Phenomena," "Optics," "Catoptrics," "a Treatise of the Division of Superficies," "Porisms," "Loca ad Superficiem," "Fallacies," and four books of "Conics."

Euclid, as a writer on music, has ever been held in the highest estimation by all men of science who have treated of harmonics, or the philosophy of sound. As Pythagoras was allowed by the Greeks to have been the first who found out musical ratios by the division of a monochord, or single string, a discovery which tradition only had preserved, Euclid was the first who wrote upon the subject, and re-

duced these divisions to mathematical demonstration. His "Introduction to Harmonics" first appeared in print with a Latin version in 1498, at Venice, under the title of "Cleonidæ Harmonicum Introductorium." His "Section of the Canon" follows his "Introduction." This tract chiefly contains short and clear definitions of the several parts of Greek music. The period when Euclid died is not known with any degree of certainty.

EUDOCIA, a celebrated Roman empress, whose original name was Athenais. She was born about the year 400. Her parents took so much care of her education that when her father died he left her only one hundred pieces of gold (the whole of his estates being bequeathed to his sons), as he considered that her good education and accomplishments were quite sufficient for her. This compliment, however, did not satisfy her, and having gone to law with her brothers, without success, she carried her cause to Constantinople, where she was recommended to Pulcheria, sister of the emperor Theodosius the younger, and became her favourite. In the year 421 she embraced Christianity, and changed her name from Athenais to Eudocia, and the same year was married to the emperor, through the powerful recommendation of his sister, by which event her father's prophecy appeared to be fulfilled. Amidst all the grandeur of her new situation she still continued to lead a very studious and philosophic life, spending much of her time in reading and writing, and lived very happily till the year 445, when an apparently trifling accident exposed her to the emperor's jealousy. The emperor, it is said, having sent her an apple of an extraordinary size and beauty, she sent it to Paulinus, whom she respected on account of his learning. Paulinus, not knowing from whom it came, presented it to the emperor, who, soon after seeing the empress, asked her what she had done with it. She, being apprehensive of raising suspicions in her husband, if she should tell him that she had given it to Paulinus, very unwisely declared that she had eaten it, which excited a suspicion of her intimacy with Paulinus, that seemed to be confirmed by her confusion on his producing the apple. He also put Paulinus to death. Upon this she went to Jerusalem, where she spent many years in building and adorning churches, and in relieving the poor. She died about A. D. 460.

EUGENE, FRANCIS, of Savoy, a celebrated military commander, who was the fifth son of Eugene Maurice, duke of Savoy-Carignan, count of Soissons, and Olympia Mancini, a niece of Cardinal Mazarin. He was born at Paris in 1663. Among all the generals and statesmen of Austria, none has rendered more numerous and important services than Eugene, for he was great both in the field and the cabinet. He petitioned Louis XIV. for a company of dragoons, but was refused on account of the opposition of Louvois, minister of war, who hated the family of Eugene. Indignant at this repulse, and at the insults offered to his family, and particularly to his mother, Eugene, in 1613, entered the Austrian service, as two of his brothers had already done; and he served his first campaign as a volunteer against the Turks, under two celebrated generals, Charles, duke of Lorraine, and Louis, prince of Baden, with so much distinction that he received a regiment of dragoons. Louvois, jealous of the reputation of Eugene, said angrily, "He shall never return to his country." Eugene,

to whom these words were reported, replied, "I shall return in spite of Louvois;" and, in fact, some years afterwards, he entered France at the head of a victorious army. In 1687, after the battle of Mohacz, he was made lieutenant field-marshal. War having broken out between France and Austria, he prevailed upon the duke of Savoy to enter into an alliance with the emperor, and commanded the imperial forces sent for the defence of Savoy. He rejected the tempting offers made by France to engage him in her service, and was raised by the emperor to the rank of general field-marshal; and after the war in Italy was concluded, he was sent to Hungary with the rank of commander-in-chief. He defeated the Turks at the battle of Zenta in September 1697, and obtained, on that occasion, the applause of Europe, and the entire confidence of the imperial armies, although his enemies envious of his glory, accused him of temerity in undertaking so hazardous an enterprise. The losses of the Turks at Zenta obliged them to accede to the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, which was the first symptom of their decline.

The Spanish war of succession next called Eugene to a new theatre of glory, and Italy became the field in which he displayed his military talents. He advanced rapidly through the passes of the Tyrol, at the head of 30,000 men, in the face of Marshal Catinat, who endeavoured in vain to arrest his progress; and Villeroi was still more unsuccessful, being surprised and defeated, near Cremona, by Eugene. In 1703 he received the command of the army in Germany; and, being appointed president of the council of war, he was the soul of all important enterprises, to which he imparted great activity; and his efficient co-operation with Marlborough frustrated the plans of France and her allies. In the battle of Hochstadt, which was fought in August 1704, the two heroes gained a decisive victory over the French and Bavarian army, commanded by the prince of Bavaria and Marshal Tallard, the latter of whom was made prisoner. In 1705 Eugene returned to Italy, where he was severely wounded in an engagement with the French under the duke de Vendome, and being obliged to retire from the field, his army was defeated; but Vendome was recalled, and his successor, the duke de la Feuillade, could not withstand Eugene, who now hastened to the relief of Turin, stormed the French lines, forced them to raise the siege, and in one month drove them out of Italy. In 1707 he entered France, and laid siege to Toulon; but the immense superiority of the enemy obliged him to retire into Italy. The following years he fought on the Rhine, took Lille, and defeated the marshals Villars and Boufflers at the battle of Malplaquet, where he himself was dangerously wounded. In this situation he maintained that calmness peculiar to great men. When the officers urged upon him the necessity of providing for his personal safety, "What need of bandages," said he, "if we are about to die here? If we escape, the evening will be time enough." After the recel of Marlborough, which Eugene opposed in person, at London, without success, and the defection of England from the alliance against France, his farther progress was in a great measure checked, more particularly after the defeat of General Albemarle at Denain. The peace of Rastadt, the consequence of the treaty of Utrecht, was concluded between Eugene and Villars in 1714.

In the war with Turkey in 1716 Eugene defeated

two superior armies at Peterwaradin and Temesvar; and in 1717 took Belgrade, after having gained a decisive victory over a third army that came to its relief. The treaty of Passarowitz was the result of this success. During fifteen years which followed Austria enjoyed peace, and Eugene was as active in the cabinet as he had been in the field, when the Polish affairs in 1733 became the source of a new war. Eugene appeared, in his old age, at the head of an army on the banks of the Rhine, but returned to Vienna without effecting any thing of importance. He died in 1736.

EUGENE DE BEAUHARNAIS, duke of Leuchtenberg, prince of Eichstedt, was born in September 1781. He was the son of the viscount Alexander Beauharnais, who was guillotined in 1794, and Josephine Tascher de la Pagerie, afterwards wife of Napoleon and empress of France. During the French revolution Eugene entered the military service, and at the age of twelve years accompanied his father when he took the command of the army of the Rhine; and after his father's death he joined Hoche, in La Vendée, when his mother was in prison. In 1796 Josephine was married to General Bonaparte, then commander-in-chief of the army of Italy; and Eugene accompanied his father-in-law in his campaigns in Italy and Egypt. He was promoted to a high rank in the service, and in 1805 created a prince of France and viceroy of Italy. In the same year he distinguished himself in the campaigns against Austria, and, after the peace of January 1806, married the princess Augusta of Bavaria. In 1807 Napoleon made him prince of Venice, and declared him his heir to the kingdom of Italy.

In the war of 1809 he was at first unsuccessful against the archduke John, but soon afterwards gained the battle of Raab, and distinguished himself at Wagram. He conducted himself with great prudence on the occasion of the divorce of Napoleon from his mother, and on the 3d of March, 1810, Napoleon appointed him successor of the prince primate, who had been created grand-duke of Frankfurt. In the Russian campaign he commanded the third *corps d'armée*, and distinguished himself in the battles of Ostrowno, Mohilo, and that on the Moskwa. In the disastrous retreat, he did not desert the wrecks of his division for a moment, but shared its toils and dangers with the soldiers, and encouraged them by his example. Indeed to him and to Ney France was indebted for the preservation of the remains of her army during that fatal retreat. On the departure of Napoleon and Murat he was left in the chief command, and showed great talent at that dangerous conjuncture. We find him again at the battle of Lützen, which took place on the 2d of May, 1813, where, by surrounding the right wing of the enemy, he decided the fate of the day. Napoleon sent him from Dresden to the defence of Italy, now menaced by the enemy's forces, where military operations commenced after the dissolution of the congress of Prague, and the accession of Austria to the league of the allied powers. Eugene maintained the defence of Italy even after the desertion of Murat, but after the fall of Napoleon he concluded an armistice with Count Bellegarde, by which he delivered Lombardy and all Upper Italy to the Austrians. Eugene then went immediately to Paris, and thence to his father-in-law at Munich. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, he was obliged to leave Vienna, and retire to



Baireuth. By the articles of Fontainebleau, an indemnification was assigned him for the loss of his estates in Italy, which were valued at from twenty to twenty-five millions of francs; but the congress of Vienna confirmed his dotation in the march of Ancona, and the king of Naples was obliged to pay him five million francs, and by an ordinance of the king of Bavaria he was created duke of Leuchtenberg, and the Bavarian principality of Eichstedt was bestowed upon him, and his posterity declared capable of inheriting in case of the failure of the Bavarian line. He died at Munich, on the 21st of February, 1824, leaving two sons and four daughters. Prince Eugene, under a simple exterior, concealed a noble character and great talents. Honour, integrity, humanity, and love of order and justice, were the principal traits of his character. Wise in the council-chamber, undaunted in the field, and moderate in the exercise of power, he never appeared greater than in the midst of reverses.

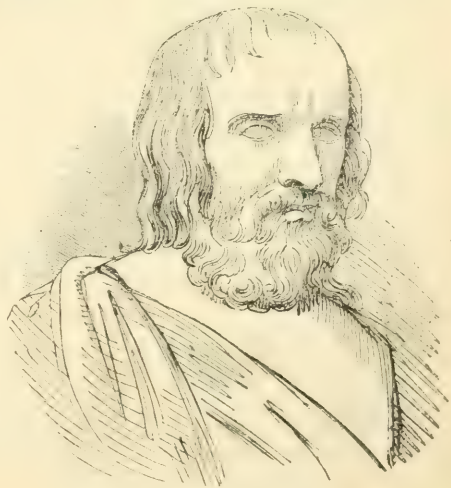
**EULENSPIEGEL, TYLL.**—This eccentric individual was born at Kneitlingen, a village of Wolfenbüttel, not far from Schöppenstädt, and died, about 1350, in the little town of Möllen, situated about eighteen miles from Lubeck, where his gravestone, with a looking-glass and an owl upon it, in allusion to his name, yet stands. His name has become proverbial in Germany for all sorts of wild, whimsical frolics, which were committed from pure love of fun; for Tyll was continually engaged in such, as he roved about through Lower Saxony and Westphalia, and even as far as Poland and Rome. Accounts of them are still preserved in the popular traditions of Germany. At what time and in what language they were first committed to writing can hardly be determined, but from the title of the old popular editions it would seem to have been in Low-German, and it has been supposed, without sufficient evidence, that Thomas Murner, the Franciscan, doctor of theology and law, and an antagonist of Luther, known by his "Fool's Complaint," and other writings of a similar stamp, translated them into High-German. It has been a favourite book, not only with the German, but many other nations, has been translated into English, French, Latin, Dutch and Polish, has been often imitated, and has passed through editions without number.

**EULER, LEONARD**, a mathematician, born at Basle in 1707, and learned from his father, a clergyman, the first rudiments of the science in which he was afterwards so distinguished. At the university of Basle he enjoyed the instructions of John Bernouilli, and the friendship of Daniel and Nicholas Bernouilli, who successfully emulated their father's fame. In his nineteenth year he gained the *accessit* of the prize offered by the Paris Academy of Sciences for the best treatise on the masting of vessels. Catherine I., desirous of completing the establishment of the academy of Petersburg, invited Daniel and Nicholas Bernouilli thither. Nicholas died, and Daniel soon returned to his native country, after having procured a place in the academy for his friend Euler. Euler now constituted the whole mathematical department in the academy, and laboured with astonishing industry; he composed more than half of the treatises in this branch of science contained in the forty-six quarto volumes published by the academy from 1727 to 1783, and at his death left about 100 unpublished dissertations, which were suc-

cessively printed by the society. To the Paris Academy of Sciences he also presented several treatises, and carried off or divided a number of prizes. In 1741 he accepted an invitation from Frederic the Great to become professor of mathematics in the Berlin academy, but in 1766 returned to Petersburg, where he died in 1783, in the office of director of the mathematical class of the academy.

He received from all parts of Europe flattering marks of respect. The Academy of Sciences in France chose him in 1775 one of its foreign members, though none of those places, then so much an object of ambition, was vacant. He also received considerable presents for the assistance which he rendered to Mayer in preparing his lunar tables, and 300*l.* sterling as his share of the prize offered by our parliament for the best method of determining the longitude at sea. He distinguished himself particularly by his endeavours to perfect the analytic method, according to the system of Bernouilli and the Leibnitzian school, and to complete its separation from pure geometry, which Newton's disciples principally employed in their investigations. He first gave the example of those long processes, in which the conditions of the problem are first expressed by algebraic symbols, and then pure calculation resolves all the difficulties. In this Euler displayed extraordinary acuteness, and a profound as well as inventive genius; indeed he may be said to have given a new form to the science, as he applied the analytic method to mechanics, and enlarged the boundaries of this science. He greatly improved the integral and differential calculus, of which he afterwards published a complete course, which surpassed every thing then extant on this subject. The great questions on the system of the universe, which Newton left to his successors to resolve, were the constant object of Euler's inquiries, and constitute the subjects of most of his prize essays.

**EURIPIDES**, a celebrated Greek writer, whose works give us so good a notion of the tragic poetry



of the period when he flourished, as to require a somewhat detailed notice. He appears to have been a native of the island of Salamis, and was born B. C. 480. Of the youth of Euripides we know only that



his father, in consequence of some false prediction, intended to train him for an *athlete*; but his natural inclination led him to different pursuits. At first he studied painting, but afterwards applied himself to rhetoric under Prodicus, and to philosophy under Anaxagoras. These studies had so powerful an influence on his poetry, that he might be called the rhetorical tragedian with no less truth than he is called the philosophical tragedian. Euripides lived near the time when Greek tragedy was carried to its greatest perfection by Sophocles, to be ranked as second to whom is high glory. These two poets were the favourites of their age. The tragedies of Euripides were represented at the same time with those of Sophocles, and sometimes gained the prize in preference. The critics indeed did not agree unanimously in this decision of the public, and the unsparing satire of Aristophanes was directed against the popular poet, whom he ridiculed in cutting parodies. "Aristophanes," says Richter, "like another Moses, showers his frogs on Euripides only to chastise his lax and relaxing morality, not blinded, like Socrates, by his moral sentences to the immoral tendency of the whole." The early part of the life of Euripides was unceasingly devoted to his poetical studies. He was accustomed to retire to a dreary cave in the isle of Salamis, to compose his dramas in the stillness of the deepest solitude. When he complained to a contemporary writer, named Alcestis, that he had not been able to produce more than three verses in the last three days, and the latter replied that he had made 300 during the same period, Euripides observed that there was this further difference between them—that the productions of this facility would last three days, while his were intended to endure for ever.

There has been much difference of opinion respecting the private life and domestic history of our bard; many of the tales related respecting him have arisen from attempts to account for the contempt and aversion towards the female sex which seems to breathe through his writings. According to some, he had two wives at the same time, with both of whom he was heartily disgusted, and therefore vented his spleen on the sex. Others contend that he took his consorts successively; that the first he was compelled to repudiate for abandoned conduct; and that the second not only disregarded the ties of her condition, but caused, by her open profligacy, so great ridicule to be poured on her husband, that he was forced to leave Athens. Sophocles is said to have attributed the low opinion which his rival entertained for women to his having been chiefly acquainted with the vicious and degraded among them; but this opinion may reasonably be taken with some allowance for the jealousy of an author.

Euripides passed the latter part of his life with Archelaus, king of Macedon, by whom he was received with the most distinguished honours. There in peace and ease he passed the remainder of his days. When, however, he was importuned by his royal patron to celebrate his actions in a play, he declined, gracefully observing that he trusted the reign of the monarch would furnish no materials for tragedy. The mode of his death is variously related, though all agree that it was violent, and took place about three years after he had come to reside at Pella. The common account is, that he was torn in pieces by dogs, some alleging that their fury was only accidental, and that

they seized him while walking in a wood, engaged in deep contemplation; and others, that two poets, Arideus and Cratevas, the former a Macedonian and the latter a Thessalian, hired the keeper of the royal hounds thus to accomplish his destruction. It seems to be the better opinion, that his death was accidental; though violent, it could scarcely be regarded as untimely, since he fell in his seventy-fifth year. His remains were removed from Bermiscus, where he died, to Pella, where Archelaus honoured them with a sumptuous funeral. This munificent patron is even said to have cut off his own hair, and put on deep mourning, as a testimony of respect for that genius which living he had delighted to cherish. The Athenians, who had done him so little honour in life, were, according to their custom, exceedingly ready to lament his death. They sent an embassy to Archelaus, to request that they might bring his relics to Attica, a demand which was peremptorily denied.

Archelaus erected a splendid monument to the memory of the poet, with the inscription, "Thy memory, O Euripides, will never perish." Still more honourable was the inscription on the cenotaph at Athens: "All Greece is the monument of Euripides; the Macedonian earth covers only his bones."

According to some authorities, Euripides composed ninety-two tragedies; according to others, seventy-five; but only five of them were so fortunate as to obtain the victory, four during his life-time, and one after his death. Nineteen of the plays of Euripides have reached us, besides a number of fragments. In him, many of the critics conceive that the Greek tragedy attained its perfection. Highly, however, as we estimate his powers, to which Schlegel has scarcely done justice, we are inclined to agree with that high modern authority, that we must look in this poet for the symbols of its decline. A slight view of his general character and a rapid survey of some of his pieces will, we think, suffice to justify this opinion.

The efforts of Euripides are directed less to the imagination than to the sensibilities and the understanding. He loves to triumph by involving us in metaphysical subtleties, or by dissolving us in tears. He scarcely ever labours to attain that which the other tragedians made their great object, a representation of perfect beauty. They made the very sorrows and deaths of their heroes something above humanity, which should excite awe rather than compassion; he delighted in rendering their distresses of the lowest and most physical complexion. They cast around their sufferers a solemnity in grief, which breaks the force of sympathy; he strove to tear away all the disguises of rank, and claimed our agonizing pity for his persons as the lowest of mortals. The pangs of their heroes had for their causes the immediate retributions of heaven; his were exposed to cold, beggary, and pitiful needs. While the former preserve a majesty in affliction, the latter court our sympathy in the eloquence of poverty. The truth seems to have been, that the mind of Euripides was more penetrating and refined than exalted. With great sweetness and elegance, he appears to have wanted a sense of high and austere virtue, and even of sustained heroic grandeur. Thus he has scarcely in all his pieces one character of consistent excellence, where the virtue is brought into action.

An admirable critic thus describes three of his



most celebrated dramas. The "Medea" may be placed first in the list, which has, perhaps, been the most popular of his works; partly owing to the dazzling terrors of its plot, and partly to the comparisons so often made in its favour with the Roman tragedy on the same subject, which bears the name of Seneca. The opening speeches of the nurse, recounting the distresses of her mistress, which are interrupted and heightened by her sorrowful exclamations behind the scene, are singularly beautiful. In the middle of the piece, when the heroine condescends to deception, in order to accomplish her design, the interest seems to languish; but nothing of the kind can be more fearfully grand than the description of the death of the bride of Jason and her father, and the ferocious joy with which the enchantress listens to the tale. Her speeches, when meditating the death of her children, are admirably varied by the struggles of natural affection, which almost shake her soul from its purpose; and her final appearance in the air with the bodies, is exceedingly picturesque. She is, however, the only character in the piece. Jason is mean, hypocritical, and low-minded; Creon at once tyrannical and imprudent; and the chorus (who are necessarily acquainted with the dreadful designs, which they make no attempt to frustrate except by persuasion) of rather dubious virtue. The versification of this play is peculiarly sweet and flowing, and a bright fancy sparkles over it.

"Ion" is in many respects one of the happiest efforts of Euripides. The picture of sweet simplicity and holy reverence in the mind of its youthful hero is no less distinct and lovely than that of the scenery with which he is surrounded. His feelings of humble gratitude to the power which has protected him, his virtue unspotted from the world, and his fond cleaving to the sacred seclusion which has enwrapped him from childhood, are beautifully drawn. The picture seems sky-tintured—of an ethereal purity of colouring. The plot also is very skilfully conducted to the conclusion; though, with the exception of the attempt on the hero's life, the whole might pass for a sentimental comedy. The story is quite of this cast: a foundling is discovered by a mother, who had since been married, to be her son, and is palmed off on her husband as the fruit of an early amour of his own, thus securing a wished-for happiness on Xuthus, an inheritance on Ion, and, at once, her child and her character to the mother. This is strictly a piece of intrigue, though it must be allowed that the imagination of the poet, here most felicitously exerted, has elevated it far above ordinary dramas of this description. In this, as in many other works of Euripides, we trace the origin of the new comedy, and find ample reason to justify the admiration of Menander. The great blemish of the piece is the contrivance of the mother to slay the youth, whom she does not know to be her son. A lady, who has been represented as of peaceable and domestic manners, hears that her husband has discovered a son, and an attendant no sooner proposes to her that she should murder him, than she acquiesces without the slightest scruple, and only expresses her fear that so desirable an event will be difficult to accomplish. Afterwards, when the scheme has been frustrated, and the recognition takes place, all is forgiven and forgotten; Ion embraces his mother without shuddering at her baseness, and this intended murderess is rewarded by the discovery of

her son, and the combination of Apollo with her to deceive her husband. One would almost think that before Euripides could make such a representation as this, he must have lost all sense of distinction between crime and excellence among the miserable sophistries of the schools.

The "Raging Hercules" has also attained a high degree of eminence. It consists of two distinct fables—the imminent danger of the father, wife, and children of Hercules, with their deliverance by the return of that hero; and the madness in which he kills most of those whom he had so lately saved. Notwithstanding this fault, there is much power in the latter part of the tragedy. The description given of the dreadful scene in which the slaughters are perpetrated is very striking, and the condition of Hercules when he wakes to a consciousness of the past, most heart-appalling and fearful. The best editions of Euripides are those of 1597, Stephens 1602, Musgrave 1778, and of Morus and Beck 1779—88. The latest critical editions are by Matthiæ 1813—20, and by Bothe 1825; but Valkenaer, Brunck, Porson, Markland, &c., have devoted themselves to the illustration of various tragedies. Woodhull and Potter have translated the tragedies of Euripides into our own language.

EUSDEN, LAWRENCE, an English poet of some eminence, who was born in Yorkshire, and educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, after which he took orders, and was for a considerable period chaplain to Richard, Lord Willoughby de Broke. His first patron was Lord Halifax, whose poem "On the Battle of the Boyne" Eusden translated into Latin. He was also esteemed by the duke of Newcastle, on whose marriage with Lady Henrietta Godolphin he wrote an "Epithalamium," for which, upon the death of Rowe, he was by his grace preferred in 1718 to the laureateship. He had several enemies, and, among others, Pope, who put him into his "Dunciad;" though we do not know what provocation he gave to any of them, unless by being raised to the dignity of poet-laureate. Eusden died at the rectory of Coningsby, in Lancashire, in September 1730.

EUSEBIUS, surnamed Pamphilus, was born at Casarea, in Palestine, about A. D. 270, and was considered the most learned man of his time. He was in 314 appointed bishop in his native city. He was at first opposed to the Arians, but afterwards became their advocate, and with them condemned the doctrines of Athanasius. His "Ecclesiastical History," written like his other works in Greek, is contained in ten books, and extends from the birth of Christ to 324. Of his "Chronicon," with the exception of some fragments of the original, we have only an Armenian translation, and the Latin version of Jerome. Besides these, there are yet extant fifteen books of his "Preparatio Evangelica," which is particularly valuable for the extracts it contains from lost philosophical works. Of the twenty books of his "Demonstratio Evangelica," in which he shows the superiority of Christianity to Judaism, we have only ten imperfectly preserved; and, finally, a life, or rather eulogium, of Constantine. He died in 314.

EUSTACHI, BARTOLOMEO, a learned physician and anatomist, born at San Severino, in the mark of Ancona, studied Latin, Greek, and Arabic at Rome, and devoted himself to the various departments of medical science, more particularly those



which relate to the structure of the human body, and was made physician to the cardinals Carlo Borromeo, and Giulio della Rovera; he was also appointed professor in the Institution della Sapienza at Rome. There is hardly any part of anatomical science which he did not enrich by profound researches or important discoveries. Some of the parts discovered by him have received their names from him: thus the canal that unites the internal ear with the back part of the mouth, is called the eustachian tube; so also the eustachian valve of the heart. Eustachi died at Rome in 1574.

**EUSTATHIUS**, a commentator on Homer and the geographer Dionysius, who was originally a monk, afterwards deacon, and finally, in 1155, became archbishop of Thessalonica. Though not very enlightened in his theological views, he was deeply read in the classics, and a man of extensive erudition, as appears from his commentaries compiled from the old scholiasts, of which that on Homer, in particular, is an inexhaustible mine of philological learning. Eustathius died in 1194.

**EUTROPIUS, FLAVIUS**, a Latin historian, who, as he himself informs us, bore arms under the emperor Julian. The place of his birth and his history are unknown to us; but he flourished about A. D. 360; and his "Abridgment of the History of Rome" reaches from the foundation of the city to the time of the emperor Valens, to whom it is dedicated. The style, though not finished, is perspicuous.

**EVANS, EVAN**, a Welch poet of some eminence, who was born in 1730, and received his education at Oxford. He paid great attention to Welch literature, and in 1764 published a work entitled "Dissertatio de Bardis, or Some Specimens of the Poetry of the Ancient Welch Bards." He was also the author of several other works of merit. He died in 1790.

**EVANS, JOHN**, a dissenting minister, who was born in 1680, at Wrexham in Denbighshire. He was graduated both at Edinburgh and Aberdeen, and attained considerable eminence as a preacher. His "Sermons on the Christian Temper" have been much admired by divines of all denominations. Dr. Evans was for many years lecturer at Salters' Hall, and died there in 1732.

**EVANS, THOMAS**, a London bookseller of much black-letter learning and research, who was born in 1742. Mr. Evans, soon after his apprenticeship had terminated, set up in business, and by his acquaintance with English literature, which he had assiduously cultivated, was enabled as far as his own fortune permitted him to embark alone in many republications which showed the correctness of his judgment and his regard for the literary character of his country. Among these we may enumerate editions of "Shakespeare's Poems," "Buckingham's Works," "Nicolson's Historical Library," "Four Volumes of Old Ballads, with Notes" (of this his son afterwards published an improved edition), "Cardinal de Retz's Memoirs," "Savage's Works," "Goldsmith's Works," "Prior's Works," "Rabelais's Works," "History of Wales," and "Peck's Desiderata Curiosa." To all these works Mr. Evans prefixed Dedications written with neatness and elegance, addressed to his literary patrons, Garrick, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Mr. Sheridan, &c. He died in the prime of life, in April 1784.

**EVANSON, EDWARD**.—This individual, who was a most determined opponent of revealed religion, was born in 1731. He was sent at an early age to Emanuel College, Cambridge, where he took the degrees of B. A. and M. A. previous to taking orders, after which event he officiated as curate to his uncle for some years. In 1768 he obtained the vicarage of South Mimms, and two years after the rectory of Tewkesbury, in conjunction with which he held the vicarage of Longton.

While Mr. Evanson held his livings he published in 1772, but without his name, a pamphlet, entitled "The Doctrines of a Trinity, and the Incarnation of God, Examined upon the Principles of Reason and Common Sense; with a Prefatory Address to the King, as first of the three legislative estates of the kingdom." In this attack on the articles and creed of the church, even his friends allow that in a few instances he descended to a language beneath the dignity of theological disquisition and controversy.

His next publication was "A Letter to Dr. Hurd, Bishop of Worcester, in which the importance of the Prophecies of the New Testament, and the Nature of the Grand Apostasy predicted in them, are particularly considered," 1777. The object of this pamphlet was to prove that either the Christian revelation is not true, or the religion of every orthodox church in Europe is fabulous and false; and as the church of England was in his opinion one of those false and fabulous orthodox churches, this pamphlet was followed by the author's resignation of his livings.

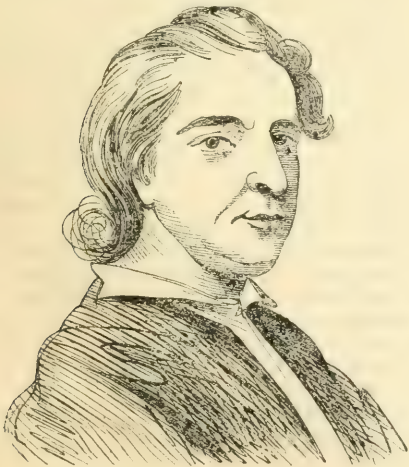
His next attempt was to prove that we have no authority from scripture to keep the Sabbath holy, which appeared in some papers in the "Theological Repository." His arguments on this subject were answered by Dr. Priestley and others, but without producing any effect on the mind of the author, who collected the whole controversy, and published it in 1792, with an additional letter to Dr. Priestley. Yet we are told that he had worship in his family on the Sunday, making use of Dr. Clarke's "Reformed Liturgy," but not so reformed as that he did not think it necessary to introduce some alterations of his own. He even did more. When he had visitors he administered the Lord's supper, which he considered as the sole Christian rite, and always to be administered when a number of the professors of the religion of Jesus met for social worship. He appears at this time to have taken a hint from the Theophilanthropists of France, and would have gladly assisted in forming a society of Christophilanthropists, "meeting, like the Christians of the second and third centuries, merely to hear the authentic scriptures read and rationally explained, and to commemorate the death of our Saviour according to the mode ordained by himself."

What Mr. Evanson meant by the authentic scriptures, he explained very freely in a volume published in 1792, which amply justifies our classing him among the most determined enemies of revealed religion. This work was entitled "The Dissonance of the Four generally received Evangelists, and the Evidence of their Authenticity Examined."

Mr. Evanson died of a paralytic attack in 1805, and strange as it may appear, though he refused to give credence to so many points in revealed religion, yet he professed to be a firm believer in the divine mission of Christ and the immortality of the soul.



**EVELYN, JOHN.**—This extraordinary individual most materially influenced the political events during the latter half of the seventeenth century, of which he was also the chronicler. His diary or "Kalendarium" begins in the year 1641, and in that we find some interesting notices of his ancestry and his own early life. Richard Evelyn, his father, of Wotton, in the county of Surrey, possessed an estate estimated at about 4000*l.* a year, "well wooded and full of timber." He was a man of singularly even mind, in whom his son could never call to mind the least passion or inadvertence; in his habits of life ascetic and sparing, and one that was never known to have been "surprised by excess." It is possible, though Evelyn himself intimates no such suspicion, that his ascetic habits were carried to excess and injured his health, for his hair, which was "inclining to light," and therefore the less likely early to have become gray, grew hoary by the time he was thirty years of age, and he died at middle age of dropsy, "an indisposition (says his son) the most unsuspected, being a person so exemplarily temperate," but which perhaps his manner of life may have induced. John, the second of three sons, was born at Wotton, October 31, 1620. At four years old he was taught to read by the parish schoolmaster, whose school was over the church porch, and at six his picture was "drawn in oil by one Chanterell, no ill painter." When he was eight years old, at which time he resided with his maternal grandmother, he began to learn Latin at Lewes, and was afterwards sent to the free-school at Southover, near that town. His father, who would willingly have weaned him from the fondness of his grandmother, intended to place him at Eton, but the boy had been so terrified by the report of the severe discipline there, that he was sent back to Lewes.



In 1637 Evelyn was placed as a fellow commoner at Baliol College, Oxford, and afterwards visited the continent. On his return to England the civil war had just broke out, and Evelyn went with his horse and arms to join the king at Brentford; but he was not permitted to remain there (this is the phrase he uses) because the retreat of the royal army which immediately took place would have left him and his brothers exposed to ruin without any advantage to

his majesty. He retired to his brother's house at Wotton, and began to improve the gardens. When the Covenant was pressed he absented himself, but finding it "impossible to evade the doing very unhandsome things," he obtained the king's licence to travel, and set out for a longer journey, accompanied by his old fellow collegian Thickness. Twice at the very outset had this journey wellnigh proved fatal. Mistaking the tide as they came before Calais, in weather which was "snowy and untoward enough," they struck on the sands with no little danger; and crossing an overflown stream on the way to Boulogne, in darkness, and in a storm of rain, hail, and snow, his horse slipped and had almost been the occasion of his perishing.

Evelyn married on the continent. About three months after his marriage he was called into England to settle his affairs, leaving his wife with her parents. This was in the autumn of 1647, and on his arrival he saw the king at Hampton Court, and gave him an account of several things which he had in charge. Charles was then in the hands of his enemies. Evelyn remained in England till the conclusion of that tragedy, and after unkingship, as he calls it, had been proclaimed, he obtained a passport from Bradshaw for France. Having occasion to visit England again in 1650, he made the same passport serve for his return, as he could no longer procure one without taking the oath to Cromwell's government, which he had determined never to do. Rather indeed than submit to it, he once counterfeited a pass, and luckily he found at Dover that "money to the searchers and officers was as authentic as the hand and seal of Bradshaw himself." Evelyn never mentioned the name of Bradshaw without coupling with it some opprobrious epithet; he abhorred his political conduct, and evidently did not like his personal character. But Bradshaw perhaps had some feeling of good-will towards him, as one to whose family he was obliged and whose worth he knew; and apprehending no danger from him, would not willingly molest him for his loyalty. Without some such protection he would hardly have escaped without molestation, connected as he was so directly with the royal party. He seems to have waited in France for the result of the last great effort of the royalists; for a few weeks after the battle of Worcester he resolved to leave that country finally and return to England. For this resolution there were both private and political motives. The estate of his father-in-law at Deptford was suffering much for want of some person to secure it from the usurpers, so that to preserve this property, and take some care of his other concerns, he was advised to reside on it and compound with the government. Charles authorized him to do so, and charged him also with the perilous commission of corresponding with him and his ministers, a commission peculiarly dangerous, because his close connexion with Sir Richard Browne exposed him so naturally to suspicion. Fortunately for him and for the nation, while Cromwell lived there was so little hope of overthrowing him, that no bold designs were undertaken; and after his death none were required to accelerate the destruction of a government which was manifestly falling to pieces of itself.

How Evelyn felt during what he calls "the catalysis and declension of piety" to which the nation was reduced, is well expressed in a letter to Jeremy

Taylor:—"For my part, I have learned from your excellent assistances, to humble myself, and to adore the inscrutable pathos of the most high: God and his Truth are still the same though the foundations of the world be shaken. Julianus Redivivus can shut the Schooles indeede & the Temples; but he cannot hinder our private intercourses and devotions, where the Breast is the Chappell and our Heart is the Altar. Obedience founded in the understanding will be the onely cure and retraite. God will accept what remains, & supply what is necessary. He is not obliged to externals, the purest ages passed under the cruelest persecutions: it is sometimes necessary, & this and the fulfilling of prophecy, are all instruments of greate advantage (even whilst they presse, and are incumbent) to those who can make a sanctified use of them. But as the thoughts of many hearts will be discovered, and multitudes scandaliz'd; so are there diuers well disposed persons who will not know how to guide themselves, unlesse some such good men as you discover the secret, and instruct them how they may secure their greatest interest, & steere their course in this darke and uncomfortable weather. Some such discourse would be highly seasonable now that the daily sacrifice is ceasing, and that all the exercise of your Functions is made criminal, that the light of Israel is quenched. Where shall we now receive the Viaticum with safety? How shall we be baptiz'd? For to this passe it is come Sr. The comfort is, the captivity had no Temple, no Altar, no King. But did they not observe the Passover, nor circumcise? had they no Priests & Prophets, amongst them? Many are weake in the Faith, and know not how to answer nor whither to fly: and if upon the Apotheosis of that excellent person under a malicious representation of his Martyrdome, engrauen in Copper, and sent me by a friend from *Bruxelles*, the Jesuite could so bitterly sarcasme upon the embleme—

*Proficis inventum caput, Anglia Ecclesia! Cæsum  
Sic caput est, saluum corpus an esse potest?*

How thinke you will they now insult, ravage, and breake in upon the Flock; for the Shepheards are smitten, and the Sheepe must of necessity be scattered, unlesse the greate Shepherd of Soules oppose, or some of his delegates reduce and direct us. Deare Sir, we are now preparing to take our last farewell (as they threaten) of God's service in this Citty, or any where else in publike. I must confesse it is a sad consideration; but it is what God sees best, & to what we must submit."

Mrs. Evelyn was a perfect model for a wife, and there were few women of her time who possessed the same amount of general knowledge. It is certain that she painted well, or Evelyn, who was himself a patron and judge of art, would not have presented to Charles II. a Madonna which she copied in miniature from P. Oliver's painting after Raphael. He says it was wrought with extraordinary pains and judgment: "the king was infinitely pleased with it, and caused it to be placed in his cabinet among his best paintings." Yet with these accomplishments and with her advantages of person, fortune, and situation in life, she was not above "the care of cakes, and stilling, and sweetmeats, and such useful things." "Women," she says in one of her letters, "were not born to read authors and censure the learned, to compare lives and judge of virtues, to

give rules of morality, and sacrifice to the Muses. We are willing to acknowledge all time borrowed from family duties is misspent. The care of children's education, observing a husband's commands, assisting the sick, relieving the poor, and being serviceable to our friends, are of sufficient weight to employ the most improved capacities among us." And again she says, "Though I have lived under the roof of the learned and in the neighbourhood of science, it has had no other effect on such a temper as mine but that of admiration, and that too but when it is reduced to practice. I confess I am infinitely delighted to meet with in books the achievements of the heroes, with the calmness of philosophers, and with the eloquence of orators; but what charms me irresistibly is to see perfect resignation in the minds of men let whatever happen adverse to them in their fortune: that is being knowing and truly wise; it confirms my belief of antiquity, and engages my persuasion of future perfection, without which it were vain to live."

One more glance at his family, and it is a melancholy one, though it shows how truly Christian were his feelings when he lost his favourite son. The passage forms part of a letter addressed to Sir Richard Browne:

"Sir,—By the reverse of this Medall, you will perceive how much reason I had to be afraid of my Felicity, and how greatly it did import me to do all that I could to prevent what I have apprehended, what I deserved, and what now I feele. God has taken from us that deare Childe, your Grandson, your Godson, and with him all the joy and satisfaction that could be derived from the greatest hopes. A losse, so much the more to be deplored, as our contentments were extraordinary, and the indications of his future perfections as faire and legible as, yet, I ever saw, or read of in one so very young: You have, Sir, heard so much of this, that I may say it with the lesse crime and suspicion. And indeede his whole life was from the beginning so greate a miracle, that it was hard to exceede in the description of it, and which I should here yet attempt, by sum'ing up all the prodigies of it, and what a child at five years old (for he was little more) is capable of, had I not given you so many minute and particular accounts of it, by several expresses, when I then mentioned those things with the greatest joy, which now I write with as much sorrow and amazement. But so it is, that it has pleased God to dispose of him, and that Blossom (Fruit, rather I may say) is fallen; a six days Quotidian having deprived us of him; an accident that has made so greate a breach in all my contentments, as I do never hope to see repaired: because we are not in this life to be fed with wonders: and that I know you will hardly be able to support the affliction and the losse, who beare so greate a part in every thing that concernes me. But thus we must be reduced when God sees good, and I submit; since I had, therefore, this blessing for a punishment, and that I might feele the effects of my great unworthiness. But I have begged of God that I might pay the fine heare, and if to such belonged the kingdom of heaven, I have one depositum there. *Dominus dedit, Dominus abstulit*: blessed be his name: since without that consideration it were impossible to support it: for the stroke is so severe, that I find nothing in all Philosophy capable to allay the impression of it beyond that of cutting the



channel and dividing with our friends, who really sigh on our behalfe, and mingle with our greater sorrows in accents of piety and compassion, which is all that can yet any ways alleviate the sadness of Deare Sir. Yours. &c."

"*Says-Court*, 14 Feb. 1657-8."

In 1660 we find Evelyn actively engaged in the service of Charles, and he thus describes the state of political affairs just prior to the return of that ungrateful and licentious monarch:—

"We had now no government in the nation: all in confusion: no magistrates either owned or pretended but the soldiers, and they not agreed. God Almighty have mercy on and settle us! A private fast was kept by the Church of England Protestants in town, to beg of God the removal of his judgments, with devout prayers for his mercy to our calamitous church." The observance of this fast is afterwards frequently recorded. Hitherto Mr. Evelyn had taken no apparent concern in political events: perhaps he was the more desirous of attracting attention towards his improvements, that the secret correspondence which he carried on with his father-in-law might be the less suspected, and in this he seems to have succeeded, for his garden and plantations were so much talked of that Laurence, the president of Oliver's council, and some other of his court lords, went to see them. The books which he published served also in the same manner to avert suspicion: they were a translation of the first book of Lucretius, St. Chrysostom's "Golden Book for the Education of Children" (which he dedicated to both his brothers, "to comfort them on the loss of their children, touching at the same time on his own severest loss), and the French "Gardener and English Vineyard," "the first and best of that kind," he says, "that introduced the use of the olitory garden to any purpose." But now, when all men began to look to a restoration of the royal family as the only means for putting an end to their miserable state of anarchy, Evelyn came forward, and in November 1659 published an apology for the royal party, and for the king, "in that time of danger, when it was capital to speak or write in favour of him. It was twice printed, so universally it took." He soon engaged in a far more serious transaction. Colonel Morley was the governor of the Tower. They had been schoolfellows, and, divided as they were by political opinions, knew and esteemed each other. Evelyn, as we have seen, had received personal civilities from him when his wife came from France, and had sold an estate to him since that time:—he now proposed to him to deliver up the Tower to Charles: Monk was in Scotland, and the game was in Morley's hands:—he was a better man than Monk, but wanted that courage which has been said to have been Monk's only virtue; he hesitated till it was too late, and then he who might have deserved and claimed a dukedom for his reward, was reduced to sue for pardon through Evelyn's means. "Oh," says Evelyn, "the sottish omission of this gentleman! What did I not undergo of danger in this negociation to have brought him over to his majesty's interest when it was entirely in his hands!"

Evelyn's diary thus marks his feelings on the return of the king:—

"29 May, 1660. This day his Maj<sup>y</sup> Charles the Second came to London after a sad and long exile and calamitous suffering both of the King and

Church, being 17 years. This was also his birthday, and with a triumph of 20,000 horse and foot, brandishing their swords and shouting with inexpressible joy: the wayes strew'd with flowers, the bells ringing, the sweetes hung with tapistry, fountains running with wine; the Maior, Aldermen, and all the Companies in their liveries, chains of gold, and banners; Lords and Nobles clad in cloth of silver, gold, and velvet: the windowes and balconies all set with ladies: trumpets, music, myriads of people flocking, even so far as from Rochester, so as they were seven houres in passing the City, even from 2 in y<sup>e</sup> afternoone till 9 at night. I stood in the Strand and beheld it, and bless'd God. All this was don without one drop of blood shed, and by that very army which rebell'd against him; but it was y<sup>e</sup> Lord's doing, for such a Restauration was never mention'd in any history ancient or modern, since the returne of the Jews from the Babylonish captivity: nor so joyfull a day and so bright ever seene in this Nation, this happening when to expect or effect it was past all human policy."

Evelyn was received at court with that affability by which Charles was so happily gifted that it was more difficult for him to lose the affections of his subjects than it has been for other princes to gain them. The king called him his old acquaintance, and nominated him one of the council of the Royal Society, of which he had been just elected a fellow. He would have given him the Order of the Bath, but Evelyn declined it, and he promised to make his wife lady of the jewels to the future queen. "a very honourable charge," it is observed in the Diary, "but which he never performed." It was not long before he was chosen one of the commissioners for reforming the buildings, ways, streets, and incumbrances, and regulating the hackney coaches in the city of London. And in 1664, when war was declared against the Dutch, he was appointed one of the commissioners for taking care of the sick and wounded, and the prisoners. There were four commissioners with a salary of 1200*l*. a year among them, besides extraordinaries for their care and attention when upon duty: they had power to constitute officers, physicians, surgeons, and provost-marshal, and to dispose of half of the hospitals through England. Mr. Evelyn's district comprised the counties of Kent and Sussex. The duty which fell upon him proved to be as perilous as it was painful. The Dutch, then at the height of their power, carried on the war with that spirit which became a great and brave people who were unjustly attacked, and the prisoners and wounded men were brought in faster than the commissioners could provide for them:—miserable objects, says Evelyn, God knows! money and means of every kind were wanting, "when a moderate expense would have saved thousands." "My wife," he says in a letter to Lord Cornbery, "is within a fortnight of bringing me my seventh son, and it is time, my lord, he were born, for they keep us so short of monies at court that his majesty's commissioners had need of one to do wonders, and heal the sick and wounded by miracle, till we can maintain our chirurgions." In the midst of this distress the plague broke out, and soon raged with such violence that four and five thousand persons died weekly in London, where Evelyn had just obtained the Savoy for the sick and wounded. As the contagion was spreading around Deptford, he sent



away his wife and family to Wotton, and staid himself to look after his charge, "trusting in the providence and goodness of God." It was some time before this courageous woman, as he calls her, would be persuaded to take the alarm. "My conscience," he says, "or something which I would have taken for my duty, obliges me to this sad station, till his majesty take pity on me, and send me a considerable refreshment for the comfort of these poor creatures, the sick and wounded seamen under mine inspection through all the ports of my district." His letters strongly express his feelings at this dreadful time, and show also how much more he felt for others than for himself. "One fortnight," he says, "has made me feel the utmost of miseries that can befall a person in my station and with my affections—to have 25,000 prisoners and 1500 sick and wounded men to take care of, without one penny of money, and above 2000*l.* indebted." And in another letter, "It were to betray his majesty's gracious intentions, and even his honour, to extenuate here. Sir William D'Oily and myself have near 10,000 upon our care, while there seems to be no care of us, who having lost all our servants, officers, and most necessary assistants, have nothing more left us to expose but our persons, which are every moment at the mercy of a raging pestilence (by our daily conversation) and an unreasonable multitude, if such they may be called, who, having adventured their lives for the public, perish for their reward, and die like dogs in the street unregarded." "Our prisoners beg at us as a mercy to knock them on the head, for we have no bread to relieve the dying creatures.—I beseech your honour, let us not be reputed barbarians, or if at last we must be so, let me not be the executor of so much inhumanity when the price of one good subject's life is rightly considered of more value than the wealth of the Indies." The mortality had now increased and nearly 10,000 died weekly, yet his duty frequently obliged him to go through the whole city, "a dismal passage," he says, "and dangerous to see so many coffins exposed in the streets, the streets thin of people, the shops shut up, and all in mournful silence, as not knowing whose turn might be next."

When the pestilence was abated and he went to wait upon the king, Charles in a most gracious manner gave him his hand to kiss, with many thanks for his care and faithfulness in a time of such great danger, when every body fled their employments. "He told me," says Evelyn, "he was much obliged to me, and said he was several times concerned for me and the peril I underwent, and did receive my service most acceptably, though in truth I did but my duty." He now exerted himself to have an infirmary founded for the sick and wounded, having seen the great inconvenience of distributing them in private houses, "where many more surgeons and attendants were necessary, and the people tempted to debauchery."

The year 1665 was remarkable for the bold attack which the Dutch made upon our fleet at Chatham; had they pursued their fortune they might have advanced to London "with ease, and have fired all the vessels in the river." Evelyn sent away his best goods and plate from Sayes Court to a safer place. The alarm, he says, was so great that "it put both country and city into a panic fear and consternation, such as I hope I shall never see more; every body

was flying, none knew why or whither." And when he describes "how triumphantly their whole fleet lay within the very mouth of the Thames, all from the North Foreland, Margate, even to the buoy off the Nore!" he exclaims, "a dishonour never to be wiped off! Those who advised his majesty to prepare no fleet this spring deserved—I know what—but—" The Thames being thus blockaded, London was exceedingly distressed for want of fuel, and Evelyn was sent to search about the environs whether any peat or turf could be found fit for use. The report was that there might be found a great deal. Experiments were also made of the "*houilles*," which he had mentioned in one of his publications as being made at Maestricht with a mixture of charcoal dust and loam, and fires of this composition were made by order of council at Gresham College, which was then used as an Exchange, "for every body to see." But Evelyn was mistaken respecting the *houille*, which is a species of pit coal, so highly impregnated with bitumen and with sulphur, that it cannot be used for domestic purposes unless it be tempered with clay; no charcoal is used in the composition.

Evelyn, who felt the injustice of our quarrel with the Dutch, and was deeply sensible of the dishonour which we endured in the contest, beheld also with bitter sorrow the vices of the court and the growing profligacy of the age. Gambling he abhorred as a wicked folly, and grieved that such "a wretched custom should be countenanced in a court which ought to be an example of virtue to the rest of the kingdom." The butcherly sports of the Bear Garden he regarded with humane and Christian indignation, and when a fine spirited horse was exposed as a public exhibition to be baited to death, under the false pretence that it had killed a man, he regretted that the wretches who contrived this abominable means of getting money could not be punished as they deserved. He went very seldom to the theatre. The old plays, such as "Hamlet, Prince of Denmark," began to disgust this refined age, since his majesty's being so long abroad; and it afflicted him "to see how the stage was degenerated and polluted by the licentious times." The theatres, he says, were "abused to an atheistical liberty, and foul and indecent women now (and never till now) permitted to appear and act, who, inflaming several young noblemen and gallants, became their misses, and to some their wives: witness the earl of Oxford, Sir R. Howard, P. Rupert, the earl of Dorset, and another greater person than any of them, who fell into their snares, to the reproach of their noble families, and ruin of both body and soul." But in the midst of these contagious immoralities, Evelyn's life was a beautiful example of all public and private virtues. While he enjoyed the intimacy and esteem of those who were highest in power, the only advantage which he solicited for himself and his family was the fair settlement of his father-in-law's accounts with the king; and those persons who derived benefit from his counsels when they were in authority, found him in their adversity a constant and affectionate friend. Thus he was the frequent visitor of Clarendon, when that admirable man was abandoned by the swarm of summer followers. Clifford too in his disgrace felt the sincerity of Evelyn's friendship, and wrung him by the hand, when (as it afterwards appeared) he had resolved upon suicide, with an earnestness that showed there was something in the world from



which he could not part without a painful effort, and a feeling that unmanned him. So also, when Arlington's fortunes were on the wane, Evelyn dwells in his journal with delight upon the better parts of his character. Sandwich imparted his griefs to Evelyn when he embarked with a determination of seeking death in battle, and thereby compelling those to do justice to his character who had aspersed it; and it was into Evelyn's ear that Ossory breathed the last overflows of a wounded spirit and a broken heart.

Charles II. treated him always with affability and kindness, knowing and respecting his worth and his unsullied virtue. Evelyn was much affected by his death. Writing on the day when James was proclaimed, he says, "I can never forget the inexpressible luxury and profaneness, gaming and all dissoluteness, and as it were total forgetfulness of God (it being Sunday evening), which this day se'nnight I was witness of: the king sitting and toying with his concubines, Portsmouth, Cleaveland, and Mazarine, &c.; a French boy singing love-songs in that glorious gallery; whilst about twenty of the great courtiers and other dissolute persons were at basset round a large table, a bank of at least 2000*l.* in gold before them, upon which two gentlemen who were with me made reflections with astonishment. Six days after all was in the dust!" He looked upon the defeat of Monmouth's enterprise as a signal deliverance, believing that if it had not been early checked it would have proceeded to the ruin of the church and government. "Such an inundation of fanatics," he says, "and men of impious principles, must needs have caused universal disorder, cruelty, injustice, rapine, sacrilege, and confusion, an unavoidable civil war, and misery without end." But, when the times became more trying, Evelyn decidedly opposed those measures which, had they been successful, would have certainly destroyed the civil and religious liberties of Great Britain. When Lord Clarendon was sent to Ireland, he was nominated one of the commissioners for executing the office of privy seal during his lieutenancy there. He "was not displeased" when the creation of Mrs. Sedley, countess of Dorchester, passed the privy seal at a time when he was absent; and, when the appointment of the secretary to the ambassador at Rome was sealed, he observes that through Providence he was not present. But when a docket was to be sealed, importing a lease of twenty-one years to the king's printer for printing missals and other books, which by act of parliament were expressly forbidden to be printed or sold, Evelyn seeing that the law was clear in this case refused to put the seal to it; and on a similar occasion he persisted in his refusal, when Archbishop Sancroft, whom he consulted, gave him no other encouragement than that of advising him to follow his own conscience, and the lord treasurer told him that, if in conscience he could dispense with it, there was no other hazard. And when James, beginning to perceive his danger, released the bishops, Evelyn, who had good information of the plans of the court, gave Sancroft good intelligence and bold advice; he pointed out the crafty designs of the Jesuits by which the unfortunate king was directed, observed that, in all the declarations which had been published in pretended favour of the church of England as by law established, room was carefully left for a double construction of the words, as if the church of

Rome were the only lawful one, advised him therefore that in all extraordinary offices the words "Reformed and Protestant" should be added to that of the "Church of England by law established;" "and whosoever," said he, "threatens to invade or come against us to the prejudice of that church, in God's name, be they Dutch or Irish, let us heartily pray and fight against them."

Yet Mr. Evelyn rather submitted to the consequences of the revolution than acquiesced in them: the necessity of resisting the plans of James he fully acknowledged; but he seems to have thought that the rights of the son should have been respected, even if it were justifiable that the father should be set aside. He had a personal regard for James, and had augured much happiness to the nation, as to its political government, "from his infinite industry, sedulity, gravity, and great understanding and experience of affairs," nothing as he thought being wanting to accomplish our prosperity but that he should be of the national religion. Evelyn's character would have been less amiable if he could at once have cast off all attachment to a family which he had served in evil and in prosperous fortunes. He noticed the unbecoming levity with which Queen Mary took possession of her apartments at Whitehall; and at first he did not render justice to the abilities of William, whom he thought of a "slothful sickly temper," a man as inferior in all outward graces to the two last kings as he was superior to them in sterling wisdom and solid worth. Evelyn feared the republican spirit which was at work, manifestly, as he thought, "undermining all future succession of the crown and prosperity of the church of England;" and he saw that the general imposition of an oath, which might properly be required from all who came into office under the new government, would occasion great injustice and evil. That oath was "thought to have been driven on by the presbyterians." "God in mercy send us help," says Evelyn, "and direct his counsels to his glory and the good of his church!" The non-jurors were for many years the butt of contempt and obloquy, but notwithstanding their political error history will do justice to the consistent integrity of their conduct. After the revolution, as before it, they bravely persisted in what they believed to be their duty, regardless of the consequences to themselves.

In the year 1694 Evelyn left Sayes Court, after having resided there more than forty years, to pass the remainder of his days at Wotton, where he was born, in his brother's house; his brother, having also lost his sons, had settled the family-estate upon him. The fate of Sayes Court, which he had beautified according to his own taste with so much cost and care, is worthy of notice. First it was let to no less remarkable a personage than Admiral Benbow, then only a captain; and Evelyn had, he says, the mortification of seeing every day much of his former labours and expense there impairing for want of a more polite tenant. The next inhabitant was a much greater personage and a worse tenant, it was the Czar Peter; while in his occupation the house is described, by a servant of Mr. Evelyn, as full of people and right filthy. It was hired for him and furnished by the king; but the damage which he and his retinue did to the house itself and the gardens, during a residence of only three weeks, was estimated by the king's surveyor and his gardener at 150*l.* The



gardens indeed were ruined. It is said that one of Peter's favourite recreations was to demolish the hedges by riding through them in a wheelbarrow. When he had resided about five years at Wotton his brother died, in the eighty-third year of his age, of perfect memory and understanding. Mr. Evelyn had a grandson, the only male of his family now remaining, a fine hopeful youth, and he was seized with the small-pox at Oxford. The alarm which this intelligence occasioned may well be conceived, fatal as the disease had proved to their blood; but happily the youth recovered, and Evelyn's few remaining years were not embittered by any fresh affliction. His diary thus records his feelings at this period.

"1702. 31st Oct. Arrived now to the eighty-second year of my age. Having read over all that passed since this day twelvemonth in these notes, I render solemn thanks to the Lord, imploring the pardon of my past sins and the assistance of his grace, making new resolutions, and imploring that he will continue his assistance and prepare me for my blessed Saviour's coming, that I may obtain a comfortable departure, after so long a term as has been hitherto indulged me. I find by many infirmities this year (especially nephritic pains) that I much decline, and yet of his infinite mercy retain my intellects and senses in great measure above most of my age. I have this year repaired much of the mansion-house and severall tenants' houses, and paid some of my debts and engagements. My wife, children, and family in health, for all which I most sincerely beseech Almighty God to accept of these my acknowledgments, and that, if it be his holy will to continue me yet longer, it may be to the praise of his infinite grace and salvation of my soul. Amen."

On his next birth-day he acknowledges the great mercies of God in preserving him, and in some measure making his infirmities tolerable. Soon after, when service was performed in his own house on a Sunday because the cold and wet weather had prevented him from attending church in the morning, the minister preached upon the uncertainty of life "with pertinent inferences to prepare us for death and a future state. I gave him thanks," says Mr. Evelyn, "and told him I took it kindly as my funeral sermon." He lived, however, to see two birth-days more, and died in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

It was by the publication of the "*Sylva*" that Evelyn was chiefly known till the publication of his "*Kalendarium*;" his other writings had past away, but the "*Sylva*" remained a beautiful and enduring memorial of his amusements, his occupations, and his studies, his private happiness and his public virtues. It was the first book printed by order of the Royal Society, and was composed upon occasion of certain queries sent to that society by the commissioners of the navy. The government had been seriously alarmed by the want of timber, which it was certain must soon be felt, owing in part to the wasteful consumption of glass-houses and furnaces (at that time greatly multiplied), and burning wood instead of coal, and, in part, to the "prodigious havoc made by such as lately, professing themselves against root and branch either to be reimbursed their *holy* purchases or for some other sordid respect, were tempted not only to fell and cut down, but utterly to extirpate, demolish, and raze as it were all those many goodly woods and forests which our more prudent ancestors left standing for the service of

their country." To no person so well as Evelyn could the office have been assigned of remedying this evil and averting the fatal consequence which must inevitably have ensued to our naval power, and thereby to the strength, the welfare, the independence, and the life of England. He effected this great object by awakening the land-holders to a sense of their own and their country's interests: he produced a volume upon the subject. Charles II., who loved the navy, and, like his brother, would have made a better admiral than a king, twice thanked him personally for the work; he had the yet more gratifying reward of living to know that many millions of timber-trees had been propagated and planted at the instigation and by the sole direction of that book—one of the few books in the world which completely effected what it was designed to do.

The "*Sylva*" has no beauties of style to recommend it, and none of those felicities of expression by which the writer stamps upon your memory his meaning in all its force. Without such charms "*A Discourse of Forest Trees and the Propagation of Timber in his Majesty's Dominions*" might appear to promise dry entertainment; but he who opens the volume is led on insensibly from page to page, and catches something of the delight which made the author enter with his whole heart and all his faculties into the subject. Mr. Shandy might have instanced the author in his chapter of names; Avelan, he tells us, was written in old deeds, and Avelan (*Avellana*) was then the name of the hazel. Dendrology was to him an object of unwearied curiosity and interest. He was continually adding to his store of facts and observations in this his favourite pursuit; and, thinking with Erasmus that *ut homines, ita libros, indies seipsius meliores fieri oportet*, he laboured till the end of his long life in perfecting his great work. He speaks of his "too great affection and application to it," when he was in the eighty-fourth year of his age. But by this constant care he made it perfect, according to the knowledge of that age. It is a great repository of all that was then known concerning the forest-trees of Great Britain, their growth and culture, and their uses and qualities real or imaginary; and he has enlivened it with all the pertinent facts and anecdotes which occurred to him in his reading. We subjoin the autograph of this extraordinary man.

*Evelyn.*

EXMOUTH, THE RIGHT HONOURABLE VISCOUNT.—This distinguished naval commander was the son of George Pellew, Esq., of Falmouth. He was born April 19th, 1757, and commenced his naval career at thirteen years of age. At the opening of the war with the American colonies he became midshipman of the *Blonde* frigate with Captain Pownall, and was detached, in February 1776, to serve under Admiral Schank (then a lieutenant), to take part in the struggle for naval supremacy on Lake Champlain. During this arduous service they cut down trees from the neighbouring forests, and in a few weeks converted them into vessels of war, with which they succeeded in driving the force under General Arnold from the lake; and, in giving this effectual support to the British army, Mr. Pellew



gained great credit from his admiral, who promoted him to the rank of lieutenant.

With this rank, which could not be confirmed till he returned to England, he continued to co-operate with the army under General Burgoyne, and shared in all the toils and dangers of the disastrous campaign of 1777. After serving some time in the *Licorne*, Captain Pellew, he was appointed first lieutenant of the *Apollo* frigate, under his old commander, Captain Pownoll, who in the spring of 1780, while closely engaged with an enemy's ship of equal force, fell mortally wounded, and shortly expired in the arms of his attached friend and follower. His last words were, "Pellew, don't give his majesty's ship away." Nor were they uttered in vain; for, immediately assuming the command, he continued the action with such determined resolution that his opponent fled from the contest, and, having gained the neutral anchorage of Ostend, thus disappointed him of his prize. This gallant service was promptly rewarded by his being appointed to command the *Hazard* sloop-of-war, in which he was very actively employed till March 1782, when he removed to the *Pelican*, in which, on the 31st of May 1782, he attained the rank of post-captain.

The cessation of hostilities having restored him and others of his gallant comrades to the more peaceful occupations of home, he remained on shore until 1786, when he proceeded, in command of the *Winchelsea* frigate, to Newfoundland, and remained on that station till 1789. In the following year he was appointed to the *Salisbury*, bearing the flag of Admiral Milbanke, and was at length paid off in December, 1791.

At the commencement of the war of the French revolution, Captain Pellew was among the first officers who were called into active service, being appointed, on the 14th January 1793, to command *La Nymphé* frigate of thirty-six guns. Being by descent a Cornishman, his popularity in the neighbourhood of Falmouth, where he resided, enabled him to man his ship principally with miners, and put to sea with his usual activity; but he had no opportunity of proving their spirit until the summer of that year, when, having prevailed on his brother to accompany him as a volunteer, he sailed from Falmouth on the evening of the 17th June, and before that day closed, when off the Start, they descried a large vessel, to which they gave chase, and followed her through the night. At daybreak next morning she appeared again, standing towards them, and on her approach proved to be the French frigate *La Cléopâtre*, of equal force. All was silent until the ships came within hail. Captain Pellew then ordered his crew to man the shrouds and give three cheers, with "Long live King George the Third!" The French captain ordered his rigging in the same manner to be manned, and, coming forward on the gangway, waved his hat, exclaiming "Vive la Nation!" which his crew accompanied with three cheers. Captain Pellew's putting on his hat was the signal for *La Nymphé* to begin the action. One more desperate was never fought; they were engaged throughout yard-arm and yard-arm. The sails and rigging were so much intermixed during the engagement that the crew of *La Nymphé* actually went from their own yards to those of *La Cléopâtre*, and drove the men from their quarters. At length a shot from the British frigate carried away the enemy's

mizen-mast, and another her wheel; so that she became ungovernable, and fell on board her opponent. The gallant French captain was cheering on his crew to board *La Nymphé* when he was shot dead before them, by which they were so disheartened that his second vainly endeavoured to rally them, and Captain Pellew, seizing the advantage, ordered his men to board *La Cléopâtre*, which was carried after a short struggle. He proceeded with his prize directly to Portsmouth, and was received with acclamations on entering the harbour, this being the first important capture made since the declaration of hostilities. As such it was distinguished by peculiar reward: Captain Pellew, on being presented to the king on the 29th June, 1793, received the honour of knighthood; and he had the further satisfaction of seeing his brother advanced to the rank of post-captain for his voluntary services in the action. Sir Edward was now removed to the command of the *Arethusa*, of forty-four guns, attached to the squadron under the command of Sir John B. Warren. In this ship he was present at a number of encounters, both with batteries on shore and with the enemy's vessels at sea.

At the commencement of 1795 Sir Edward was again serving under Sir J. B. Warren, whose squadron, on the 18th February, fell in with, off the Isle of Oleron, a French frigate and twenty sail of vessels under her convoy, which were pursued half way up the Pertuis d'Antioche in sight of the Isle of Aix. The tide of flood then setting strong up and the wind being right in, the British ships were obliged to haul off, notwithstanding which they captured a national schooner of eight brass guns and seven merchantmen, and destroyed eleven others. These vessels were chiefly laden with provisions and clothing for the French fleet and army. The frigate, under whose escort they were, was *La Néréide*, of thirty-six guns. In the ensuing month Sir Edward again commanded a squadron, and took and destroyed fifteen out of a fleet of twenty-five sail of coasters; the remainder he obliged to seek refuge among the rocks near the Penmarks.

But, justly as his conduct in command was entitled to distinction, nothing gained him more deserved honour than that union of prompt resolution with constitutional philanthropy which personally endeared him to his followers. Twice already, when captain of the *Winchelsea* frigate, this heroic spirit had been signally displayed by his leaping from the deck, and thus saving two of his drowning sailors. A more conspicuous example of this noble feeling was shown at the commencement of the year 1796. On the 26th of January of that year the Dutton East Indiaman was driven by stress of weather into Plymouth. The gale continuing with increased fury it was deemed advisable, for greater safety, to make for Catwater; but the buoy placed as a mark upon the reef off Mount Batten having been sunk or broken adrift by the late storms, of which the Plymouth pilots were not aware, the ship touched on the tail of the shoal, and lost her rudder. Thus disabled and ungovernable, she fell off and grounded under the citadel, near the Barbican, the sea continually breaking over her, which occasioned her to roll so prodigiously, that at one jerk all her masts went by the board and fell towards the shore, the ship heeling off with her side to seaward. As many as were active and able got safe on shore with the



captain and officers, but there still remained a considerable number of seamen, soldiers, and their wives, on board. Captain Pellew observing that the gale rather increased than abated, and knowing that a single rope from the ship to the shore was all the communication they could have with it, and that the flood tide would make a complete wreck of the vessel, earnestly entreated some of the numerous spectators to accompany him by means of this rope on board, that he might rescue the crew from the fate that impended over them. The shore was crowded with people of all descriptions, among whom were pilots and other seafaring men, to whom Captain Pellew offered any money if a single individual would follow his directions. The scene was tremendous; the gale every moment increased, and one and all were appalled; when at length Mr. Edsell, the port-admiral's signal midshipman, came forward and nobly volunteered his services. Captain Pellew and he were accordingly fastened to the rope, and hauled on board. As they had not dared to make it completely fast on shore lest the rolling and jerking of the ship should break it, it may easily be conceived that by the rising and falling of the rope these brave adventurers were at times high above and at others under the water. Being at length got on board, they sent a hawser to the shore, to which travellers and hauling lines were affixed; and by this means the whole of the crew were saved.

The following is the hero's own modest account of this act of benevolence, extracted from a private letter written by him many years afterwards when he was commander-in-chief in the North Seas:—

"Why do you ask me to relate the wreck of the *Dutton*? Susan (Lady Exmouth) and I were driving to a dinner party at Plymouth, when we saw crowds running to the Hoe; and, learning it was a wreck, I left the carriage to take her on, and joined the crowd. I saw the loss of the whole five or six hundred was inevitable without somebody to direct them, for the last officer was pulled on shore as I reached the surf. I urged their return, which was refused, upon which I made the rope fast to myself, and was hauled through the surf on board, established order, and did not leave her until every soul was saved but the boatswain, who would not go before me. I got safe, and so did he; and the ship went all to pieces. But I was laid in bed for a week by getting under the mainmast (which had fallen towards the shore); and my back was cured by Lord Spencer's having conveyed to me by letter his majesty's intention to dub me baronet. No more have I to say, except that I felt more pleasure in giving to a mother's arms a dear little infant only three weeks old than I ever felt in my life; and both were saved. The struggle she had to entrust me with the bantling was a scene I cannot describe, nor need you; and, consequently, you will never let this be visible."

In the same year, whilst the squadron under the command of Sir Edward Pellew was lying to under the *Lizard* waiting till a prize had got safe into Falmouth, a large ship was observed standing in for the land, which, when the private signal was made, tacked and stood off. Sir Edward Pellew, certain of its being an enemy's frigate, immediately gave chase, in company with the *Amazon* and *Concorde*. About midnight, after a chase of fifteen hours, and having run 168 miles, the *Indefatigable*, by her superior sailing, got alongside of the enemy,

and brought her to close action, which continued without intermission, under a crowd of sail, for one hour and forty-five minutes. At this time the enemy's ship, whose commander defended her with great bravery, had her mizen-mast and main top-mast shot away. In this situation the *Indefatigable* unavoidably shot ahead. Her mizen top-mast and gaff being gone, and the main topsail rendered useless, with her running rigging cut to pieces, she had no sail to back until new braces could be rove; neither did Sir Edward Pellew think it prudent to throw his ship in the wind lest he should be exposed to a raking fire; he therefore remained at a proper distance ahead of the enemy until he might be enabled to renew the attack. Just at this moment the *Concorde* ranged up under the enemy's stern, and Captain Hunt was preparing to attack her, when she fired a gun to leeward and surrendered. She proved to be the French national frigate *La Virginie*, of forty-four guns, eighteen pounders on the main deck and nines on the quarter deck and fore-castle, manned with 340 men, and commanded by M. Bergeret, Capitaine de Vaisseau, from Brest, bound on a cruise off the *Lizard*. When taken possession of her hull was a complete sieve, and four feet water in her hold. It is remarkable that in this action the *Indefatigable* had not a man hurt. *La Virginie*, on the contrary, had fifteen killed and twenty-seven wounded, ten of them badly.

The year 1797 afforded fresh proofs of the vigour and enterprise of Sir Edward Pellew. On the 13th January, while cruising to the S. W. of Ushant in company with the *Amazon* frigate commanded by Captain Reynolds, he perceived a large ship in the N. W. quarter, steering under an easy sail towards the coast of France. At this time the wind blew hard at west, with thick hazy weather. Chase was instantly given. At four P.M. the *Indefatigable* had gained sufficiently upon the strange ship for Sir Edward to distinguish very clearly that she had two tier of guns, with her lower-deck ports shut, and that she had no poop. At a quarter before six he brought the enemy to close action, which continued to be well supported on both sides near an hour, when the *Indefatigable* unavoidably shot ahead. At this moment the *Amazon* appeared astern, and gallantly supplied her place; but the eagerness of Captain Reynolds to second his friend had brought him up under a press of sail, and, after a well-supported and close fire for a little time, he also unavoidably ran ahead. The enemy made an ineffectual attempt to board the *Indefatigable*, and kept up a constant and heavy fire of musketry till the end of the action, frequently engaging both sides of the ship at the same time.

As soon as Sir Edward Pellew had replaced some of the disabled rigging and brought his ship under a proper sail, and the *Amazon* had reduced hers, they commenced a second attack, placing themselves, after some raking broadsides, upon each quarter, often within pistol shot. This attack lasted without intermission for five hours, when the *Indefatigable* was obliged to sheer off, to secure her masts. The enemy also lost her mizen-mast, and, having expended nearly all her shot, latterly returned the fire of her opponents with shells, still making a formidable resistance, though steadily pursuing her course to Brest.

About twenty minutes past four in the morning,



the moon, shining rather more brightly than before, showed to Lieutenant Bell, who was watchfully looking out on the fore-castle, a glimpse of the land, which he had scarcely reported to Sir Edward Pellew before the breakers were seen. At this time the *Indefatigable* was close under the enemy's star-board bow, and the *Amazon* as near her on the lar-board. Not an instant could be lost; every life depended upon the prompt execution of orders: nothing could equal the activity of her brave crew, who, with incredible alacrity, hauled the tacks on board and made sail to the southward. Before daylight they again saw breakers upon the lee bow, and wore to the northward. Not knowing exactly on what part of the coast they were embayed, the lingering approach of daylight was most anxiously looked for; and, soon after it opened, the land was seen very close ahead. The ship was again wore in twenty fathoms water, and stood to the southward. A few minutes after the *Indefatigable* discovered and passed within a mile of the enemy who had so bravely defended himself; the ship was lying on her broadside, and a tremendous surf beating over her. The miserable fate of her brave crew was perhaps the more sincerely lamented by those of the *Indefatigable* from the apprehension of their suffering a similar misfortune, having at that time four feet water in the hold, a rough sea, and the wind dead on the shore. Sir Edward Pellew was now able to ascertain his situation to be that of *Hodierne Bay*, and that their fate depended upon the possible chance of weathering the *Penmark Rocks*, which, by very skilful seamanship and by the uncommon exertions of her fatigued and exhausted crew in making all the sail they could set, was happily accomplished at eleven o'clock, passing about a mile to windward of them. The *Amazon* was not so fortunate; when the *Indefatigable* had hauled her wind to the southward, she had hauled hers to the northward: Captain Reynolds, notwithstanding every effort, found his masts, yards, rigging, and sails so miserably cut and shattered, with three feet water in his hold, that it was impossible to work off the shore. In this condition, a little after five in the morning, the *Amazon* struck the ground. The crew (excepting six, who stole away the cutter, and were drowned) saved themselves by constructing rafts, and upon their landing they were, of course, made prisoners.

In this gallant action, which commenced at a quarter before six P.M. and lasted (excepting at short intervals) until half past four A.M., the sea was so high that the people in both ships were up to their middles in water on the main deck. Some of the guns on board the *Indefatigable* broke their breechings four times over; others drew the ring-bolts from the sides; and many, from getting wet, were repeatedly drawn immediately after loading. The loss sustained was only nineteen wounded on board the *Indefatigable*, among the number, Mr. Thompson, the first lieutenant. The *Amazon* had three men killed, and fifteen badly wounded. The enemy's ship proved to be *Les Droits des Hommes*, of eighty guns, commanded by Baron Le Cross. She was on her retreat from the disastrous expedition to *Bantry Bay*, and had on board 1750 men, including soldiers, 1350 of whom perished.

To mark the high approval of the admiral's general conduct which was entertained by his so-

vereign, he was, on the 14th of May 1814, raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Exmouth of Canonteign, with the usual pension of 2000*l.* per annum. Upon his return to England his lordship was further honoured with the ribbon of the Bath, and a year after he received the grand cross of the same order.

On the escape of Napoleon from Elba a squadron was hastily despatched to the Mediterranean under the command of Lord Exmouth, who proceeded thither in his majesty's ship *Boyne*, of 98 guns, and placing himself immediately in communication with the Bourbon interests in the south of France, and with the Austrian general in Italy, effectually prevented any hostile movement of the French fleet at Toulon, and mainly contributed to the restoration of the legitimate sovereign of Naples. The decisive battle of Waterloo at length extinguished every hope of Napoleon, and peace was once more restored to Europe.

In the month of March, 1816, the British government directed Lord Exmouth to proceed to the several states of Barbary, and insist upon the liberation of all Christian slaves who were subjects of our allies. The negotiation was managed with much address; and, when conciliation failed, he placed his ships with such judgment, to enforce compliance, as to obtain an unreserved engagement to comply with the terms of his proposition. This being accomplished, the admiral set sail for England, but had scarcely been welcomed to his own home when tidings were received that the Barbary powers had violated all their engagements almost as soon as the British squadron had quitted the Mediterranean, and that the whole object of his negotiation must now be carried by force of arms. For this purpose another expedition was equipped without delay. Lord Exmouth hoisted his flag on board the *Queen Charlotte*, and on the 26th of July proceeded to Gibraltar, where he was joined by the Dutch admiral Capellen with six frigates, and thence sailed direct for Algiers.

In consequence of the continuance of adverse winds and calms, the land to the westward of Algiers was not made before the 26th of August. The next morning at day-break the British fleet, and the Dutch frigates by which it was accompanied, were advanced in sight of the city, though not so near as was intended. As the ships were becalmed, Lord Exmouth despatched a boat, under cover of the Severn, with a flag of truce and the demands he had to make, in the name of the prince regent, on the dey of Algiers. After a delay of three hours, during which the sea-breeze had enabled the fleet to reach the bay, the boat was seen returning with a signal flying, that no answer had been received. The commander-in-chief instantly made the signal to know if the ships were all ready, which being answered in the affirmative the *Queen Charlotte* bore up, followed by the fleet, for their appointed stations. The flag ship, leading in the prescribed order, was anchored at the entrance of the Mole, at about fifty yards distance, and the other ships took their stations with admirable precision.

The battle commenced at a quarter before three P.M., by a shot fired from the shore at the *Queen Charlotte* (who was then lashing to the main-mast of a brig fast to the shore in the mouth of the Mole), and two of the ships to the northward then

following, which were promptly returned, and a fire as animated and well supported as was ever witnessed kept up until nine o'clock without intermission, and which did not cease altogether until half past eleven, when many of the barbarians' ships being in flames, and certain of the destruction of the whole, Lord Exmouth considered he had executed the most important part of his instructions, and made preparations for withdrawing the ships. After much warping and towing, by the help of a light air of wind, the whole came to an anchor out of reach of shells, about two in the morning, after twelve hours' incessant labour.

The flotilla of mortar, gun, and rocket-boats, shared to the full extent of their power in the honours of this day, and performed good service; it was by their fire all the ships in the port (with the exception of the outer frigate) were in flames, which extended rapidly over the whole arsenal, &c., exhibiting a spectacle of awful grandeur and interest that no pen can describe. The sloops of war, which had been appropriated to aid and assist the ships of the line and prepare for their retreat, performed not only that duty well, but embraced every opportunity of firing through the intervals, and were constantly in motion. The shells from the bombs were admirably well thrown by the royal marine artillery, and, although crossing over the large ships, not an accident occurred. The Dutch admiral Van Capellen, with his frigates, covered the British ships from the enemy's flanking batteries, on which he kept up a good fire.

The result of this dreadful conflict was the abolition of Christian slavery, the liberation of all slaves in the territory of Algiers, reparation to the British consul for all losses sustained by him in consequence of his confinement, a public apology made by the dey to the same gentleman, the recovery of 382,500 dollars for Naples and Sardinia, the destruction of four large frigates of forty-four guns each, five large corvettes from twenty-four to thirty guns each, thirty gun and mortar-boats, several merchant brigs and schooners, a number of small vessels of various descriptions, all the pontoons, lighters, &c., and a great many gun-carriages, mortar-beds, casks, and ships' stores of all descriptions, besides the storehouses and arsenal, with all the timber and various marine articles, destroyed in part, and between 6000 and 7000 Algerines killed and wounded. The total loss in the combined squadrons amounted to 141 killed, and 742 wounded, which, according to the number of men employed, exceeded the proportion in any of our former victories.

This highly important service secured to his lordship the distinguished approbation of his sovereign, by whom he was advanced to the dignity of viscount, on the 21st September, 1816. The several powers whose subjects had been thus set free by this brilliant achievement acknowledged the obligation by sending him their several insignia of knighthood; and he received the still more flattering testimonial of the thanks of both Houses of Parliament.

Lord Exmouth was appointed vice-admiral of England, February 15th, 1832. His lordship had been for a considerable time suffering under severe illness, in the first stage of which he became quite delirious, and was wholly engrossed with the idea that he was then actually engaged in fighting the

Dutch fleet. A few days before his death he appeared to feel himself better, and, in noticing the improvement, said, "I have lately been going to leeward, but now I think I am working to windward again." This was however but a fallacious hope, as he expired at Teignmouth, on the 23rd of January, 1833.

FABBRONI, GIOVANNI, an eminent Italian philosopher, who distinguished himself by his attention to political economy, agriculture, and physical science. He was secretary to the *Accademia dei Georgofili*, director of the Museum and Cabinet of Natural History at Florence, one of the forty members of the *Società Italiana della Scienze*, Tuscan deputy for the new system of weights and measures, member of the deputation of finance under the government of the queen regent of Etruria, one of the deputies to the *corps législatif* in France, director of bridges and highways (under the imperial government) for the department beyond the Alps, director of the mint at Florence, royal commissary of the iron works and mines, and one of the commissioners of taxes for the states of Tuscany. In all these posts he displayed activity, zeal, intelligence, and integrity. His writings, which attracted much notice at the time of their publication, are remarkable not only for the striking facts, the sound maxims, and the extensive views in which they abound, but also for the impressive manner in which the opinions of the author are enforced. The best known of his works are his "*Provvedimenti Annonarj*," his *Discourses on National Prosperity*, on the *Equilibrium of Commerce* and the *Establishment of Custom-houses*, on the *Effects of the Free Traffic in Raw Material*, on *Rewards for the Encouragement of Trade*, on the *Chemical Action of Metals*, on the *Value and Reciprocal Proportion of Coins*, on the *Scales and Steel-yards of the Chinese*, on the *Palaces of Spain*, and on the *Ancient Hebrew People*. He died at Florence in 1823, and left behind him many learned memoirs and a number of very valuable manuscripts.

FABIUS MAXIMUS, QUINTUS, surnamed *Cunctator*, or the delayer, was one of the greatest generals of ancient Rome, and saved his country when it was threatened with ruin after the defeat at *Thrasymene*, and *Hannibal*, with his victorious army, was advancing upon Rome. At this critical moment Fabius took the command of the Roman legions as dictator; and finding his own army dispirited, while that of *Hannibal* was numerous and formidable, he formed the plan of weakening and fatiguing the enemy by marches and delays, instead of risking the fortunes of the state upon the event of a single battle. *Hannibal*, who well knew the character of his formidable opponent, sent him this message, in order to draw him into battle: "If Fabius is as great a general as he would make us believe, let him descend to the plain, and accept the challenge which I offer him." But Fabius coolly replied, "If *Hannibal* is as great a general as he thinks himself, let him compel me to accept his offer." Dissatisfied with his cautious movements, which they ascribed to a false motive, the Romans summoned him back to the city under pretence of requiring his presence at a solemn sacrifice, and in the interim gave a joint command, with equal power, to *Minucius Felix*, who was as rash as Fabius was prudent. He had already fallen into an ambuscade, and



was on the point of being routed by the Carthaginian general, when Fabius arrived just in season to save him. Minucius, penetrated with gratitude, gave up his share of the command and resolved to learn of Fabius how to fight and conquer. At the end of the campaign Fabius laid down his office; and the new consul, Terentius, risked a battle at Cannæ, in which the Roman army was almost totally destroyed. Fabius, after the battle, negotiated with Hannibal for the ransom of the prisoners; and, when the senate refused to fulfil the agreement, he sold his own estates in order to keep good his word. He died at a very advanced age, 202 B. C.

FABRE D'ÉGLANTINE, PHILIPPE FRANÇOIS NAZAIRE, a celebrated revolutionist, who was born at Carcassonne in 1755. In his youth he was much addicted to excess, and became, successively, a soldier and an actor. As early as his sixteenth year, he wrote a poem entitled "L'Étude de la Nature" for the prize offered by the French Academy, 1771. Having afterwards gained the prize of the Églantine at the Floreal games in Toulouse, he assumed the name of that flower as a surname, and afterwards wrote several theatrical pieces, of which, however, only two, "L'Intrigue Epistolaire" and the "Philinte de Molière," were successful. The latter is still considered one of the best character-pieces of the modern French stage. He engaged with ardour in the revolution, acting with Danton, Lacroix, and Camille Desmoulins, wrote several revolutionary pamphlets, and was active on the 10th of August. Having been chosen deputy from Paris to the national convention, he at first supported moderate principles, but afterwards voted for the death of Louis XVI. without appeal, and was chosen a member of the committee of public safety. He attacked Brissot and the Girondists, and made a report on the introduction of the republican calendar, on which occasion he betrayed a great ignorance of astronomy. He afterwards became suspected by the Jacobins, was accused of being a royalist, and condemned to death in April 1794.

FABRETTI, RAPHAEL, one of the most learned antiquarians of modern times. He was born in 1618 at Urbino in the papal dominions, and devoted himself to the study of law in the school at Cagli, where he received a doctor's degree in the eighteenth year of his age. He then went to Rome, where his elder brother, Stephen, a respectable lawyer, was residing. On this classic ground, covered with the remains of antiquity, he conceived a fondness for the study of antiquity, in which he gained much fame by his profound researches, his penetration, and ingenuity. He found powerful patrons in his professional career, being sent to Spain by the cardinal Lorenzo Imperiali with an important public commission, after the successful termination of which he was made papal treasurer by Alexander VII., and soon after auditor of the papal legation at the court of Madrid. The leisure which these posts secured to him for more than thirteen years was employed in archaeological studies; and he was afterwards enabled to examine the antiquities of Rome on the spot by the return of the nuncio, Carlo Bonelli, who, being appointed cardinal, took Fabretti back with him to Rome. On the journey through France and Upper Italy he examined all the monuments of antiquity that fell in his way, and formed an acquaintance with the most celebrated antiquarians—

Menage, Mabillon, Hardouin, and Montfaucon. On his arrival in Rome he was promoted to the office of counsellor of appeals, in the Capitoline court of justice—an office which afforded him sufficient leisure to prosecute his favourite studies with indefatigable industry.

The confidence of Cardinal Cesi, however, soon called him to a different occupation. He was obliged to accompany the cardinal, who was appointed legate of Urbino, in the capacity of legal counsellor, and in this situation had an opportunity of serving his native city in various ways. He returned after three years to Rome, where he resided till his death, and found a powerful patron in the vicar of Innocent XI., Cardinal Gasparo Carpegna. From that time he devoted himself wholly to antiquarian researches. His first works on this subject received the approbation of all the archaeologists except Gronovius, with whom he had a dispute of some bitterness about the meaning of certain passages in Livy. With equal erudition Fabretti afterwards examined the bass-reliefs now in the Capitoline Museum, illustrative of the siege of Troy, and known by the name of "Iliac table," as also the subterranean canals made by Claudius for draining off the waters of Lake Fucinus. In these, as in the numerous inscriptions discovered and collected by him, he showed the depth of his archaeological knowledge. Carpegna gave him the superintendence of subterranean Rome, as it is called, or the catacombs. The treasures which Fabretti here discovered, and with which he adorned his house at Urbino and his country seat, form the subject of his last work. He met with equal favour from Alexander VIII., who made him *secretario de' memoriali*, and finally canon in the church of St. Peter. Alexander's successor, Innocent XII., appointed him superintendent of the secret archives in the castle of St. Angelo, which office he held till his death, which took place in 1700. Several treatises of Fabretti did not appear till after his death. It is related that Fabretti's horse, on which he made his excursions in the neighbourhood of Rome, became so accustomed to stop at every monument that he often did it spontaneously when his master, absorbed in thought, had overlooked some half-defaced inscription by the way-side, and thus discovered many monuments.

FABRICIUS, CAIUS, surnamed Luscinius, an ancient Roman, who was distinguished for his fearlessness, integrity, moderation, and contempt of riches. After having conquered the Samnites and Lucanians, and enriched his country with the spoils of which he alone took nothing, he was sent on an embassy to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, to obtain the ransom of some Roman prisoners. Pyrrhus wished to bribe Fabricius, with whose poverty he was acquainted, by large presents. But the honest Roman refused them. As little was he moved by the sight of an elephant, which Pyrrhus, to try his firmness, had concealed behind a curtain, and suddenly exhibited to him in a threatening posture. Pyrrhus dismissed him with admiration, and permitted the prisoners to go to Rome to celebrate the approaching Saturnalia, on a promise that they would return after the festival, which they faithfully kept. The king was so charmed with the conduct of Fabricius that he offered him the highest post in his kingdom if he would attach himself to him after the conclu-

sion of peace; but he independently refused the offer. When consul Fabricius sent word to Pyrrhus that his physician offered to poison him for a certain sum of money. "Sooner," said Pyrrhus, "can you turn the sun from its course than Fabricius from the path of honour." In gratitude for the service he released the Roman prisoners without ransom. In the year 279 B. C. the battle at Asculum was fought, in which Pyrrhus was victorious, but lost the best part of his army. A man like Fabricius could not die rich. He was so poor at his death that his daughter received a marriage portion from the public treasury. To honour him even in death, the law of the twelve tables, which prohibited all burials in the city, was suspended in his case.

FABRICIUS, JOHN ALBERT, a celebrated German scholar, who was well versed in almost every department of human knowledge, possessed an incredible extent of learning, particularly in philology, and understood the art of using these stores of erudition to the greatest advantage. He was born at Leipsic, in 1668, where he studied philosophy, medicine, and theology, and was afterwards made professor of rhetoric and moral philosophy in the gymnasium at Hamburg. In 1719 the langrave of Hesse-Darmstadt offered him the first professorship of theology at Giessen, and the superintendency of the Lutheran parishes in his domains; but the authorities of Hamburg retained him in that city by enlarging his income, and he continued to reside there till his death, which took place in 1736. His work on Greek literature is a model of profound, various, and comprehensive erudition. This is his "*Bibliotheca Græca*," improved by Harles. No less useful are his "*Bibliotheca Latina*," "*Bibliotheca Media et Infimæ Ætatis*," "*Bibliotheca Ecclesiastica*," and "*Bibliotheca Antiquaria*." Besides these, his edition of Sextus Empiricus, and his remarks on Dion Cassius, evince the depth and extent of his learning.

FABRICIUS, JOHN CHRISTIAN, one of the most celebrated entomologists of the eighteenth century, who was born at Tundern in the duchy of Sleswiç in 1742. After he had finished his academic course at Copenhagen he pursued his studies at Leyden, Edinburgh, and Freyburg, in Saxony, and under Linnæus at Upsal, indeed few scholars of that great man profited more by his instructions. His works upon entomology show evidently the principles, the method, and even the forms of expression peculiar to Linnæus, applied to the development of a new, happy, and fruitful train of ideas. Nor did he attempt to conceal how much he owed his master; and he has left to posterity perhaps the most important part of the existing materials for a complete biography of the great student of nature. From his intercourse with him he derived his first notions of his system of arranging insects according to the organs of the mouth; and he endeavoured to persuade Linnæus to make use of it in the new edition of his "*Systema Nature*," which he however declined doing. Fabricius obtained soon after the situation of professor of natural history in the university of Kiel, and from this time devoted himself entirely to his favourite study.

In 1775 appeared his "*System of Entomology*," which gave to this science an entirely new form, and two years afterwards he developed, in a second work, the characters of the classes and orders, and demonstrated in the prolegomena the advantages of his

method. From that time till his death, during a period of thirty years, he was constantly occupied in extending his system and in publishing it under various forms in works of different titles. He travelled almost every year through some part of Europe, examined the museums, made acquaintance with the learned, and described with indefatigable industry the new species of insects which he was so fortunate as to discover. But, as the number of species increased beneath his ever-active pen, the distinctions of the divisions and classes became more obscure and arbitrary; and in this respect his later writings are inferior to the first. The foundation he had assumed was excellent; it could not however lead him, as he supposed, to a system of nature, but only to a natural method. He died in March 1808.

FABRONI, ANGELO, a celebrated Italian biographer, who was born at Marradi in Tuscany in 1732. He was educated at Rome, in the college of Bandinelli, where he studied logic, physics, metaphysics, and geometry, and wrote the life of Clement XII. Being supported and encouraged in his studies, he conceived the idea of writing the lives of the Italian literati of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and devoted himself with the most active zeal to the execution of this work, the first volume of which appeared in 1766. As he had many obstacles to encounter, of which one of the principal was the hostility of the Jesuits, he repaired to Florence, where he received the office of a prior from the grand-duke Leopold, and divided his time between clerical and literary employments. In 1769 he made a journey to Rome, was well received by Pope Clement XIV., and was appointed one of the prelates of the pontifical chamber. He returned however to Florence, and published "*Letters of the Learned Men of the Seventeenth Century*, from the Archives of the Medici." In 1773 he was chosen tutor of the grand-duke's children, and he then found time to renew his biographical labours. In his latter years he employed himself in theological writings, and died in 1803.

FABYAN, ROBERT, an English historian, who flourished in the fifteenth century. His "*Chronicles*" contain much that is doubtful, but there have been five distinct editions, of which the last is by far the best. It is edited by Sir Henry Ellis.

FACCIOLATO, JAMES, an Italian philologist, who was born at Torreglia, near Padua, in 1682. The talent exhibited by him when a boy caused the cardinal Barbarigo to place him in the seminary at Padua, where he became, in a few years, doctor in theology, professor of this science as well as of philosophy, and finally prefect of the seminary and director-general of studies. He devoted the greatest attention to reviving the study of ancient literature; and, for the promotion of this object, he undertook a new edition of a dictionary, in seven languages, which was called the "*Calepin*," from the name of its author, the monk Ambrosius Calepinus. His pupil, Forcellini, assisted him in the undertaking, and the work was completed in two volumes folio. He now, in company with his industrious disciple, conceived the idea of a Latin lexicon, in which every word, with all its significations, should be contained and illustrated by examples from the classical writers. This immense undertaking occupied them both for nearly forty years. Facciolato directed the work, which was almost entirely executed by Forcellini.



With the same assistant and some others, he superintended a new edition of the lexicon of Schrevelius, and the "Lexicon Ciceronianum" of Nizoli. He left also many Latin discourses, which are characterized by their Ciceronian elegance of style, but differ from their model by a precise brevity. He died in 1769. The lexicon of Facciolo and Forcellini continues to be the standard lexicon of the Latin language, all the other Latin dictionaries of value having been formed chiefly from it.

**FAHRENHEIT, GABRIEL DANIEL.**—This learned individual was born at Dantzic about the end of the seventeenth century, and is well known for his arrangement of the thermometer and barometer. He was originally designed for the commercial profession, but his inclination for natural philosophy induced him to quit that business; and having travelled through Germany and England, to enlarge his knowledge, he settled in Holland, where the most celebrated men in this peculiar branch of science were his teachers and friends. In 1720, he first conceived the idea of using quicksilver instead of spirits of wine in thermometers, a discovery by which the accuracy of the instrument was very much improved. He took, as the limit of the greatest cold, that which he had observed at Dantzic in the winter of 1709, and which he could always produce by mixing equal quantities of snow and sal-ammoniac. The space between the point to which the quicksilver fell at this temperature, and that to which it rose in boiling water, he divided into 212 parts; and this distinguishes his thermometrical scale from Réaumur's. Fahrenheit also employed himself, during his residence in Holland, in the construction of a machine for draining the parts of the country exposed to inundations, for which he received a patent, but was prevented from completing it by death. The changes which S'Gravesande, whom he had requested to finish the machine for the benefit of his heirs, made in it, rendered it so useless on the first trial that no attempt was afterwards made to complete it. Fahrenheit died in Holland in 1740.

**FAIRFAX, EDWARD,** a distinguished poet of the seventeenth century, who is regarded as one of the great improvers of English versification. He engaged in no profession, but settling at Newhall, in the parish of Fuyistone, in Knaresborough forest, led the life of a retired country gentleman, devoted to literary pursuits. He died in 1632.

**FAIRFAX, THOMAS,** a distinguished military commander, who was born in 1611, at Denton, in Yorkshire, being son and heir of Ferdinand Lord Fairfax, to whose title and estates he succeeded in 1647. A strong predilection for a military life induced him to quit Cambridge, and at an early age to volunteer with the lord Vere, under whom he served a campaign in the Netherlands with some reputation, and whose daughter he afterwards married. When the disputes between Charles I. and the parliament terminated in open rupture, Fairfax warmly espoused the cause of the latter, and joined his father in making active preparations for the approaching contest. In the earlier part of his career, he suffered various checks from the royalist forces, especially one in 1643, at Adderton Moor. At the battle of Marston Moor he redeemed his credit; and, the earl of Essex resigning the command of the parliamentary army, Fairfax was made general-in-chief in his room. After the victory at Naseby, to the gaining of which

his courage and conduct mainly contributed, he marched into the western counties, quelling all opposition as he advanced. When the king fell into the power of the prevailing party, considerable jealousy appears to have been entertained by Oliver Cromwell and his adherents of Fairfax, who seems



to have been far from wishing to push matters to the extremity to which they afterwards went; and it is said that, in order to prevent his interference with the execution of Charles, Harrison, at Cromwell's instigation, detained him under pretext of religious worship at a distance from Whitehall until the blow was struck. Nevertheless he still adhered to the party with which he had hitherto acted, and continued in employment, though more than suspected of disaffection, till, being ordered to march against the revolted Scotch Presbyterians, he positively declined the command, and retired for a while from public life. At the restoration he crossed over to Holland for the purpose of congratulating Charles II. on his accession, and was formally reconciled to that monarch. He died in 1671.

**FALCONER, WILLIAM,** an eminent physician, many years resident at Bath. He possessed a remarkable memory, and had read most extensively on every subject connected with his pursuits. He published "An Essay on the Influence of the Passions," for which he received the first Fothergillan medal, in the year 1784, bestowed by the Medical Society of London, and "Observations on the Gout," in answer to Dr. Cadogan. He was remarkable for his early discovery of the properties of fixed air. His "Remarks on the Influence of Climate, &c., on the Dispositions, Manners, Intellects, Laws, Customs, &c. of Mankind," is a very important work, while it displays an almost unlimited extent of learning and research. His "Miscellaneous Tracts," containing a Roman and Grecian calendar, &c., is a very curious work, and was published by the university of Cambridge, who presented the copies to him. Dr. Falconer died of apoplexy in 1824, having just attained his eighty-first year.

**FALCONER, WILLIAM,** a celebrated Scottish poet, who is best known for his "Shipwreck." He was born in 1730, and commenced his naval career

as an apprentice on board of a merchant ship. Having dedicated a book to the duke of York, his royal highness advised him to quit the merchant service for the royal navy, and, before the summer had elapsed, Falconer was rated a midshipman on board Sir Edward Hawke's ship, the *Royal George*, which at the peace of 1763 was paid off; but previously to that event Falconer published an "Ode on the Duke of York's Second Departure from England as Rear-admiral." His highness had embarked on board the *Centurion* with Commodore Harrison for the Mediterranean, and Falconer composed this ode "during an occasional absence from his messmates, when he retired into a small space formed between the cable tiers and the ship's side." It is a rambling incoherent composition, in which we discover little of the author of the "Shipwreck."

As Falconer wanted much of that complementary time of service, which might enable him to arrive at the commission of lieutenant, his friends advised him to exchange the military for the civil department of the royal navy; and accordingly, in the course of 1763, he was appointed purser of the *Glory* frigate, of thirty-two guns. Soon after he married a young lady of the name of Hicks, the daughter of the surgeon of Sheerness yard. With this lady, who had considerable taste, he appears to have lived happily, although his circumstances were reduced for want of employment. He employed himself for some time in various literary occupations. Among others, he compiled a "Universal Marine Dictionary," a work of great utility, and highly approved by professional men in the navy. In 1764 he published a new edition of the "Shipwreck," corrected and enlarged, with a preface which indicates no great facility in that species of composition. In the following year appeared "The Demagogue," a political satire on Lord Chatham, Wilkes, and Churchill, and intended as an antidote to the writings of the latter. The "Marine Dictionary" was published in 1769, before which period he appears to have left his naval retreat at Chatham for an abode in the metropolis of a less comfortable kind. Here, depressed by poverty, but occasionally soothed by friendship and by the affectionate attentions of his wife, he subsisted for some time on various resources. In 1768 he was appointed purser of the *Aurora* frigate, which was ordered to carry out to India Messrs. Vansittart, Scrofton, and Forde, as supervisors of the affairs of the Company. He was also promised the office of private secretary to those gentlemen, a situation from which his friends conceived the hopes that he might eventually obtain lasting advantages. The *Aurora* sailed from England on the 30th of September, 1769, and after touching at the Cape was lost during the remainder of the passage in a manner which left no trace by which the cause of the calamity could be discovered.

FALLOPIUS, GABRIEL, a celebrated Italian anatomist, who was born at Modena, towards the close of the fifteenth century. He studied at Ferrara and at Padua, at which last place he is said to have attended the lectures of Vesalius. He became professor at Ferrara, whence in 1548 he removed to Pisa. He continued there three years, and was then made professor of surgery, anatomy, and the *materia medica*, at Padua, where he remained till his death, which took place in 1563. The principal work of Fallopius is his "Observationes Anatomicæ," which,

as well as his other writings, has been several times reprinted. He was the first anatomist who accurately described the vessels and bones of the fetus, and his account of the Fallopian tubes in females has perpetuated his name.

FANSHAWE, SIR RICHARD.—This celebrated early English poet and statesman was born at Ware Park, Hertfordshire, at the beginning of the seventeenth century. At thirty years of age we find him actively engaged in diplomatic employments. At the breaking out of the civil war he declared early for the crown, and was employed in several important matters of state. In 1644, attending the court at Oxford, he was appointed secretary at war to the prince of Wales, whom he attended into the western parts of England, and thence into the islands of Scilly and Jersey. In 1648 he was appointed treasurer to the navy under Prince Rupert, which office he held till 1650, when he was created a baronet, and sent to Madrid to represent the necessitous situation of his master, and to beg a temporary assistance from Philip IV. He was then sent for to Scotland, and served there in the capacity of secretary of state to the great satisfaction of all parties, although he took neither covenant nor engagement. About this time he was recommended by the king to the York party, who received him with great kindness and entrusted him with the broad seal and signet. In 1651 he was taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester, and committed to close custody in London; but, having contracted a dangerous sickness, he had liberty allowed him upon giving bail to go for the recovery of his health to any place he should choose, provided he stirred not five miles thence without leave from the parliament.

In February 1659 (under pretence of travelling abroad with the eldest son of Philip earl of Pembroke), Sir Richard obtained his bail to be returned, and repaired to King Charles II. at Breda, who knighted him in April following, and appointed him master of requests and secretary of the Latin tongue. In the beginning of 1664 he was sent ambassador to Philip IV., king of Spain, and arrived February the 29th at Cadiz, where he was saluted in a manner unexampled to others, and received with several circumstances of particular esteem. It appears from one of Sir Richard's letters that this extraordinary respect was paid him not only upon his own, but also upon his master the king of England's account. He says, "I had not been three hours on shore (at Cadiz) when an extraordinary messenger arrived from Madrid with more particular orders than formerly from his Catholic majesty, importing that our master's fleet, when arrived, and his ambassador, should be saluted from the city in a manner unexampled to others, and which should not be drawn into example hereafter. Moreover (and this so likewise), that my expenses and all my company must be totally defrayed, both here and all the way up to Madrid upon his Catholic majesty's account, with several other circumstances of particular esteem for our royal master, above all the world beside." From a passage in another letter of his it is evident that the hope the Spaniards entertained of having Tangier and Jamaica restored to them by England was "that which made his arrival impatiently longed for and so magnificently celebrated." During his residence at this court however, after all that apparent good will, he experienced such frequent mortifications "as ministers



used to meet with in courts irresolute and perplexed in their own affairs, and had made a journey to Lisbon upon the desire of Spain, and returned without effect."

Sir Richard Fanshawe had nearly concluded a new treaty with the Spanish court when he died suddenly at Madrid in 1664. Besides several original pieces he published translations of the "Lusiad," and the "Pastor Fido," of which the latter is by far the most celebrated of his works. In his style he nearly resembles Fletcher, whom he frequently imitates; but there is a quaint beauty in his delineations of humble life which well warrants a specimen as illustrative of his period.

"Happy that shepherdess whom some coarse stuff  
Obscurely clothes, yet clean, and just enough!  
Rich only in herself, and bravely drest  
With Nature's ornaments, which are the best;  
Who in sweet poverty no want doth know,  
Nor the distractions which from riches grow,  
Yet, whatsoever may suffice the mind  
In that estate, abundantly doth find.  
Poor, but content, she heeds not blazing stars  
That threaten mighty ones. Wars, or no wars,  
It is all one to her. Her battlement  
And shield is that she's poor—poor, but content!  
One only care ('tis a sweet care) doth keep  
Her heart awake. She feeds her master's sheep  
With pearled grass, and with her lovely eyes  
Some honest swain, that for her beauty dies—  
Not such as men or gods chose to her hand,  
But such as love did to her choice commend—  
And in some favour'd shady myrtle grove,  
Desires and is desired, nor feels of love  
One spark which unto him she doth not show,  
Nor shows one spark with which he doth not glow."

We may add a sonnet worthy of the brightest days of English poetry. It is addressed to a rose.

"Blown in the morning, thou shalt fade ere noon;  
What boots a life that in such haste forsakes thee?  
Thou'rt wondrous frolic, being to die so soon,  
And passing proud a little colour makes thee!  
If thee thy brittle beauty so deceives,  
Know then the thing that swells thee is thy bane;  
For the same beauty doth, in bloody leaves,  
The sentence of thy early death contain:  
Some clown's coarse lungs will poison thy sweet flower,  
If by the careless plough thou shalt be torn;  
And many Herods life in wait each hour,  
To murder thee as soon as thou art born.  
Nay, force thy bud to blow, their tyrant breath  
Anticipating life to hasten death."

FANTUCCI, COUNT, an Italian author of considerable celebrity, who was born in 1745, of one of the most respectable families. The memory of the former splendour of Ravenna, his native place, and the sight of its decay, excited his attention to the causes of such a change, and he addressed a memorial on the subject to Pope Clement XIV., which was afterwards printed. Ravenna owes to him also the completion of a navigable canal; and he invented, in 1780, a hydraulic machine, from which the country people about Ravenna have derived the greatest benefit. An epidemic, which prevailed in the neighbourhood of Ravenna, afforded an opportunity for the display of his sagacity and his benevolence to the fullest extent; for, after he had done every thing in his power to mitigate the sufferings of his fellow-citizens, he demonstrated, in an excellent work, the necessity of draining the marshes which surround Ravenna. After his death appeared at Venice in 1804 some interesting memoirs which he had left for publication.

FAREY, JOHN, a very intelligent surveyor and engineer. He was born at Woburn in Bedfordshire in 1766, and received a common school education there. He gave early indications of a studious disposition, and at the age of sixteen he was sent to

school at Halifax in Yorkshire. The master being a studious man, and a good mathematician, was so pleased with his scholar that he gave him gratuitous instruction in mathematics and philosophy. Mr. Farey also studied drawing and surveying, and was recommended to the notice of the celebrated Mr. Smeaton.

Mr. Farey had the good fortune to become known to the late duke of Bedford, and to acquire the confidence of that nobleman. In 1792 his grace appointed Mr. Farey to the agency of his Bedfordshire estates. In consequence of which he went to reside at Woburn, and continued there till the lamented death of his patron in 1802. In the conduct of the duke's affairs Mr. Farey had a wide field for the exercise of his talents; and he prosecuted the ideas of his noble employer with so much assiduity that he succeeded fully in establishing a very improved system of agriculture, of which the duke had sketched the outlines with great judgment from a mature consideration of all the observations he had made during his tour through Europe as well as in Britain.

In 1809 and 1810 Mr. Farey made a survey of Derbyshire for the board of agriculture, and his report contains a statement of the principles which he followed in mineral surveying. He availed himself of every opportunity of augmenting his stock of knowledge on the nature and order of the strata throughout Britain, and collected innumerable specimens to establish their identity in different places. A great part of his time was spent in collecting his observations, and in forming maps and sections from them to determine the order and position of the strata in every place which he had visited. He intended to publish the results, but their completion was prevented by an attack of apoplexy, which terminated his useful life at his house in Howland Street. He married early in life, and had a numerous family. One of his sons is well known in the scientific world for his skill as an engineer.

FARIA Y SOUSA, MANUEL, a Castilian historian and lyric poet, who was born in 1590 at Suto in Portugal, of an ancient and illustrious family. In his ninth year he was sent to the university at Braga, where he made great progress in the languages and in philosophy, and in his fourteenth year he entered the service of the bishop of Oporto, and under his direction made further improvement in the sciences. A passion for a beautiful young lady first awakened his poetical genius. He celebrated her under the name of Albania in his sonnets, married her in 1613, and went to Madrid, but not succeeding there he returned to Portugal. He also visited Rome, and gained the notice of Urban VIII. and the learned men at his court by his extensive knowledge. He returned again to Madrid, and devoted himself entirely to literature, with such ardour as to hasten his end. He died at the age of fifty-nine. His style is pure and strong, and his descriptions full of vigour.

FARINELLI, one of the greatest singers of the last century, who was born at Naples in 1705. His true name was Carlo Broschi, and he received his first instruction in music from his father, and afterwards studied under Porpora, whom he accompanied on several journeys. At the age of seventeen years he went to Rome, and displayed his clear and full-toned voice in a contest with a celebrated performer on the trumpet, whom he overcame by his strength

and perseverance. From thence he went to Bologna to hear Bernacchi, then the first singer in Italy, and to enjoy the advantage of his instructions. In 1728 he went to Vienna, where the emperor, Charles VI., loaded him with rich presents, and that monarch, after hearing him sing, said to him that he excited astonishment indeed by the compass and beauty of his tones, but that it was not less in his power to affect and charm, if he would study nature. Farinelli took this hint, and delighted his hearers as much as he had before astonished them. In 1734 he came to London, and by the magic of his singing so delighted the public that, according to Laborde, Handel, who was at the head of another company, was obliged to dismiss it in spite of all his powers. Senesino and Farinelli were both in England at the same time, but as they sung on the same nights at different theatres, they had no opportunity of hearing each other. Accident once brought them together. Senesino performed the part of a ferocious tyrant, Farinelli that of a hero languishing in chains. Farinelli's first air melted the hard heart of the cruel tyrant, and it is said that Senesino, forgetting his character, ran up to his prisoner and affectionately embraced him.

In 1737 Farinelli went to Paris, where he sung before the king, who rewarded him richly; and after a short residence in France he went to Madrid, where for ten years he sung every evening before Philip V. and his queen, Elizabeth. This prince having sunk into a profound melancholy, and neglected public affairs, the queen had recourse to the power of music to restore him. She contrived that there should be a concert in the room adjoining the apartment of the king, and Farinelli sang one of his most beautiful airs. The king was at first surprised, then deeply moved; and at the conclusion of the second air the king sent for the performer, loaded him with caresses, asked him how he could reward him, and assured him that he would refuse him nothing. Farinelli begged the king to suffer himself to be shaved, and to appear in the council. From this moment the disease of the king yielded to medicine, and Farinelli had all the honour of his cure. This was the foundation of his unlimited favour. He became first minister, and was created knight of the order of Calatrava, but he never forgot that he was a singer, and he never used his influence over the king except to do good. After enjoying the highest honours in Spain for more than twenty years, he was obliged to return to Italy. He built a country house in the neighbourhood of Bologna, with the inscription, "Amphion Thebas, ego domum," and collected an extensive musical library. He died in 1782, having enjoyed, in a happy old age, the love of his fellow-citizens, and received every mark of respect from foreign connoisseurs.

FARMER, RICHARD, a celebrated scholar and critic, who was born at Leicester in 1735. His father was a hosier in that town, and, after receiving the rudiments of education there, he became a student of Emanuel College, Cambridge, where in 1760 he was appointed classical tutor. He applied himself particularly to old English literature, and early in 1766 he published a well-written and well-received "Essay on the Learning of Shakspeare," in which he maintains that the bard obtained his knowledge of ancient history and mythology from translations, and not from original classical authors. This essay

obtained a flattering notice from Dr. Johnson. In 1767 he was appointed a preacher at Whitehall, which gave him frequent opportunities of residence in London, where he became a distinguished book collector. He was soon appointed to the chancellorship and prebendal stall in the cathedral of Lichfield, and in 1775 he was chosen master of Emanuel College. He was afterwards made principal librarian to the university of Cambridge, and filled in his turn the office of vice-chancellor. Lord North conferred upon him a prebend, and he was twice offered a bishopric by the late Mr. Pitt, but he preferred a residentiaryship of St. Paul's, which he exchanged for his prebend. He published but little, but assisted many authors in various works, for which he received their public acknowledgments and thanks. Dr. Farmer died at Cambridge, after a long-protracted illness, in September 1797, much respected for his liberality to the poor and the various plans suggested by him for the improvement of the town of Cambridge.

FARNESE, an illustrious family of Italy, whose descent may be traced from about the middle of the thirteenth century, at which time it had possession of the castle of Farneto, in Orvieto, and gave to the church and the republic of Florence many eminent generals, among whom was Pietro Farnese, to whom the Florentines were indebted for an important victory over the people of Pisa. Pope Paul III., a Farnese, bent on the aggrandizement of his family, conferred rich establishments, not only on his natural son, Pietro Luigi, but also on the five sons of the latter. Paul was particularly eager to secure the promotion of Pietro Luigi, a man disgraced by every vice, and requested the emperor Charles V. to grant to his son the duchy of Milan, then in dispute between the emperor and France. After having offered Charles large sums in vain, he resolved to erect Parma and Piacenza, which Julius II. had conquered from Milan, into a duchy, and in August 1545 bestowed it upon his son. Pietro proceeded to Piacenza, where he built a citadel, and commenced his tyrannical reign by imposing many burdens on the nobility, and depriving them of their former privileges. His tyranny becoming insupportable, the chiefs of the nobility formed a conspiracy, in concert with Ferdinand Gonzaga, governor of Milan, and thirty-seven conspirators entered the citadel under pretence of visiting the duke, and secured the entrances. Giovanni Anguissola broke into the apartment of the duke, who, enfeebled by diseases, was unable to make any resistance, and thus fell by the dagger of his enemy. Gonzaga took possession of Piacenza in the name of the emperor, and promised the reformation of all abuses.

Ottavio Farnese, the son and successor of Pietro, was then at Perugia with Paul III., and Parma declared itself in favour of Ottavio, who took possession of it with the papal troops, but found himself, singly, too weak to attempt the capture of Piacenza. He therefore agreed upon an armistice with Gonzaga, and in the meantime endeavoured to secure the assistance of France. Julius III., the successor of his grandfather, out of gratitude to the family of Farnese, restored to him the duchy of Parma in 1550, and appointed him gonfaloniere of the church; but having entered into an alliance with Henry II. of France, he drew upon himself the displeasure of the emperor and the pope, and became involved in new



difficulties, from which he extricated himself two years afterwards by an honourable treaty. The services which his wife and his son Alessandro rendered to the Spanish government gained him the favour of the house of Austria. His wife, Margaret, who was a natural daughter of the emperor Charles V., had been appointed to rule over the Low Countries, and had administered the government with great moderation; but, in 1567, being superseded by the duke of Alva, she paid a visit to her husband in Parma, with whom she had lived but little, and then retired to Abruzzo. Ottavio died in 1586, after enjoying thirty years of uninterrupted peace, which he had employed in correcting the disorders of the preceding governments and promoting the happiness of his subjects.

Alessandro Farnese, who was the eldest son of Ottavio and Margaret, general of Philip II. in Flanders, and third duke of Parma and Piacenza, succeeded him. While a child he had accompanied his mother into the Low Countries, and was married in his tenth year to Mary, niece of John, king of Portugal. Inclination, courage, presence of mind, and strength of body, stimulated him to engage in the profession of arms. He served his first campaign under Don John of Austria, and distinguished himself in the battle of Lepanto. In 1577 Philip II. called him from Abruzzo, where he resided with his mother, to lead back to Don John the Spanish troops, which the latter had been obliged to dismiss from Flanders, where the situation of the Spaniards was becoming desperate. Don John, who had been a long time infirm, died that year, and Alessandro was made governor. He recovered Maestricht and several other cities, and succeeded in reconciling the Catholic part of the insurgents to the Spanish government. The Protestants, however, formed the union of Utrecht, and called in the duke of Anjou, a brother of Henry III. of France, to defend them. He appeared at the head of an army of 25,000 men; but Alessandro was constantly successful. In the midst of these triumphs he received the news of his father's death, and requested to be discharged from the Spanish service, in order to attend to the government of his own dominions; but was not able to obtain his wish, and died without ever returning to the country of which he had become sovereign. Fortunately for the Dutch, who would hardly have been able long to resist a general so bold, skilful, and enterprising, a civil war broke out in France, and Alessandro entered France, and compelled Henry IV. to raise the siege of Paris. During his absence, Maurice of Nassau had obtained many successes in the Netherlands, yet, with a mutinous and unpaid army, Alessandro kept in check both Maurice and Henry IV., and forced the latter in 1592 to raise the siege of Rouen. On his return from that expedition he received a wound in his arm before Caudebec, in consequence of the neglect of which he died at Arras in his forty-seventh year.

Ranuzio I., his eldest son, succeeded him as duke. He inherited none of the heroic qualities of his father, but was gloomy, severe, suspicious, and avaricious. Observing the discontent of the nobles with his administration, he accused them of having entered into a conspiracy against him, and, after having subjected the chiefs to a secret trial, beheaded them and confiscated their estates. This unprecedented cruelty roused the indignation of many

of the Italian princes, and the death of Vincenzo Gonzaga, duke of Mantua, alone prevented the breaking out of a war. He imprisoned his natural son Ottavio, who had acquired the favour of the nation, and left him to perish in cruel confinement. Ranuzio died in 1622. Notwithstanding the ferocity of his character, he discovered a taste for letters and the arts; and during his reign the celebrated theatre of Parma was built, after the model of the ancients, by John Battista Aleotti. His son and successor, Odoardo Farnese, possessed considerable talent for satire, a good deal of eloquence, and still more presumption and vanity. The ambition of shining in arms involved him in wars with Spain and Pope Urban VIII., to whom he was deeply in debt, but his excessive corpulence rendered him wholly unfit for war, of which he was so fond. He died in 1646. —Ranuzio II. was not so ferocious as his grandfather, nor so presumptuous as his father, but was the weak and ready instrument of unworthy favourites. One of these, Godefroï, a French teacher, whom he had created prime minister, assassinated the new bishop of Castro, whom Farnese was unwilling to acknowledge. Indignant at this crime, Pope Innocent X. demolished Castro, and Godefroï, defeated by the papal troops, lost successively the favour of his master, his estates, and his life. —Odoardo, the eldest son of Ranucci, was suffocated by his excessive corpulence. Of his two sons, Francesco and Antonio, the former succeeded him. Philip V. of Spain had married Elizabeth Farnese, daughter of Odoardo, and niece of the duke Francesco. When it was perceived that the latter could have no issue, the leading powers of Europe agreed that a son of Philip and Elizabeth should succeed to the Farnese territories. Thus they came into the possession of the house of Bourbon. Antonio Farnese, eighth duke of Parma, succeeded his brother Francesco, who was obliged to concur in these measures without being consulted as to his own wishes. Antonio also died childless, and his whole reign was a series of insults and humiliations. After his death, 6000 Spaniards took possession of Parma and Piacenza in the name of Don Carlos.

FARQUHAR, JOHN.—This eccentric and enormously wealthy individual went out to India in a very humble capacity early in life. Soon after his arrival he sustained in an engagement a severe wound in his knee, from which he suffered considerably through life, as he could not be prevailed upon to submit to amputation. He did not remain long in the military service, but became a free merchant. Chemistry however was his favourite pursuit. When Lord Cornwallis was appointed to be governor-general, he solicited Mr. Farquhar, from the knowledge he had of his science and integrity, to superintend the gunpowder manufactory, which had previously been conducted on defective principles. It was in this office, by the most honest and disinterested conduct, that he laid the foundation of his great fortune. Wealth and distinction rapidly poured in upon him, and after a series of years he returned to England the master of a splendid fortune. It is said that on his landing at Gravesend he walked to London to save coach-hire. His first visit was to his banker's. Covered with dust and dirt, with clothes not worth a guinea, he presented himself at the counter and asked to see Mr. Coutts. Regarding him as some poor petitioner, the clerks



allowed him to wait, until Mr. Coutts, accidentally passing through, recognised his Indian customer. Mr. Farquhar requested a few pounds, and took his leave. He then settled in Upper Baker-street, Portman-square, where his house was distinguished by its dingy appearance, uncleaned windows, and general neglect. A female servant was his sole attendant; and his own apartment, to which a brush or broom was never applied, was kept sacred even from her approach. Early in life, perhaps from necessity, he had been led to adopt the most parsimonious habits; and when he arrived at a princely fortune he could not break through the unfortunate trammels which lessened the respectability of a life that might otherwise have terminated so as to insure him no mean station in the temple of fame. Slovenly in his dress, and disagreeable at his meals, he was yet courteous and affable in his manners. He was deeply read in the classics; and though adverse through life to writing and figures, when prevailed upon to pen a letter or a note, his style was found to be at once terse, elegant, and condensed.

After his return to England he became a partner in the great agency house, in the city, of Basset, Farquhar, and Co.; and he bought Fonthill Abbey for the sum of £33,000. His religious opinions are thought to have been influenced by an admiration of the purity of the lives and moral principles of the Brahmins. It is said that he offered to appropriate £100,000 to found a college in Aberdeen, on an enlarged plan of education, with a reservation on points of religion. To this, however, the sanction of the legislature could not be procured, and the plan was consequently dropped. Mr. Farquhar died suddenly of apoplexy, July 6th, 1824.

FARQUHAR, GEORGE, a comic writer of eminence, who was born at Londonderry, in Ireland, in 1678. In 1694 he was sent to Trinity College, Dublin, whence however he either eloped or was expelled in consequence of irregular conduct. His partiality for the drama induced him to make his appearance on the stage at Dublin; but he displayed little ability as an actor, and he soon relinquished the profession he had so hastily chosen. About 1696 he accompanied his friend Wilks the player to London, where he commenced writing for the stage. His first production was "Love in a Bottle," performed at Drury Lane Theatre with great success in 1698. About this time he attracted the favour of Lord Orrery, who procured him a lieutenancy in his own regiment. In 1700 he added to his reputation by his comedy of "The Constant Couple, or the Trip to the Jubilee," in which, under the character Sir Harry Wildair, he exhibited a lively picture of the foppish fine gentleman of the end of the seventeenth century. In 1701 appeared "Sir Harry Wildair," a sequel to the former comedy; and the following year he published a volume of Miscellanies, consisting of poems, letters, essays, &c. "The Inconstant, or the Way to win Him," was the next effort of his pen. It has great merit, but much of it is borrowed from the "Wildgoose Chase" of Beaumont and Fletcher. About 1703 he married a lady who, having fallen in love with him, had represented herself as the heiress of a large fortune, and Farquhar is said to have pardoned the deception, and treated her with kindness. In 1706 appeared "The Recruiting Officer," one of his most popular plays; and this was succeeded by "The

Beaux's Stratagem," which is reckoned his masterpiece, though finished within the short space of six weeks, while labouring under serious indisposition. He died in 1707. It is no mean testimony of the dramatic talents of Farquhar, that three of his plays are still favourites with the public. His wit is genuine and spontaneous; and his characters are admirably supported, and drawn from nature. His plots excel in the arrangement of incidents, and in unity of action. The libertinism of language and sentiment which his works exhibit cannot be defended, but belong to the age in which he lived.

FARR, SAMUEL, a very eminent physician, who was born at Taunton in 1741. He received a good education at Warrington, and then proceeded to Edinburgh. He died in 1795, having published several small medical works.

FARREN, ELIZA, a celebrated actress, who was born in Cork. She made her first appearance on the stage at fourteen years of age, and soon attained great eminence. She retired from the stage in 1797, having married the earl of Derby. She died in 1829.

FARRILL, DON GONZALO O', a Spanish lieutenant-general, born at the Havanna in 1753. This distinguished soldier and statesman was educated at the school of Sorèze, in France, and entered the Spanish service in 1766. In 1780 he made himself acquainted with the organization of the schools for artillery and engineering in France, and was afterwards sent by his government to Berlin to study the tactics of Frederic the Great in the evolutions of the Prussian infantry. On his return he was placed at the head of the military school at the Puerto de Santa Maria, near Cadiz, from which some of the best Spanish tacticians and officers, such as Castanos and others, have proceeded. In 1793 O'Farrill served under the generals Ventura Caro and Calamera against the French in the Western Pyrenees; and in 1795 he served as quartermaster-general in the army of Catalonia, which forced the enemy back to the river Fluvia, and penetrated to Perpignan. After the treaty of Basle he was appointed by Charles IV. to draw the boundary line in the Pyrenees. In 1808 Ferdinand VII. created him director-general of the artillery, and in the same year minister of war. He advised the king to place himself under the protection of Napoleon at Bayonne; and when a member of the supreme junta, under the presidency of the infant Don Antonio, O'Farrill, with Azanza, maintained the authority of his sovereign against the threats of Murat; and he also put a stop to the effusion of blood occasioned by the insurrection in Madrid. After the departure of the president of the junta, Murat having desired to obtain a seat and vote in that body, met with a vigorous opposition from O'Farrill, and the ministers Azanza and Gil; but finding the majority of his colleagues determined to yield, O'Farrill withdrew. Under the government of Joseph, O'Farrill was again appointed minister of war, and in connexion with Azanza and the ministers Mazaredo and Cabarrus, in 1808, he addressed to Napoleon a bold memorial, the object of which was to secure the Spaniards from the ill consequences of the connexion with France.

After the restoration of Ferdinand to the Spanish throne, O'Farrill, in a letter to the king, frankly explained the motives of his conduct; but his property



was confiscated, and he himself condemned to death, as a Josefino, or traitor to religion and the king, after having served the state for nearly fifty years. O'Farrill retired to France, where he and Azanza published, at Paris, a defence of their political conduct, which is an important addition to the history of the Spanish revolution.

**FASTOLFF, or FALSTAFF, SIR JOHN.**—It is by the latter of these names that the above distinguished warrior is best known, and we may take the great English dramatist's view of his character before we examine the real facts that history has preserved of this extraordinary man. One of the most original dramatic characters which Shakspeare's master-hand has painted, is his Sir John Falstaff, the boon companion of the dissipated Henry, prince of Wales. That same genius which could set before us the delirium of grief in *Lear*, the charming picture of Juliet's loveliness, and the philosophical melancholy of Hamlet, has exhibited the fullest breadth of comic imagination in Falstaff, in "*Henry IV.*" and the "*Merry Wives of Windsor*;" in the latter, by the particular order and for the entertainment of Queen Elizabeth. Falstaff is the hero of lazy sensualists, but overflowing with wit and good humour. He is a soldier, but a cowardly boaster; grown old in sensual indulgences, which have made his body a shapeless mass of obesity. Under this sluggish exterior lurks a ready wit, dexterous in provoking and full of resources for allaying the storm which it has excited. The dramatic world cannot furnish his equal. He is universally entertaining. His impudence and selfish sensual philosophy are allayed with such exuberance of wit, that they make us laugh in spite of the contempt and disgust which they excite.



Thus much for the dramatist's view of a really historical character; and the following facts will serve to show how little he is to be relied on in matter of fact delineation.

Sir John Fastolff was born in 1378, and received as good an education as the times permitted. His father dying before he was of age, the care of his person and estate was committed to John, duke of Bedford. In 1413 Sir John Fastolff had the castle

and dominion of Veires, in Gascoigne, committed to his custody and defence; whence it is very reasonably inferred that he then resided in the said duchy, which at that time was possessed by the English. In June 1415, Fastolff, then only an esquire, was returned by indenture, with ten men-of-arms and thirty archers, to serve the king on his arrival in France. Soon after King Henry reached Normandy with above 30,000 men; the English army having made themselves masters of Harfleur, the most considerable port in that duchy, Fastolff was constituted lieutenant, with 1500 men, by the earl of Derby. Towards the latter end of October he was dangerously engaged in the memorable battle of Agincourt, where Fastolff, among others, signalized himself most gallantly by taking the duke of Alençon prisoner. In the same year, he, with the duke and 3000 English, invaded Normandy, and penetrated almost to Rouen; but on their return loaded with booty, they were surprised and forced to retreat towards Harfleur, whither the enemy pursuing them, were totally defeated. The constable of France, to recover his credit, laid siege to Harfleur, which made a vigorous defence under Sir John Fastolff and others, till relieved by the fleet under the duke of Bedford. He was at the taking of the castle of Tonque, the city of Caen, the castle of Courcy, the city of Sens, and town of Falaise, and at the great siege at Rouen, 1417. For his services at the latter he was made governor of Conde Noreau; and for his eminent services in those victories he received, before the 29th of January following, the honour of knighthood, and had the manor and demesne of Fritense, near Harfleur, bestowed upon him during life. In 1418 he was ordered to seize upon the castle and dominion of Bec Crispen, and other manors, which were held by James D'Auricher, and several other knights, and had the castle and lands granted him in return. In 1420 he was at the siege of Monsterau, and in the next year at that of Meaux-en-Brie. About five months after the decease of King Henry V., the town of Meulent having been surprised in January 1422, John, duke of Bedford, regent of France, and Sir John Fastolff, then grand-master of his household, and seneschal of Normandy, laid siege to the place and retook it. In 1423, after the castle of Cravent was relieved, Sir John was constituted lieutenant for the king, and regent in Normandy, in the jurisdictions of Rouen, Evreux, Alençon, and the countries beyond the river Seine; also governor of the countries of Anjou and Maine; and before the battle of Verneuil was created banneret. About three months after, being then captain of Alençon, and governor of the marches, he laid siege to the castle of Tenuye in Maine, which was surrendered to him; and in 1424 he was sent to oppose the delivery of Alençon to the French, upon a discovery made that a Gascoigner had secretly contracted to betray the place. In September 1425 he laid siege to Beaumont le Vicompt, which surrendered to him; and he also took the castle of Sillie-le-Guillem, for which he was dignified with the title of baron. In the year last mentioned our active warrior took also St. Ouen D'Estrais, near Laval, as likewise the castle of Gravelle, with other places of strength, from the enemy; for which dangerous and indefatigable service in France he was about the same time elected in England knight companion of the Order of the Garter. In 1426 John



Lord Talbot was appointed governor of Anjou and Maine, and Sir John Fastolf was removed to another place of command. In October 1428 he performed an enterprise of such bravery and conduct as is scarcely thought to have been paralleled in ancient or modern history. The English army, at the siege of Orleans, being in great want of provisions, artillery, and other necessities, Sir John Fastolf, with some other approved commanders, was despatched for supplies by William de la Pole, duke of Suffolk, to the regent at Paris, who not only provided him all he required, but allowed him a strong guard at his return, that he might convey the same safely to the siege. The French, knowing the importance of this succour, united two armies of very superior numbers and force to meet him; but, either in different encounters, or in a pitched battle, as the French themselves allow, he totally overthrew them, slew much greater numbers than he had under his command, not to mention the wounded and the prisoners, and conducted his convoy safe to the English camp. And because it was in the time of Lent, and he had among his other provision several of his carriages laden with barrels of herrings, which he applied to form a fortification, the French called this victory "the battle of herrings." But, as the fortune of war is precarious, the English army was soon after obliged to raise the siege of Orleans; and, though they received recruits from the duke of Bedford, they were in no degree strong enough to encounter the French army at Patay. At the battle which happened there in June 1429, many of the English, who were of most experienced and approved valour, seeing themselves so unequal and the onset of the French so unexpected, made the best retreat they could; and among them who saved themselves, as it is said, was Sir John Fastolf, who, with such as could escape, retired to Corbeil. In 1432 he accompanied Lord Talbot to France, and was soon after sent ambassador to the council of Basle, and chosen in the like capacity to negotiate a final or temporary peace with France. And that year Fastolf, with the lord Willoughby, commanded the army which assisted the duke of Bretagne against the duke of Alençon. Soon after this he was for a short space in England; for in 1433, going abroad again, he constituted John Fastolf of Olton, probably a near relation, his general attorney. In 1434, or the beginning of the year after, Sir John was again with the regent of France; and in 1435 he was again one of the ambassadors to conclude a peace with France. Towards the latter end of this year the regent died at Rouen, and, as the greatest proof he could give of his confidence in the honour and integrity of Sir John Fastolf, he made him one of the executors of his last will. Richard, duke of York, who succeeded in the regency of France, made Fastolf a grant of an annuity of twenty pounds a-year of his own estate, *pro notabili et laudabili servitio, ac bono consilio*, which is sufficient to show this duke's sentiments also of his merits. In 1450 he conveyed to John Kemp, cardinal archbishop of York, and others, his manor of Castre, in Fleg, and several other lands specified in the deed of conveyance. The same year, November 8, the king by writ directed Richard Waller, Esq., David John William Needham, and John Ingoldsbey, to cause Thomas Danyell, Esq., to pay to Sir John Fastolf, knight, the 100*l.* that he was indebted to him for provisions, and for his ship called the George

of Prussia, alias Danyell's Hulk, which ship the said Danyell took on the sea as a prize, and never had it condemned, so that the king seized it, ordered it to be sold, and Sir John to be paid out of it. At length being arrived, in 1459, beyond the age of fourscore years, he says of himself that he was "in good remembrance albeit I am gretly vexed with sicknesse, and thurgh age infiblyd." He lingered "under a hectic fever and asthma, for a hundred and forty-eight days;" but, before he departed, he made his will on the 5th of November in that year, and died at his seat at Castre the next day after, being the festival of St. Leonard.

FAUCHE-BOREL, an individual distinguished for his efforts in favour of the Bourbons during the period of the French revolution. He was born at Neufchatel, where his family had resided after they had been obliged by the revocation of the edict of Nantes to flee from Franche Comté. At the beginning of the revolution, having printed some writings for the emigrants, he was banished from his native city, and thenceforth dedicated himself entirely to the service of the emigrants and the royal family. From 1793 until 1814 he was concerned in all the attempts which were made for the restoration of the Bourbons; and in 1795 he was employed as mediator between Pichegru and the prince of Condé, for the purpose of winning over the former to the cause of the exiled royal family. In case of success he was to receive 1,000,000 of livres, the cordon of St. Michael, and the office of director of the royal press. If unsuccessful, he expected only 1,000 louis d'or. Pichegru having accepted the offers under condition, however, that Austria would co-operate, Fauche-Borel went to the prince of Condé, who sent him to Strasburg, which was then the centre of the French army. Here, under the name of M. Louis, he pretended to be desirous to buy a printing-office. But he became suspected, was arrested, and Pichegru was deprived of his command. Louis, however, was set at liberty because nothing was found in his papers to confirm suspicion. In 1796 he opened a new correspondence with Pichegru in Artois, the consequence of which was that the latter, then president of the council of the five hundred, entered into the plans in favour of the Bourbons, which, however, were frustrated. Fauche-Borel's name was placed on the list of the proscribed, and, as his correspondence with Pichegru had been found in the carriage of the Austrian general Klingling, he was obliged to conceal himself. According to his own account he found means to gain over the director Barras in favour of the restoration of the monarchy; but the latter in 1819 publicly declared this assertion a falsehood. Shortly after Fauche-Borel was sent to act as mediator between Moreau and Pichegru. He went to Paris, but was arrested, and remained imprisoned in the Temple until he was delivered at the request of the Prussian minister, and carried by gendarmes to the Prussian territory. The Prussian government probably did this on account of its connexion with Neufchatel. He, nevertheless, ventured to distribute in France in 1804 a proclamation of Louis XVIII. to the French people; but, to avoid the danger of being again arrested, he came to England, then went to Sweden, and in 1814 he entered Paris in the train of the allies. He had already made arrangements for settling in Paris, when Napoleon's return from Elba prevented him. From Vienna,



where the Prussian minister Count Golz had sent him, he went to join Louis XVIII. at Ghent; but his reputation for intrigue drew upon him the attention of the duke of Blacas, who suspected him of being in Napoleon's service. The consequence was that he was exiled and imprisoned in Brussels until the Prussian minister obtained his release. After the battle of Waterloo he resided in Paris, and at a later period in this country, with a pension from government. Of his works the most important is "*Précis Historique de Differentes Missions dans lesquelles M. Louis Fauche-Borel a été employé pour la Cause de la Monarchie.*" The motto of this work, *pœnam pro munere*—punishment for reward, would seem to indicate that his august employers did not fulfil his expectations after they were firmly seated.

**FAUJAS DE SAINT FOND, BARTHELEMI**, a celebrated geologist, who was born at Paris in 1750. He visited almost all the countries of Europe and the new world, devoting his attention especially to geological phenomena, particularly to volcanic productions. In his "*Recherches sur les Volcans eccéints du Vivarais et du Velai,*" published in 1788, he developed his views on the origin of volcanoes, which he attributed to the contact of water and subterranean fire. His researches made him incline to the opinion of those geologists who consider all trap formations as of volcanic origin. This opinion he supports in his "*Essais Géologiques.*" Of his numerous works should be mentioned his "*Histoire Naturelle des Roches de Trapp,*" and his "*Travels through England, Scotland, and the Hebrides,*" which contain some excellent observations on manners and customs.

**FAUST, or FUST, JOHN**, a goldsmith of Mentz, who was one of the three artists to whom the invention of printing is generally ascribed. It is, however, doubtful if he did more than advance money to Guttenberg, who had previously made some attempts with carved blocks at Strasburg. The third person concerned was Schæffer, who married the daughter of Faust, and who is allowed the honour of having invented punches and matrices, by means of which this grand art was carried to perfection. The first fruits of the new process was "*Durandi Rationale Divinorum Officiorum,*" published by Faust and Schæffer in 1459, which was followed some years after by the "*Catholicon Johannis Januensis,*" after which, in 1462, succeeded the Bible so much sought for by those fond of early specimens of typography. These works were, however, preceded by a Bible, Psalter, and other books, executed with characters engraved on wood, and by a mechanism which Faust and Schæffer possessed in common with Guttenberg. It has been pretended that, when Faust went to Paris to sell a second edition of his Bible of 1462, he was arrested on the supposition that he effected the printing of them by magic; but this story appears to be a mere fable. There is reason to believe that he died of the plague in 1466, as the name of Schæffer alone is found in the books printed after that time at Mentz. According to some German writers, the celebrated romance of Doctor Faustus, the subject of so much traditionary horror and admiration, and which has been since immortalized by the genius of Goethe, originated in the malice of the monks towards Faust, whose employment of printing deprived them of their gain as copiers, that

occupation having been almost exclusively in their hands.

**FAUST, DOCTOR JOHN**, a celebrated dealer in the black art, who lived in the beginning of the sixteenth century. Doctor Faust has become in Germany one of those standing national characters which represent a whole class of persons, and to whom every new invention and strange adventure is constantly attributed. According to some accounts, he was born at Knittlingen in Suabia; others make him a native of Anhalt; others of Brandenburg. He is believed to have been the son of a peasant, who sent him to study at Wittemberg. In his sixteenth year he went to Ingolstadt and studied theology, became in three years a *magister*, but abandoned theology, and began the study of medicine, astrology, and magic, in which he likewise instructed John Wagner, the son of a clergyman at Wasserburg. After Doctor Faust had spent a rich inheritance left him by his uncle, probably in chemical and alchemical experiments, he, according to tradition, made use of his power to conjure up spirits, and entered into a contract with the devil for twenty-four years. A spirit called Mephistopheles was given him as a servant, with whom he travelled about, enjoyed life in all its forms, and surprised people by working wonders; for instance, he rode on a wine barrel out of Auerbach's cellar in Leipsic, in 1523, where an old painting representing the subject is still to be seen. The evil spirit finally carried him off near the village of Rimlich between twelve and one o'clock at night. This is the story as it is found in a work by Wiedemann, entitled "*True History of the Horrible Sins of Doctor John Faustus, Hamburg, 1599,*" and in another old book, "*The League of Doctor Faust, the Enchanter and Sorcerer known throughout the World, with the Devil, his Adventurous Life and Terrible End,*" printed at Cologne and Nuremberg. Some have thought that this whole story was invented by the monks to calumniate Doctor Faust, the inventor of printing, because the profits which they had been accustomed to make by copying manuscripts were greatly diminished by his invention; but this is not at all probable. Perhaps he was a chemist more acquainted than others of his age with his science. Even at the present day Doctor Faustus and his familiar Wagner play a conspicuous part in the puppet shows of Germany; and this legend has not only remained among the lower classes, but is incorporated with some of the finest productions of the German muse. The most distinguished poems on this subject are Klinger's "*Faust's Life, Deeds, and Descent to Hell,*" and Goethe's celebrated "*Faust.*" The latter is one of the greatest poems the Germans possess, written in the full vigour of the author's genius. Goethe's "*Faust*" is a man thirsting for truth and knowledge, but presumptuously and ungovernably forgetting that he is a mortal, and liable to the fate of the Titans. After having studied all sciences and found them empty and illusory, and having become deeply sensible of his own weakness, he resolves to give himself up to sensual enjoyment to secure some portion of pleasure in life.

**FAUSTINA**.—Two celebrated Roman empresses. The first was the wife of the emperor Antoninus Pius, and the second, her daughter, who was afterwards married to the emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. The historians of the period have interspersed their

descriptions of the flourishing state of the empire under these Antonines with scandalous anecdotes of their wives. But to the honour of the younger Faustina, who was accused of the grossest excesses, it cannot be denied that her own husband, Marcus Aurelius, who, by his excellent character and his devotion to philosophy obtained the surname of the Philosopher, gave her the credit of being an exemplary wife.

**FAVART, CHARLES SIMON.**—This celebrated French writer was born in 1710, and received his education at the college of Louis le Grand. His first poem—"La France Délivrée par la Pucelle d'Orléans"—obtained the prize in the Jeux Floraux. But his poetical reputation rests principally on his numerous productions for the Opéra aux Italiens and the comic opera. The latter, with which Favart was closely connected, was suppressed, in 1745, through the intrigues of the former, which was jealous of its success; and Favart was obliged to assume the direction of a company of itinerant actors, which followed Marshal Saxe into Flanders. He was often obliged to use his talents before an engagement or any other important event, to encourage the army. An instance of this sort occurred before the battle of Rocoux, when the poet, at the request of the marshal, hastily composed some verses announcing victory in the impending contest, which were sung by a favourite actress during the interval between the acts. Favart had the grief to see that the charms of his wife had conquered the victor of Fontenoy, who, on his advances being repulsed, basely used his power to persecute her husband, and cause her, by means of a *lettre de cachet*, to be confined more than a year in a convent in the country. Favart afterwards returned to the capital, and applied himself assiduously to dramatic poetry. He wrote at this period in conjunction with the abbé Voisenon, who was his *ami de la maison*, a number of his best productions, in the composition of which Madame Favart also participated. In most of them Favart himself formed the plan, the style, characters, and dialogue, while his wife added many strokes of *naïveté* and feminine sprightliness; but from the *ami de la maison*, who was much overrated in his time, came those affected quibbles and cold conceits which occur in some of Favart's works. The number of his works is very great; and many of them are either in the "Répertoire du Théâtre Français" or are translated into foreign languages. During the latter part of his life Favart received a pension of 800 francs from the Comédie Italienne. He died in 1792 at the advanced age of eighty-two years. Original and lively ideas, graceful and natural expression of tender feeling, a skilful delineation of characters mostly moral, and a pure and easy diction in verse as well as prose, are the attributes of Favart's muse.

**FAVIER**, an eminent French statesman, born at Toulouse in the beginning of the eighteenth century. At the age of twenty-five he succeeded his father as secretary-general to the states of Languedoc; but he was obliged, in consequence of youthful extravagance, to sell the office. He then applied himself to the study of history and politics, and was nominated secretary to M. de la Chétardie, ambassador to Turin, after whose death he was patronised by M. d'Argenson. Under the direction of that minister he wrote "Réflexions contre le Traité de 1756" (between France and Austria), one of the best diplomatic

treatises which had then appeared. He went out of office when d'Argenson left the ministry, but was employed on several secret missions in Spain and Russia, under the ministry of the duke de Choiseul. He engaged in other secret transactions of the French government at the instigation of the count de Broglie (who corresponded secretly, but by order of Louis XV., with the French foreign ministers), which involved him in many difficulties and obliged him to leave France. After passing some time in England and Holland, where he became acquainted with Prince Henry of Prussia, he was at last arrested at Hamburg, and taken to Paris. M. de Broglie procured his liberation in 1773; and on the accession of Louis XVI. he obtained a pension of 6000 livres, but was not afterwards employed. He died in 1784.

**FAXARDO, DIEGO DE SAAVEDRA**, an excellent Spanish prose writer, who was born towards the end of the sixteenth century, of a noble family of the kingdom of Murcia, and studied at Salamanca, where he was made doctor of law. He went with the Spanish ambassador Borgia to Rome, as secretary for Neapolitan affairs, was afterwards Spanish agent at the Roman court, and repaired to Ratisbon in 1636, to be present at the election of Ferdinand as king of the Romans. After other diplomatic employments he was sent by Philip IV. to the congress at Munster in 1643, but was recalled in 1646, and was appointed a member of the supreme council of the Indies at Madrid, where he died in 1648. His principal work is "Idea de un Principe Politico Christiano, representado en cien Empresas," with emblems. It has often been republished, and also translated into Italian, French, Latin, and German. He also wrote "Republica Literaria," a humorous and sometimes satirical comparison of the old with the new distinguished Spanish writers, and "Locuras de Europa, Dialogo Posthumo."

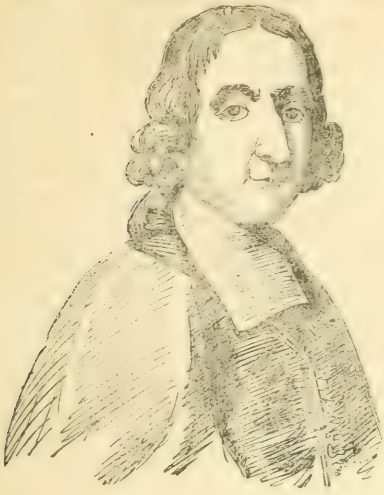
**FELL, SAMUEL**, a distinguished divine of the seventeenth century. During the civil wars he was much attached to the cause of Charles, and his son, profiting by his example, was made bishop of Oxford. They both produced learned classical works, and the theological writings of the latter are much esteemed. Bishop Fell died in 1686.

**FELTHAM, OWEN**, an author of considerable talent, who was born about the middle of the seventeenth century. Little more is known of him than that he resided many years in the family of the earl of Thomond, during which period he published a work of great merit, entitled "Resolves, Divine, Political, and Moral." This book went through twelve editions before the year 1709. His death took place in 1678.

**FENELON, FRANÇOIS DE SALIGNAC DE LA MOTTE.**—This learned member of the French clergy was a pattern of virtue in the midst of a corrupt court. He was born, in 1651, at the chateau Fénelon, in Perigord, of a family illustrious in church and state. A gentle disposition united with great vivacity of mind, and a feeble and delicate constitution, characterized his youth. His uncle, the marquis of Fénelon, had him educated under his own eye at Cahors, and in his fifteenth year he preached with great applause; but his uncle, fearing that success and flattery might corrupt so amiable a heart, advised his nephew to cultivate his talents in retirement; and he placed him under the care of the abbé Tronson, superior of St. Sulpice, in Paris. At the



age of twenty-four Fénelon took holy orders, and performed the fatiguing duties of the parish of St.



Sulpice. Harlay, archbishop of Paris, gave him the care of a society of female converts, called the New Catholics, which office he discharged during three years; and it was in this station that he first displayed his powers of instruction and persuasion. The king, having heard of the success of his labours, appointed him to take charge of a mission to Saintonge, for the conversion of the Huguenots, where his mild and convincing eloquence, joined to his amiable manners, met with astonishing success; and it is to the honour of Fénelon that he would not accept this post except on condition that no other means should be employed than those of charity and argument.

In 1681 his uncle conferred on him the priory of Carennac; and shortly after he wrote his first work, "On the Education of Daughters," which was the basis of his future reputation. In 1689 Louis XIV. entrusted to him the education of his grandsons, the dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Berri; and in this situation Fénelon was successful in forming the mind of the young duke of Burgundy, heir presumptive to the throne of France, and sowed the seeds of every princely virtue in his heart; but his premature death blasted the pleasing anticipations entertained respecting him. In 1694 Fénelon was created archbishop of Cambray. A theological dispute with Bossuet, his former instructor, terminated in his condemnation by Pope Innocent XII., and his banishment to his diocese by Louis XIV. From this time he lived in his diocese, sustaining the venerable character of a Christian philosopher, and scrupulously performing his sacred duties. He died in 1715. His works in the departments of philosophy, theology, and the belles lettres, have immortalized his name. He was familiar with the best models of ancient and modern times, and his mind was animated by a mild and gentle spirit of benevolence. His most celebrated work is "Les Aventures de Télémaque," in which he endeavoured to exhibit a model for the education of a prince. It was carried off and published by a valet employed to transcribe the manuscript. On the appearance of this work Louis manifested displeasure towards Fénelon, conceiving this historical

romance to be a satire on his reign, and forbade the completion of the printing, supposing that Calypso represented Madame de Montespan, Eucharis Mademoiselle Fontanges, Antiope the duchess of Burgundy, Protesilaus Louvois, Idomeneus the exiled King James, and Sesostri Louis XIV. It is a masterpiece of its kind, delivering the most excellent morality in pleasing language. Two years after his death his heirs published the *Télémaque* complete in two volumes, and since that time there have been many fresh editions. In 1819 a monument was erected by public subscription to his memory, and on the 7th of January, 1826, his statue, executed by the sculptor David, was placed at Cambray.

FENN, SIR JOHN, an English antiquary, best known for his production of the "Paston Letters." He was born at Norwich in 1739, and laboured for several years in historical investigations. Sir John Fenn's death occurred in 1794.

FENTON, ELIJAH, an English author and poet of considerable talent as well as learning, who was born in 1683 at Shelton, near Newcastle in Staffordshire. He was of an ancient and respectable family, but the youngest of twelve children. After going through the usual course of education at Jesus College, Cambridge, he took his bachelor's degree with the intention of entering the church. This design was however rendered abortive by his political principles, and he accepted an engagement in the capacity of usher. The earl of Orrery afterwards, through the recommendation of his friends, was induced to make him his private secretary, and to place his eldest son under his care. In this situation he became acquainted with most of the wits of the age, and Pope, whom he assisted in his *Odyssey*, in particular was much attached to him. Pope's interest was exerted in his favour, both with Craggs, the secretary, and after his death with Lady Trumbull, to whose son he was appointed tutor. Besides the translations alluded to he published in 1709 "Oxford and Cambridge Verses," a volume of poems in 1717, "Mariamne," a tragedy, and the "Lives of Milton and Waller," with an edition of the poems of the latter. His death took place July 13th, 1730. As a poet Fenton displayed much harmony and poetic diction, and as a translator considerable sweetness and facility of versification. His tragedy of "Mariamne" also maintains a respectable rank among similar dramatic productions.

FERDINAND.—This name has been highly distinguished amongst the series of European sovereigns. We must, however, confine ourselves to those only most celebrated in the annals of modern times. The first German emperor who bore this name was the brother of Charles V., whom he succeeded as emperor of Germany in 1558, having been chosen king of the Romans in 1531, and king of Hungary and Bohemia in 1536. In 1559 he held a diet at Augsburg, in which the currency of the empire was regulated and many religious grievances suffered by the Protestants were exposed. Ferdinand was of a mild character; and, at the second session of the council of Trent, he obtained several religious privileges for his subjects, and the aulic council was definitively organized during his reign; but he ascended the throne too late to effect as much good in Germany as he would otherwise have done.

Ferdinand II., emperor of Germany, succeeded his uncle Matthias, who died without children,

and who had secured to him the succession in an assembly of the states in 1617. He ascended the imperial throne when the thirty years' war was just on the point of breaking out, and the house of Austria was in a critical situation. He was of a dark and reserved character, had been educated by the Jesuits at Ingolstadt, and in his religious views was very unlike his ancestors, Ferdinand I., Maximilian, or even Rodolph and Matthias. His zeal was excited against every deviation from the decrees of the council of Trent; and he obstinately adhered to bigoted and narrow views of religion. The retreat of the Bohemian forces, who had appeared before Vienna under the command of Thurn, gave him an opportunity of securing his election to the imperial throne, in spite of the opposition of the union and the Bohemians. The support of the league and of the elector of Saxony, John George I., placed him firmly on the throne of Bohemia, where he relentlessly persecuted the Protestants, banishing their preachers, and compelling many thousand industrious people to remove to foreign countries. He recalled the Jesuits, and tore the charter of privileges, granted by Rodolph II., with his own hand; he then declared his rival Frederic V., under the ban of the empire, and, in spite of the opposition of the elector of Saxony, transferred the Palatinate to the duke of Bavaria, who supported his measures. His generals, Tilley and Wallenstein, defeated Christian IV. king of Denmark, Christian duke of Brunswick, and Count Mansfield. The two dukes of Mecklenburg, who had taken part with Denmark, were put under the ban of the empire, and Wallenstein was invested with the duchy of Mecklenburg. He also attempted to make himself master of the commerce of the Baltic; but this project failed, the siege of Stralsund being rendered ineffectual by the protection of the Hanse Towns. In 1629 he published the edict of restitution, restoring all the ecclesiastical foundations which had been abolished by the Protestants, contrary to the ecclesiastical reservation to the Catholic bishops and prelates, declaring the Calvinists to be excluded from the religious peace, and requiring the Protestant subjects of Catholic princes to embrace the Catholic religion. This edict was carried into execution by force of arms at Augsburg, Ulm, Kauffburen, and Ratisbon. But the dismissal of Wallenstein, which was almost unanimously demanded by the diet, and the efforts of Richelieu, who put all his political machinery in motion, in order to secure to France a powerful influence in Europe and to limit the almost overwhelming power of the house of Austria, and finally the power of Gustavus Adolphus, supported by France and assisted by the Protestants, when they found all hopes of reconciliation destroyed by the siege of Magdeburg—all contributed to prevent Ferdinand from carrying his plan into execution. The death of Gustavus Adolphus, the victory of his own son the arch-duke Ferdinand over Bernard duke of Weimar, at Nördlingen, and the separate peace with Saxony, gave him the prospect of an ultimate triumph over the Protestants. But the treatment of the elector of Treves, who, having placed himself under the protection of France and received French troops into his fortresses, was carried off from Luxembourg by the Spanish troops by the command of Ferdinand and Philip IV., and the murder of the French garrison, gave France a pre-

text for an immediate war with Spain and Austria, and Sweden could now act with renewed vigour. Baner defeated the imperial and Saxon forces at Wittstock in 1636, and drove them out of Hesse; and Ferdinand died, 1637, without having accomplished his design of destroying Protestantism and political freedom in Germany.

His son, Ferdinand III., the victor of Nördlingen, succeeded him, and was more disposed towards peace than his father. Baner and Bernard, dukes of Weimar, repeatedly defeated the imperial troops. Still, however, the diet assembled at Ratisbon in 1640 did not agree to a peace. Although Ferdinand would not render himself subservient to the interests of Spain and the Jesuits, and though he showed much spirit in the diet, yet he was unable to accomplish his objects. At last the preliminaries of Hamburg were concluded in 1641, by the articles of which a general congress was assembled at Munster and Osnabrück, for the purpose of negotiating a peace. A long time elapsed before this congress commenced its session; and in the mean time, as there was no truce, the war continued with various success. In 1648, when the Swedes were on the point of taking possession of the capital of Bohemia under Wrangel, Ferdinand determined to accede to the peace. He soon after secured the election of his son, Ferdinand IV., as king of the Romans; but that prince died the next year. In the diet of 1653 some important changes were made in the administration of justice. Shortly before his death, which took place in 1657, Ferdinand concluded a league with the Poles against the Swedes.

FERDINAND V., king of Arragon, one of the most distinguished Spanish monarchs, who was the son of King John II., and was born in 1453. By his marriage with Isabella, queen of Castile, he laid the foundation for the union of the different Spanish kingdoms, which was finally completed forty-two years later. "Ferdinand and Isabella lived together," says a historian, "not like a couple whose united possessions were under the control of the husband, but like two monarchs closely and voluntarily united by a community of interests." Isabella allowed her husband no other share in the government of Castile than the privilege of affixing his signature to the decrees, and of uniting his arms with her own. With Ximenes they raised Spain to an eminence which she had never before attained. After a bloody war of ten years they conquered Grenada, the only kingdom of which the Moors yet retained possession in Spain; but the most brilliant event of their reign was the discovery of America, for which Isabella had furnished the ships, and which made them sovereigns of a new world. This politic prince laid the foundation of the Spanish ascendancy in Europe by the acquisition of Naples in 1505, by means of his general Gonzalvo of Cordova, and by the conquest of Navarre in 1512; but his policy was deceitful and despotic. These stains obscure the great qualities which made him the first monarch of his time. His efforts to aggrandize himself and confirm his power, and his religious bigotry, led him into great errors. For the purpose of domineering over the consciences of his subjects, he instituted the court of the inquisition, not perceiving that he thus gave the clergy a power which they would soon use against the monarch himself. Not less unjust and impolitic was the expulsion of the Jews and the banishment



of the Moors. After the death of his wife Isabella he married Germaine de Foix, and died in 1516 of the dropsy, produced by an aphrodisiac given him by his second wife.

FERDINAND I., king of the Two Sicilies, was born in 1751, and was the third son of Charles III., king of Spain, whom he succeeded in 1759 on the throne of Naples, on the accession of the latter to that of Spain. Ferdinand took the reins of government into his own hands on the 12th of January, 1767. The administration had hitherto been conducted by a council of regency established by his father, under the presidency of the celebrated Marquis Tanucci, previously professor of law at Pisa, and his education and that of his elder brother, Charles IV. of Spain, had been conducted by Prince Santo Nicandro, a man of honest intentions but of limited views. Ferdinand was therefore extremely ignorant, and could never be induced by the important events of the age to give up hunting, fishing, and similar pleasures, so commonly the occupation of those to whom they should be the least familiar. While a child Ferdinand showed strong inclinations towards the people, often inviting boys in the street to visit him, &c. On feast days he loved to play with the children of the *lazzaroni*, and even in his later days used to enter into conversation with these people, who in their turn called him by the familiar epithet of Long-nose, he having the nasal elongation common to the Spanish Bourbons. Ferdinand thus became the favourite of the people. In 1768 he married Maria Caroline, daughter of the empress Maria Theresa, and his wife soon acquired a decided influence over him. Tanucci was still prime minister; but, having lost the favour of Charles III. of Spain, he gave in his resignation in 1777, and was succeeded by the marquis Sambuca. The king was now prevailed on by his wife to engage a little more in the affairs of government; but he did nothing without her advice. Sambuca therefore attempted to alienate the king from his wife by means of a beautiful English woman, who had married a Frenchman at Naples; but the queen discovered the plot, and M. and Mme. Goudar were banished from Naples. This event contributed to strengthen the influence of the queen, and a letter of Sambuca's to Madrid, in which he gave an unfavourable account of the queen, having been intercepted, he was obliged to retire to his native city, Palermo, in 1784. Acton, who was his successor, followed implicitly the wishes of the queen; and the cabinet of Madrid now lost all influence in that of Naples, which became more closely united with Austria and England. But the French revolution soon involved in its consequences this country, one of the worst governed in Europe. As the cabinet of Naples hesitated to comply with the demand of France to renounce all connexion with England, La Touche appeared with a French squadron before the capital, and compelled the court to accept the prescribed conditions. But after the death of Louis XVI. Ferdinand joined the coalition against France, and took part in the general war from 1793 to 1796. After two years of peace the victory of Nelson at Aboukir again engaged Ferdinand against the French, who, on the defeat of the Neapolitans under General Mack, took possession of the whole kingdom on the 23d of January, 1799, and proclaimed the Parthenopean republic—an act which the situation of affairs probably rendered necessary,

because it was not possible to establish a new monarchy. Yet no one acquainted with the character of the Neapolitans could for a moment have expected the duration of the republic. The court, with Acton, had already fled to Palermo. But in June 1799 the capital again fell into the hands of the royalist army under Cardinal Ruffo, and many adherents of the republic were executed. The court did not return to Naples till January 1800, when a treaty was concluded between Spain and the first consul, by which the integrity of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies was guaranteed.

Notwithstanding this, by the peace with France, Naples was obliged to cede the *Stato dei Presidj*, &c., and to receive French troops into the kingdom—a measure necessary for France, on account of the well-known insincerity of the Neapolitan cabinet. In the treaty of neutrality between the same powers in 1805, Ferdinand was also obliged to promise not to permit the landing of the troops of the belligerent powers in Naples. In November 1805 an Anglo-Russian fleet appeared before Naples, and 12,000 Russians were landed. Napoleon in consequence sent French troops into the Neapolitan territory, to punish the king for this breach of the treaty. Ferdinand again fled to Sicily, in 1806, where he maintained himself by the assistance of the British; but, the queen becoming dissatisfied with the latter, Ferdinand, who had always governed merely nominally, placed the administration in the hands of his son Francis. The imbecility of the king, whose chief occupation was hunting wild boars and distributing the best pieces among his favourites in a formal way, the wretched state of the numerous nobility, and the deplorable situation of the court, appear from all the documents of that time relating to Sicily. Queen Caroline was obliged to leave Sicily in December 1811, and went, by way of Constantinople, to Vienna, in the neighbourhood of which she died in 1814. The English then prevailed upon the king to take the reins of government again into his own hands, and the congress of Vienna finally re-established Ferdinand in all his rights as king of the Two Sicilies in 1814. The royal family once more entered Naples in June 1815; and Ferdinand, on the 12th of December, 1816, united all his possessions “on this side the Faro” and “on the other side the Faro” into the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and assumed the title of Ferdinand I. In November 1814 Ferdinand married the widowed princess of Partana, and in 1818 he concluded a concordate with the pope, by which the long disputes between Naples and Rome were finally settled. After the Austrian troops who had re-established him had left Naples, the Austrian general Nugent remained as commander-in-chief of the army. He abolished the French organization of the troops, by which he rendered himself extremely odious; and almost all the good regulations which Joseph and Murat had established for the promotion of agriculture, education, the civilization of the *lazzaroni*, &c., were abolished. In 1820 Ferdinand was obliged to swear to support the constitution modelled after the Spanish. The Austrian arms, however, enabled him to disregard his oath and solemn promises; and they re-established him (after he had been obliged again to leave Naples) in the possession of absolute power in 1821. He died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son Francis I.

FERDINAND III., JOSEPH JOHN BAPTIST,

was born in May 1769, and succeeded his father, the emperor Leopold II., as grand-duke of Tuscany, on the 2nd of July, 1790. This prince, whose character was at once mild and firm, governed his country in the spirit of his father. As a friend of peace and of the arts, he preserved a strict neutrality in the war with France, and was the first sovereign who acknowledged the French republic and entered into diplomatic connexions with it. This policy offended the courts of England and Russia; and the former government in September 1793 required the grand-duke to dismiss the ambassador of the republic, and break off all commercial intercourse with France. As this demand was not complied with, the British ambassador, Lord Hervey, threatened the bombardment of Leghorn, and a descent from the fleet of Admiral Hood, who showed himself off the harbour, if the grand-duke did not renounce his neutrality within twelve hours. Tuscany was thus obliged to accede to the coalition. Ferdinand, however, still avoided all offensive regulations, and would not allow the fabrication of false assignats in his states.

When the French army afterwards took possession of Piedmont, Ferdinand was the first sovereign who seceded from the coalition. The English, however, violated the neutrality of Tuscany, which was recognised by France, on which account Bonaparte took possession of Leghorn in June 1796, and seized the English property there. By way of reprisal an English fleet took possession of Porto Ferrajo, in Elba. The French directory wished to unite Tuscany with the Cisalpine republic; but the grand-duke, by a treaty concluded in February 1797 between Manfredini and Bonaparte, re-established the neutrality of his states, upon which the English abandoned Porto Ferrajo and the French Leghorn. Ferdinand paid a sum of money to the French government, and sent some masterpieces of art, among which was the Venus de Medici, from the Florentine gallery to the museum of Paris. The intrigues of the revolutionary party having rendered it necessary for him to arrest many of his own subjects and to banish those foreigners who fomented these disturbances, the French directory demanded of him in the beginning of 1798 a definitive declaration of war or alliance. The troops of the king of Naples then took possession of Leghorn in December; and it was only by the payment of large sums of money that the grand-duke could procure their removal, when the French troops under Serrurier also evacuated Tuscany. In consequence of the violation of the treaty of Campo-Formio, France declared war against Austria and Tuscany in March 1799, and again occupied the grand-duchy. Ferdinand retired to Vienna; and by the treaty of Lunéville he surrendered Tuscany, receiving as an indemnity, by the treaty of Paris, the duchy of Salzburg, with the dignity of elector, Berchtesgaden, three quarters of Eichstädt, and half of Passau, the united revenue of which amounted to only half of that of Tuscany. By the peace of Presburg, which took place in 1805, he was obliged to surrender his electorate to Austria and Bavaria, receiving in return Wurtzburg.

By his accession to the confederation of the Rhine he lost his dignity of elector, and was made grand-duke of Wurtzburg. The peace which took place in 1814 restored him the grand-duchy of Tuscany, according to the terms of an agreement between the

commissioners of Joachim Murat and the grand-duke, and the congress of Vienna added to Tuscany the Stato dei Presidj, the part of Elba which had hitherto been in the possession of the king of Naples, the principality of Piombino, and some other districts. On the second occupation of Paris, the masterpieces of art which had been carried off from the Florentine gallery were restored. The grand-duke was once more obliged to leave his capital in 1815, when Joachim Murat, with the design of effecting the independence of Italy, took the field against Austria. Ferdinand retired to Pisa and Leghorn, but returned to Florence in April 1815, after the defeat of the Neapolitans by the Austrian general Count Nugent, at Pistoia. By the treaty of Paris of 1817 it was provided that, on the death of Maria Louisa, arch-duchess of Parma, Lucca should also be added to Tuscany, on condition that the arch-duke should cede to the duke of Reichstadt his Bohemian states. Ferdinand lost his first wife, a Neapolitan princess, in 1802, and married in 1821 Mary of Saxony, the eldest sister of his daughter-in-law. He died in June 1824.

FERDINAND VII.—It is very difficult to attain an accurate idea of the character of individuals in high stations. Few men have been portrayed oftener than the late king of Spain, and fewer have been so imperfectly understood. Ferdinand VII., king of Spain and of the Indies, as he styled himself, was the son of Charles IV. and of Maria Louisa de Bourbon, daughter of the infant of Spain, Don Philip, grand-duke of Parma and Placentia, son of Philip V. of Spain; consequently Maria Louisa was cousin and wife of Charles IV., and mother and second cousin of Ferdinand, who was born on the 14th of October, 1784. The heir to the crown of Spain has the title of Prince of Asturias, in which capacity he was recognised in December 1789 by the cortes of the kingdom. Ferdinand VII. was born with a very weak and sickly constitution, and suffered a variety of maladies during his infancy. The preceptors of his youth were all men of great merit. The celebrated canon Escoiquiz was his teacher in ethics, moral philosophy, and history; and the celebrated father Miguel Scio, the author of an excellent translation of the Bible, elected bishop of Segovia, and a man of much learning, superintended his religious and biblical studies. He received lessons in military tactics from Colonel Maturana, an officer of artillery, and a highly meritorious character. Scarcely had Ferdinand passed through the dangers of infancy when he began to experience the hatred of his mother. This hatred was inspired by the prince of peace (Godoy), who saw an insurmountable obstacle to his ambition in the heir-apparent of the crown. Ferdinand was constantly persecuted, and his youth may be said to have been passed in the midst of tribulations. He was for several years deprived of all communication and correspondence, except with the few imbecile courtiers who were appointed to watch his person. In 1801 he was married to Maria Antonia Theresa of Bourbon, a princess of Naples, his cousin. This princess was highly accomplished, and possessed an elevated mind and great independence of character; but Ferdinand, under the influence of the dukes of San Carlos and Infantado, became jealous of his wife, and even offered her some gross insults. After a most difficult labour and long sickness, during



which she was separated from her husband, she fell a victim to violent medicine, and died on the 21st of May, 1806. An apothecary of the court shot himself some months after, leaving a written paper, in which he confessed the part he had taken in the death of the princess.

Ferdinand was married a second time, in 1816, to Maria Isabel of Braganza, princess of Portugal, who died in December 1818 in a fit. He married a third time, on the 2nd of October, 1819, Maria Joseph Amelia, a princess of Saxony, who died in 1829. His fourth wife, Maria Christina, who was born in 1806, is the daughter of the king of Naples.

A short time after the conspiracy against the life of Charles IV. took place Ferdinand was arrested, and a process was instituted to discover the authors of the plot; but, after a great deal of scandal, the natural goodness of Charles induced him to pardon Ferdinand. Several persons of rank were exiled, among them the dukes of San Carlos and Infantado.

Napoleon was consulted by Ferdinand in the year 1807, and Count Beauharnais, the ambassador of Napoleon, promised Ferdinand the support of his master, but the project being discovered it was frustrated. The people, who hated Godoy, thinking that all the harsh treatment which Ferdinand experienced was the effect of the machinations of the prince of peace and the queen, began to talk publicly of the misfortunes of Ferdinand; and neither the decrees of Charles IV. of the 30th of October, 1807, in which he announced to the nation the conduct of his son, nor the step taken by his majesty, of making Napoleon the arbitrator between his son and himself, could induce the nation to believe that his son was in the wrong. From this time the prince of Asturias was the people's idol; and on the 19th of March, 1808, Charles was forced to abdicate the crown in favour of his son. Immediately after the abdication, the ex-king, with his queen, departed for France, and shortly after Ferdinand VII. received an invitation to go to Burgos to meet Napoleon. The new king departed from Madrid in the beginning of April, but when he arrived at Burgos it was intimated to him that he should go as far as Vittoria, and thence to Bayonne, in France. At Bayonne he abdicated, not as is commonly believed, in consequence of force being used, but after mature reflection, and having previously taken the advice of several of the grandees and other persons of rank there, after which the crown was conferred by Napoleon on his brother Joseph, then king of Naples. The grandees, tribunals, and the deputies of the old cortes of the kingdom, swore obedience to the new king; and Ferdinand was sent to Valençay, where he remained till after the disastrous campaign of 1813, when, in consequence of a treaty with Napoleon in the month of December, he returned to Spain. Thus released from a captivity of six years, the young monarch in company with his uncle the infant Don Antonio, and his brother Don Carlos, a confessor, and several of his attendants, reached the Catalonian frontier on the 24th of March, 1814. Marshal Suchet was charged with the safe conduct of the king to the frontiers; and, on the latter's arrival at the limits of the Spanish territory, the decree of the cortes and of the regency was immediately communicated to him.

During his journey nothing could exceed the kind and paternal tone of Ferdinand. He gave the most

unequivocal assurances that, as the common father of his people, he had determined to collect the members of every party under the royal mantle and to form of them but one party. He professed to be perfectly satisfied with the arrangements that had been adopted respecting his approach to the capital, and the restrictions imposed upon his conduct; nor did he exercise a single act of sovereignty while he remained in Catalonia. Taking into view the liberal professions made by Ferdinand at that time, with his subsequent conduct, it is difficult to ascribe his proceedings then to any other motives than those of the basest hypocrisy. Instead of taking the road prescribed by the cortes, through Valencia, the king went by Saragossa, alleging, as the reason of this change, his anxiety to view the ruins of that celebrated city, and thus pay a compliment to its brave inhabitants. At length however he proceeded to Valencia, where he fixed his abode, avoiding Madrid and maintaining the most alarming silence on the subject of the constitution, which he had been requested and required to accept. The cardinal of Bourbon went to obtain his signature and oath; but, on being admitted to an audience, the king insisted on his conforming to the ceremony of ancient usage, that of kissing his hand as a token of vassallage. This act was forbidden by the cortes. The cardinal kissed his hand and was nevertheless exiled, with the loss of a great part of his ecclesiastical emoluments. At length Ferdinand judged himself strong enough, and his decree of Valencia was issued. The cortes were denounced as an illegal body. The decree among other things says, "But, concerning the labours of the present assembly, I declare that my royal intention is, not only not to swear or accede to the said constitution or to any decree of the general and extraordinary cortes, and of the ordinary at the present sitting (those, to wit, which derogate from the rights and prerogatives of my sovereignty established by the constitution and the laws under which the nation has lived in times past), but to pronounce that constitution and such decrees null and of no effect, now or at any other time, as if such decrees and acts had never passed, and that they are entirely abrogated, and without any obligation on my people and subjects, of whatever class or condition, to fulfil or observe them." This perfidious decree ended by declaring that the session of the cortes had ceased, and that whoever should oppose this royal decree should be held guilty of high treason and punished with an infamous death. From the promulgation of the decrees may be dated what has not unappropriately been denominated the reign of terror. Ferdinand, supported by traitors to their oaths, pursued the most despotical course from 1814 till 1820. During those six years a vast number of patriots perished on the scaffold, the possessions on the coast of Africa were thronged with the most virtuous Spaniards, and the foreign ministers did not make the least attempt to save the numerous victims of this most cruel despotism. Ferdinand accepted the constitution with cheerfulness on the night of the 8th of March, 1820, and issued his first decree with the same appearance of good will as he had done the memorable one of July 1815, re-establishing the inquisition. During the time of the constitution he was constantly plotting its destruction, as several chiefs of the royalists who were punished, and others who were not, declared on their trials.

When the armies of France entered Spain in 1823, he left Madrid for Seville, where he remained for a few months, and where he issued his appeal to all classes of Spaniards, young and old, to take up arms and defend the country and its liberties. The approach of the French to Seville made the removal of the government to Cadiz, the cradle of Spanish liberty, necessary; but his majesty refused to depart, under the plea that his conscience did not permit him so to aggravate the evils of his people; however he was willing to go as a simple individual. A regency was formed according to the terms of the constitution, and the king went to Cadiz. While there he entered into a correspondence with the French at Puerto de Santa Maria by means of kites. This correspondence was continued for some time till the authorities put an end to it by sending up other kites; the inhabitants also raised them in great numbers. It is to be observed that the king was restored to his dignity as soon as he arrived at the city. Ferdinand died in 1832, and shortly before his death revoked the Salique law in favour of his daughter, who is now queen of Spain.

FERDUSI, or FERDOUSI, TSHAK BEN SCHERIFFSCHAH, the greatest epic poet of the Persians, who was born at Thus, and flourished about A. D. 1020. His curiosity was excited and gratified by the ancient history of Persia, and he determined to adorn it with the charms of verse. On account of some difficulties he went to Ghizne (Ghazne), where the sultan Mahmoud then held his court, and attracted and collected the poets and learned men by his patronage. He entered the gardens of the royal palace, and found Anasari, the poet of the sultan, in one of the arbours, with two of his disciples, engaged in making extempore verses. Ferdusi approached them and joined them in their occupation. Anasari, astonished to hear a stranger in peasant's clothing express himself with so much elegance, entered into conversation with him, discovered the purpose of his visit, and informed the sultan. Mahmoud afterwards ordered him to finish the Persian work, the ancient "Shanameh" or "Bastanameh," literally, The Old Book, which contains the history of Persia, and which had been begun by Dakiki, and continued a century later by Ansseri, promising him a piece of gold for each verse. Ferdusi devoted ten years of the latter part of his life to this work, and produced a historical poem of 60,000 verses, entitled "Shanameh," or Book of the Kings, containing the history of the Persians from Nourshirvan to Yezdegerd, and consisting properly of a succession of historical epics. The achievements of the hero Rustan, the Persian Hercules, form one of the finest episodes. Ferdusi presented his poem to the sultan, whose favour had been alienated by the calumnies of the enemies of the poet, and who gave him only a piece of silver for each verse. Indignant at this treatment, Ferdusi struck out a number of verses in praise of Mahmoud, which he had inserted in his poem, and composed a bitter satire on the sultan. Compelled to fly, he retired to Thus, where he lived in concealment. Meantime Mahmoud became sensible of his injustice; and, having ascertained that Ferdusi was still alive and in want, he ordered twelve camels loaded with rich presents to be sent to the poet. They arrived at the door of his house as his corpse was brought out for burial. The "Shanameh" is one of the finest Asiatic poems. No

work in the Persian language can be compared with it. It is inestimable as a history, although as yet but little used.

FERGUSON, ADAM, an eminent Scottish writer, who was born in 1724. He completed his scholastic education at St. Andrew's. He afterwards studied for the ministry at Edinburgh, and was appointed chaplain to the forty-second regiment. In 1759 he was appointed professor of natural philosophy, whence he was removed to the moral philosophy chair. In 1767 he published his "Essay on Civil Society," a subject intimately connected both with his studies and his professional pursuits. This, which is his first work in point of time, contributed not a little to raise him in the estimation of both his contemporaries and the public. The university accordingly hastened to confer the degree of LL.D., and soon derived no small accession of splendour from his increasing celebrity. Soon after this he once more revisited his native village, and in the course of the same year married the niece of Dr. Black, a young lady who came, like his own mother, from the shire of Aberdeen, and whose maiden name was Burnet.



Dr. Ferguson's second work, consisting of "Institutes, or a Synopsis of Lectures," was published nearly about the same time, for the use of the students in his class. It served them at once as a text-book for reference, and a chart for directing their course in the various branches of moral and political science through which they were destined to steer under his management. As his situation became daily more prosperous, and independence, if not affluence, was now within his grasp, he selected a country residence, where he occasionally resided during the vacation, and amused himself with viewing and participating in the labours of his little farm. In town he was enabled to cultivate an acquaintance with such of his countrymen as were likely to prove serviceable or agreeable either by their influence or their abilities; indeed his merits were so generally acknowledged as to make him courted by all ranks and descriptions of persons.

In 1773 Dr. Ferguson went to the continent, and afterwards was appointed to an official office in America. Dr. Ferguson, at an advanced period of



life, conceived the extraordinary resolution of visiting Rome and viewing in person the scenes of those great events which he had described in his History. He accordingly repaired once more to the continent, and visited Berlin and Vienna, in both of which cities he was received with great attention and politeness, in consequence of letters of introduction from a pupil who had been recently there. He then proceeded southward, but was prevented by the events of the French revolution from residing long abroad.

On his return once more to his native country Dr. Ferguson settled at St. Andrew's, a place endeared to him from early habits, and admirably fitted, indeed, for the retirement of a literary man in easy circumstances. Here he was enabled to converse with many able scholars belonging to the university, and also to visit a number of agreeable and well-informed persons, who like himself had been induced to sojourn in this place. It was here that Dr. Ferguson spent the remainder of his days in ease, comfort, and happiness. His company was still courted by all around him; and death, instead of assailing him suddenly by means of acute and painful diseases, approached his couch gradually and without terror. He accordingly resigned his life at an age which may be deemed patriarchal, dying February 22d, 1816.

Dr. Ferguson was the author of many works, but he is best known by his "History of the Roman Republic," which has had an immense sale from the time of its publication. His "Treatise on Moral and Political Science" is also a valuable work. He was eager on all occasions to "vindicate the ways of God to man," of which we may take an example in his best style.

"All nature is connected," says he, "and the world itself consists of parts, which, like the stones of an arch, mutually support, and are supported. This order of things consists of movements, which, in a state of counteraction and apparent disturbance, mutually regulate and balance one another. Elements that sink by their weight are raised by evaporation; the hardest bodies are subject to dissolution, or, in the form of dust suspended in water or air, partake of the volubility of these fluids. Vapours raised from the surface of the sea are wafted over land by the winds; and the clouds which they form under various changes of temperature are made to discharge part of their moisture to nourish the race of plants and animals.

"The descending fluid, that would penetrate the pores of the earth to its centre, is intercepted by impenetrable strata of rock or of clay, from which it gushes on the declivity of hills in the form of springs, and descends in rivulets and streams to the ocean, from which it is again raised, to burst upon the earth in rain and storms. Thus, what appears the war of the elements is the peace of that world they compose. The winds are instruments of beneficence. Rain and snow are the gifts of bounty. What seems to be irregular is the perfection of order; the rugged crag and broken hill give a sheltered recess to many inhabitants, and, in all their asperity, fit up the residence of animals and adorn the prospect for man."

This quotation may also be considered a fair specimen of that style and manner which distinguished the amiable author, and rivetted the atten-

tion of his admiring auditors. The following also exhibits another example of his composition:—

"While the quadruped has the trunk of his body parallel with the ground and bearing on four supports, man carries from afar the aspect of a column erected on a narrow base. Whatever be the posture to which he has recourse for repose, he is ever ready for the purpose of motion, observation, expression, or action of any sort, to raise himself on end, and is furnished with articulations and muscles to assume this posture and to retain it with ease and safety. He alone, of all the animals, exhibits the distinction of hand and foot: the first an instrument of art, a weapon of defence, and an organ of expression; the other fitly shaped for a base on which he may stand, or with which he may practise the step that protrudes him along in his walk. Other animals are either four-footed or four-handed, according as they are destined to tread upon the ground, or, subsisting in woods, to climb aloft on the branches of trees, from which to gather their food.

"Next to the general aspect and carriage of the person, the form and capacity of the head and countenance give its most conspicuous distinction to the human figure. A dome comparatively larger and more capacious than the skull of any other animal is raised over the features of the countenance, in which are collected many organs of perception or expression that connect immediately with the feelings and operations of mind. Instead of the muzzle or snout projecting forward into a species of forceps or pincers, which distinguish the brute, the corresponding parts in the human figure are retired among the features in the countenance, become an organ of speech, or, next to the eye itself, have the most powerful effect in the silent expression which often results from the general state of the features."

*Adam Ferguson*

FERGUSON, JAMES.—This extraordinary self-educated individual may be considered as the earliest itinerant teacher of popular science in our island, and his labours paved the way for the extraordinary diffusion of natural and mechanical philosophy which peculiarly characterizes the present period. The life of Ferguson was one of considerable vicissitude, and it is so simply and admirably displayed in the sketch written by himself and prefixed by the editor of the present work to his edition of "Ferguson's Lectures" that we cannot do better than take it as it stands:—

I was born (he says) in the year 1710, a few miles from Keith, a little village in Banffshire, in the north of Scotland, and can with pleasure say that my parents, though poor, were religious and honest, lived in good repute with all who knew them, and died with good characters.

As my father had nothing to support a large family but his daily labour and the profits arising from a few acres of land which he rented, it was not to be expected that he could bestow much on the education of his children; yet they were not neglected; for, at his leisure hours, he taught them to read and write. And it was while he was teaching my elder brother to read the Scotch Catechism that I acquired my reading. Ashamed to ask my father to instruct me, I used, when he and my brother were abroad, to take the Catechism and study the lesson which he

had been teaching my brother; and when any difficulty occurred, I went to a neighbouring old woman, who gave me such help as enabled me to read tolerably well before my father had thought of teaching me.

Some time after he was agreeably surprised to find me reading by myself; he thereupon gave me further instruction and also taught me to write, which, with about three months I afterwards had at the grammar-school at Keith, was all the education I ever received.

My taste for mechanics arose from an odd accident. When about seven or eight years of age, a part of the roof of the house being decayed, my father, desirous of mending it, applied a prop and lever to an upright spar to raise it to its former situation; and, to my great astonishment, I saw him, without considering the reason, lift up the ponderous roof as if it had been a small weight. I attributed this at first to a degree of strength that excited my terror as well as wonder; but, thinking further of the matter, I recollected that he had applied his strength to that end of the lever which was furthest from the prop; and, finding on enquiry that this was the means whereby the seeming wonder was effected, I began making levers (which I then called bars), and, by applying weights to them different ways, I found the power gained by my bar was just in proportion to the lengths of the different parts of the bar on either side of the prop. I then thought it was a great pity that, by means of this bar, a weight could be raised but a very little way. On this I soon imagined that, by pulling round a wheel, the weight might be raised to any height by tying a rope to the weight, and winding the rope round the axle of the wheel, and that the power gained must be just as great as the wheel was broader than the axle was thick, and found it to be exactly so, by hanging one weight to a rope put round the wheel and another to the rope that coiled round the axle. So that in these two machines it appeared very plain that their advantage was as great as the space gone through by the working power exceeded the space gone through by the weight, and this property I also thought must take place in a wedge for cleaving wood; but then I happened not to think of the screw. By means of a turning lathe which my father had, and sometimes used, and a little knife, I was enabled to make wheels and other things necessary for my purpose.

I then wrote a short account of these machines and sketched out figures of them with a pen, imagining it to be the first treatise of the kind that ever was written, but found my mistake when I afterwards showed it to a gentleman, who told me that these things were known long before, and showed me a printed book in which they were treated of; and I was much pleased when I found that my account (so far as I had carried it) agreed with the principles of mechanics in the book he showed me. And from that time my mind preserved a constant tendency to improve in that science.

But as my father could not afford to maintain me while I was in pursuit of these matters only, and I was rather too young and weak for hard labour, he put me out to a neighbour to keep sheep, which I continued to do for some years, and in that time I used to study the stars in the night. In the day-time I amused myself by making models of mills, spinning-wheels, and such other things as I happened to see.

I then went to serve a considerable farmer in the neighbourhood whose name was James Glashan. I found him very kind and indulgent, but he soon observed that, in the evenings when my work was over, I went into a field with a blanket about me, lay down on my back, and stretched a thread with small beads upon it, at arms' length, between my eye and the stars, sliding the beads upon it till they hid such and such stars from my eye, in order to take their apparent distances from one another; and then, laying a thread down on a paper, I marked the stars thereon by the beads according to their respective positions, having a candle by me. My master at first laughed at me, but when I explained my meaning to him he encouraged me to go on; and, that I might make fair copies in the day-time of what I had done in the night, he often worked for me himself. I shall always have a respect for the memory of that man.

One day he happened to send me with a message to the Rev. Mr. John Gilchrist, minister at Keith, to whom I had been known from my childhood. I carried my star papers to show them to him, and found him looking over a large parcel of maps, which I surveyed with great pleasure as they were the first I had ever seen. He then told me that the earth is round like a ball and explained the map of it to me. I requested him to lend me that map to take a copy of it in the evenings. He cheerfully consented to this, giving me at the same time a pair of compasses, a ruler, pens, ink, and paper, and dismissing me with an injunction not to neglect my master's business by copying the map, which I might keep as long as I pleased.

For this pleasant employment my master gave me more time than I could reasonably expect, and often took the threshing-flail out of my hands and worked himself, while I sat by him in the barn busy with my compasses, ruler, and pen.

When I had finished the copy I asked leave to carry home the map; he told me I was at liberty to do so, and might stay two hours to converse with the minister. In my way thither I happened to pass by the school at which I had been before, and saw a genteel-looking man, whose name I afterwards learned was Cantley, painting a sun-dial on the wall. I stopped awhile to observe him, and the school-master came out and asked me what parcel it was that I had under my arm. I showed him the map, and the copy I had made of it, wherewith he appeared to be very well pleased, and asked me whether I should not like to learn of Mr. Cantley to make sundials. Mr. Cantley looked at the copy of the map and commended it much, telling the schoolmaster (Mr. John Skinner) that it was a pity I did not meet with notice and encouragement. I had a good deal of conversation with him, and found him to be quite affable and communicative, which made me think I should be extremely happy if I could be further acquainted with him.

I then proceeded with the map to the minister and showed him the copy of it. While we were conversing together, a neighbouring gentleman, Thomas Grant, Esq., of Achoynean, happened to come in, and the minister immediately introduced me to him, showing him what I had done. He expressed great satisfaction, asked me some questions about the construction of maps, and told me that, if I would go and live at his house, he would order his butler, Alexander Cantley, to give me a great deal of instruction



Finding that this Cantley was the man whom I had seen painting the sun-dial, and of whom I had already conceived a very high opinion, I told Squire Grant that I should rejoice to be at his house as soon as the time was expired for which I was engaged with my present master. He very politely offered to put one in my place; but this I declined.

When the term of my servitude was out I left my good master and went to the gentleman's house, where I quickly found myself with a most humane good family. Mr. Cantley the butler soon became my friend, and continued so till his death. He was the most extraordinary man that ever I was acquainted with, or perhaps ever shall see; for he was a complete master of arithmetic, a good mathematician, a master of music on every known instrument except the harp, understood Latin, French, and Greek, let blood extremely well, and could even prescribe as a physician upon any urgent occasion. He was what is generally called self-taught; but I think he might with much greater propriety have been termed God Almighty's scholar.

He immediately began to teach me decimal arithmetic and algebra; for I had already learned vulgar arithmetic, at my leisure hours, from books. He then proceeded to teach me the elements of geometry; but to my inexpressible grief, just as I was beginning that branch of science, he left Mr. Grant and went to the late earl of Fife's, at several miles' distance. The good family I was then with could not prevail with me to stay after he was gone; so I left them and went to my father's.

He had made me a present of Gordon's "Geographical Grammar," which at that time was to me a great treasure. There is no figure of a globe in it, although it contains a tolerable description of the globes and their use. From this description I made a globe in three weeks at my father's, having turned the ball thereof out of a piece of wood, which ball I covered with paper and delineated a map of the world upon it, made the meridian ring and horizon of wood, covered them with paper and graduated them, and was happy to find that by my globe (which was the first I ever saw) I could solve the problems.

But this was not likely to afford me bread, and I could not think of staying with my father, who I knew full well could not maintain me in that way, as it could be of no service to him; and he had without my assistance hands sufficient for all his work.

I then went to a miller, thinking it would be a very easy business to attend the mill, and that I should have a great deal of leisure time to study decimal arithmetic and geometry. But my master, being too fond of tipping at an ale-house, left the whole care of the mill to me, and almost starved me for want of victuals; so that I was glad when I could have a little oatmeal mixed with cold water to eat. I was engaged for a year in that man's service, at the end of which I left him, and returned in a very weak state to my father's.

Soon after I had recovered my former strength, a neighbouring farmer, who practised as a physician in that part of the country, came to my father's, wanting to have me as a labouring servant. My father advised me to go to Dr. Young, telling me that the doctor would instruct me in that part of his business. This he promised to do, which was a temptation to me. But, instead of performing his promise,

he kept me constantly to very hard labour and never once showed me one of his books. All his servants complained that he was the hardest master they had ever lived with; and it was my misfortune to be engaged with him for half a year. But at the end of three months I was so overwrought that I was almost disabled, which obliged me to leave him; and he was so unjust as to give me nothing at all for the time I had been with him, because I did not complete my half-year's service, though he knew that I was not able, and had seen me working for the last fortnight as much as possible with one hand and arm, when I could not lift the other from my side. And, what I thought was particularly hard, he never once tried to give me the least relief, further than once bleeding me, which rather did me hurt than good, as I was very weak and much emaciated. I then went to my father's, where I was confined for two months on account of my hurt, and despaired of ever recovering the use of my left arm; and during all that time the doctor never once came to see me, although the distance was not quite two miles. But my friend Mr. Cantley, hearing of my misfortune at twelve miles' distance, sent me proper medicines and applications, by means of which I recovered the use of my arm, but found myself too weak to think of going into service again, and had entirely lost my appetite, so that I could take nothing but a draught of milk once a-day for many weeks.

In order to amuse myself in this low state I made a wooden clock, the frame of which was also of wood, and it kept time pretty well. The bell, on which the hammer struck the hours, was the neck of a broken bottle.

Having then no idea how any time-keeper could go but by a weight and a line, I wondered how a watch could go in all positions, and was sorry that I had never thought of asking Mr. Cantley, who could very easily have informed me. But happening one day to see a gentleman ride by my father's house (which was close by a public road), I asked him what o'clock it then was; he looked at his watch and told me. As he did that with so much good nature I begged of him to show me the inside of his watch, and though he was an entire stranger he immediately opened the watch and put it into my hands. I saw the spring-box with part of the chain round it, and asked him what it was that made the box turn round; he told me that it was turned round by a steel spring within it. Having then never seen any other spring than that of my father's gun-lock, I asked how a spring within a box could turn the box so often round as to wind all the chain upon it. He answered that the spring was long and thin,—that one end of it was fastened to the axis of the box, and the other end to the inside of the box,—that the axis was fixed and the box was loose upon it. I told him I did not yet thoroughly understand the matter. "Well, my lad," says he, "take a long thin piece of whalebone, hold one end of it fast between your finger and thumb, and wind it round your finger; it will then endeavour to unwind itself; and if you fix the other end of it to the inside of a small hoop, and leave it to itself, it will turn the hoop round and round and wind up a thread tied to the outside of the hoop." I thanked the gentleman and told him that I understood the thing very well. I then tried to make a watch with wooden wheels, and made the spring of whalebone; but found that I could not make the watch go when the balance

was put on, because the teeth of the wheels were rather too weak to bear the force of a spring sufficient to move the balance, although the wheels would run fast enough when the balance was taken off. I enclosed the whole in a wooden case, very little bigger than a breakfast tea-cup; but a clumsy neighbour one day looking at my watch happened to let it fall, and, turning hastily about to pick it up, set his foot upon it, and crushed it all to pieces, which so provoked my father that he was almost ready to beat the man, and discouraged me so much that I never attempted to make such another machine again, especially as I was thoroughly convinced that I could never make one that would be of any real use.

As soon as I was able to go abroad, I carried my globe, clock, and copies of some other maps besides that of the world, to the late Sir James Dunbar of Durn (about seven miles from where my father lived), as I had heard that Sir James was a very good-natured, friendly, inquisitive gentleman. He received me in a very kind manner, was pleased with what I showed him, and desired that I would clean his clocks. This, for the first time, I attempted, and then began to pick up some money in that way about the country, making Sir James's house my home, at his desire.

Two large globular stones stood on the top of his gate; on one of them I painted (with oil colours) a map of the terrestrial globe, and on the other a map of the celestial, from a planisphere of the stars which I copied on paper from a celestial globe belonging to a neighbouring gentleman. The poles of the painted globes stood towards the poles of the heavens; on each the twenty-four hours were placed around the equinoctial, so as to show the time of day when the sun shone out, by the boundary where the half of the globe at any time enlightened by the sun was parted from the other half in the shade, the enlightened parts of the terrestrial globe answering to the like enlightened parts of the earth at all times. So that whenever the sun shone on the globe one might see to what places the sun was then rising, to what places it was setting, and all the places where it was then day or night throughout the earth.

During the time I was at Sir James's hospitable house, his sister, the honourable lady Dipple, came there on a visit, and Sir James introduced me to her. She asked me whether I could draw patterns for needlework on aprons and gowns. On showing me some I undertook the work and drew several for her, some of which were copied from her patterns, and the rest I did according to my own fancy. On this I was sent for by other ladies in the country, and began to think myself growing very rich by the money I got for such drawings, out of which I had the pleasure of occasionally supplying the wants of my poor father.

Yet all this while I could not leave off star-gazing in the nights, and taking the places of the planets among the stars by my above-mentioned thread. By this I could observe how the planets changed their places among the stars, and delineated their paths on the celestial map, which I had copied from the above-mentioned celestial globe.

By observing what constellations the ecliptic passed through in that map, and comparing these with the starry heaven, I was so impressed as sometimes to imagine that I saw the ecliptic in the heaven among the stars, like a broad circular road for the sun's apparent course, and fancied the paths of the

planets to resemble the narrow ruts made by cart-wheels, sometimes on one side of a plain road, and sometimes on the other, crossing the road at small angles, but never going far from either side of it.

Sir James's house was full of pictures and prints, several of which I copied with pen and ink. This made him think I might become a painter.

Lady Dipple had been but a few weeks there when William Baird, Esq., of Auchmedden, came on a visit. He was the husband of one of that lady's daughters, and I found him to be very ingenious and communicative. He invited me to go to his house, and stay some time with him, telling me that I should have free access to his library, which was a very large one, and that he would furnish me with all sorts of implements for drawing. I went thither and staid about eight months, but was much disappointed in finding no books on astronomy in his library, except what was in the two volumes of Harris's "Lexicon Technicum," although there were many books on geography and other sciences: several of these indeed were in Latin and more in French, which being languages that I did not understand, I had recourse to him for what I wanted to know of these subjects, which he cheerfully read to me; and it was as easy for him, at sight, to read English from a Greek, Latin, or French book, as from an English one. He furnished me with pencils and Indian ink, showing me how to draw with them; and although he had but an indifferent hand at that work, yet he was a very acute judge, and consequently a very fit person for showing me how to correct my own work. He was the first who ever sat to me for a picture, and I found it was much easier to draw from the life than from any picture whatever, as nature was more striking than any imitation of it.

Lady Dipple came to his house in about half a year after I went thither, and, as they thought I had a genius for painting, they consulted together about what might be the best way to put me forward. Mr. Baird thought it would be no difficult matter to make a collection for me among the neighbouring gentlemen, to put me to a painter at Edinburgh; but he found, upon trial, that nothing worth the while could be done among them. And as to himself he could not do much that way because he had but a small estate and a very numerous family. Lady Dipple told me that she was to go to Edinburgh next spring, and that if I would go thither she would give me a year's bed and board at her house gratis, and make all the interest she could for me among her acquaintance there. I thankfully accepted of her kind offer; and, instead of giving me one year, she gave me two. I carried with me a letter of recommendation from Lord Pittsigo (a near neighbour of Squire Baird) to Mr. John Alexander, a painter in Edinburgh, who allowed me to pass an hour every day at his house for a month, to copy from his drawings, and said he would teach me to paint in oil-colours, if I would serve him seven years and my friends would maintain me all that time. But this was too much for me to desire them to do; nor did I choose to serve so long. I was then recommended to other painters, but they would do nothing without money. So I was quite at a loss what to do.

In a few days after this I received a letter of recommendation from my good friend Squire Baird to the Rev. Dr Robert Keith, at Edinburgh, to whom I gave an account of my bad success among the



painters there. He told me that, if I would copy from nature, I might do without their assistance, as all the rules for drawing signified but very little when one came to draw from the life; and, by what he had seen of my drawings brought from the north, he judged I might succeed very well in drawing pictures from the life, in Indian ink on vellum. He then sat to me for his own picture, and sent me with it and a letter of recommendation to the right honourable lady Jane Douglas, who lived with her mother, the marchioness of Douglas, at Merchiston House, near Edinburgh. Both the marchioness and Lady Jane behaved to me in the most friendly manner, on Dr. Keith's account, and sat for their pictures; telling me at the same time that I was in the very room in which Lord Napier invented and computed the logarithms, and that if I thought it would inspire me I should always have the same room whenever I came to Merchiston. I staid there several days, and drew several pictures of Lady Jane, of whom it was hard to say whether the greatness of her beauty or the goodness of her temper and disposition was the most predominant. She sent these pictures to ladies of her acquaintance in order to recommend me to them, by which means I soon had as much business as I could possibly manage, so as not only to put a good deal of money into my own pocket, but also to spare what was sufficient to help to supply my father and mother in their old age. Thus a business was providentially put into my hands, which I followed for six and twenty years.

Lady Dipple, being a woman of the strictest piety, kept a watchful eye over me at first, and made me give her an exact account at night of what families I had been in throughout the day and of the money I had received. She took the money each night, desiring I would keep an account of what I had put into her hands, telling me that I should duly have out of it what I wanted for clothes and to send to my father. But in less than half a year she told me that she would thenceforth trust me with being my own banker; for she had made a good deal of private enquiry how I had behaved when I was out of her sight through the day, and was satisfied with my conduct.

During my two years' stay at Edinburgh, I somehow took a violent inclination to study anatomy, surgery, and physic, all from reading of books and conversing with gentlemen on these subjects, which for that time put all thoughts of astronomy out of my mind; and I had no inclination to become acquainted with any one there who taught either mathematics or astronomy, for nothing would serve me but to be a doctor.

At the end of the second year I left Edinburgh and went to see my father, thinking myself tolerably well qualified to be a physician in that part of the country; and I carried a good deal of medicines, plasters, &c., thither. But to my mortification I soon found that all my medical theories and study were of little use in practice. And then finding that very few paid me for the medicines they had, and that I was far from being so successful as I could wish, I quite left off that business and began to think of taking to the more sure one of drawing pictures again. For this purpose I went to Inverness, where I had eight months' business.

When I was there I began to think of astronomy again, and was heartily sorry for having quite ne-

lected it at Edinburgh, where I might have improved my knowledge by conversing with those who were very able to assist me. I began to compare the ecliptic with its twelve signs (through which the sun goes in twelve months) to the circle of twelve hours on the dial-plate of a watch, the hour-hand to the sun, and the minute-hand to the moon, moving in the ecliptic, the one always overtaking the other at a place forwarder than it did at their last conjunction before. On this I contrived and finished a scheme on paper for showing the motions and places of the sun and moon in the ecliptic on each day of the year perpetually, and consequently the days of all the new and full moons.

To this I wanted to add a method for showing the eclipses of the sun and moon, of which I knew the cause long before by having observed that the moon was, for one half of her period, on the north side of the ecliptic and for the other half on the south. But having not observed her course long enough among the stars by my above-mentioned thread, so as to delineate her path on my celestial map, in order to find the two opposite points of the ecliptic in which her orbit crosses it, I was altogether at a loss how and where in the ecliptic (in my scheme) to place these intersecting points; this was in the year 1739.

At last I recollected that when I was with Squire Grant, of Achnan, in the year 1730, I had read that, on the first of January, 1690, the moon's ascending node was in the tenth minute of the first degree of Aries, and that her nodes moved backward through the whole ecliptic in eighteen years and 224 days, which was at the rate of three minutes eleven seconds every twenty-four hours. But as I scarcely knew, in the year 1730, what the moon's nodes meant, I took no further notice of it that time.

However in the year 1739 I set to work at Inverness, and, after a tedious calculation of the slow motion of the nodes from January 1690 to January 1740, it appeared to me that (if I was sure I had remembered right) the moon's ascending node must be in twenty-three degrees twenty-five minutes of Cancer, at the beginning of the year 1740. And so I added the eclipse-part of my scheme, and called it the astronomical rotula.

When I had finished it I showed it to the Rev. Mr. Alexander Mac Bean, one of the ministers at Inverness, who told me he had a set of almanacks by him for several years past, and would examine it by the eclipses mentioned in them. We examined it together, and found that it agreed throughout with the days of all the new and full moons and eclipses mentioned in these almanacks, which made me think I had constructed it upon true astronomical principles. On this Mr. Mac Bean desired me to write to Mr. Mac Laurin, professor of the mathematics at Edinburgh, and give him an account of the methods by which I had formed my plan, requesting him to correct it where it was wrong. He returned me a most polite and friendly answer (although I had never seen him during my stay at Edinburgh), and informed me that I had only mistaken the radical mean place of the ascending node by a quarter of a degree, and that, if I would send the drawing of my rotula to him, he would examine it and endeavour to procure me a subscription to defray the charges of engraving it on copper-plates, if I chose to publish it. I then made a new and correct drawing of it, and sent it to him, who soon got me a very hand-

some subscription by setting the example himself, and sending subscription-papers to others.

I then returned to Edinburgh and had the rotula-plates engraved there by Mr. Cooper. It has gone through several impressions, and always sold very well till the year 1752, when the style was changed, which rendered it quite useless. Mr. Mac Laurin received me with the greatest civility when I first went to see him at Edinburgh. He then became an exceedingly good friend to me, and continued so till his death.

One day I requested him to show me his orrery, which he immediately did. I was greatly delighted with the motions of the earth and moon in it, and would gladly have seen the wheel-work, which was concealed in a brass box, and the box and planets above it were surrounded by an armillary sphere. But he told me that he never had opened it; and I could easily perceive that it could not be opened but by the hand of some ingenious clock-maker, and not without a great deal of time and trouble.

After a good deal of thinking and calculation I found that I could contrive the wheel-work for turning the planets in such a machine and giving them their progressive motions, but should be very well satisfied if I could make an orrery to show the motions of the earth and moon and of the sun round its axis. I then employed a turner to make me a sufficient number of wheels and axles, according to patterns which I gave him in drawing; and after having cut the teeth in the wheels by a knife, and put the whole together, I found that it answered all my expectations. It showed the sun's motion round his axis, the diurnal and annual motions of the earth on its inclined axis (which kept its parallelism in its whole course round the sun), the motions and phases of the moon, with the retrograde motion of the nodes of her orbit, and consequently all the variety of seasons, the different lengths of days and nights, the days of the new and full moons, and eclipses.

When it was all completed, except the box that covers the wheels, I showed it to Mr. Mac Laurin, who commended it in the presence of a great many young gentlemen who attended his lectures. He desired me to read them a lecture on it, which I did without any hesitation, seeing I had no reason to be afraid of speaking before a great and good man who was my friend. Soon after that I sent it in a present to the reverend and ingenious Mr. Alexander Irvine, one of the ministers at Elgin in Scotland.

I then made a smaller and neater orrery, of which all the wheels were of ivory, and I cut the teeth in them with a file. This was done in the beginning of the year 1743; and in May that year I brought it with me to London, where it was soon after bought by Sir Dudley Ryder. I have made six orreries since that time, and there are not any two of them in which the wheel-work is alike; for I could never bear to copy one thing of that kind from another, because I still saw there was great room for improvements.

I had a letter of recommendation from Mr. Baron Eldin at Edinburgh to the right honourable Stephen Poyntz, Esq., at St. James's, who had been preceptor to his royal highness the late duke of Cumberland, and was well known to be possessed of all the good qualities that can adorn a human mind. To me his goodness was really beyond my power of expression; and I had not been a month in London till he informed me that he had wrote to an eminent pro-

fessor of mathematics to take me into his house, and give me board and lodging, with all proper instructions to qualify me for teaching a mathematical school he (Mr. Poyntz) had in view for me, and would get me settled in it. This I should have liked very well, especially as I began to be tired of drawing pictures, in which I confess I never strove to excel, because my mind was still pursuing things more agreeable. He soon after told me he had just received an answer from the mathematical master, desiring I might be sent immediately to him. On hearing this I told Mr. Poyntz that I did not know how to maintain my wife during the time I must be under the master's tuition. "What," says he, "are you a married man?" I told him I had been so ever since May in the year 1739. He said he was sorry for it, because it quite defeated his scheme, as the master of the school he had in view for me must be a bachelor.

He then asked me, what business I intended to follow? I answered, that I knew of none besides that of drawing pictures. On this he desired me to draw the pictures of his lady and children, that he might show them in order to recommend me to others; and told me that, when I was out of business, I should come to him, and he would find me as much as he could, and I soon found as much as I could execute; but he died in a few years after, to my inexpressible grief.

Soon afterwards it appeared to me that, although the moon goes round the earth and that the sun is far on the outside of the moon's orbit, yet the moon's motion must be in a line that is always concave towards the sun; and, upon making a delineation representing her absolute path in the heavens, I found it to be really so. I then made a simple machine for delineating both her path and the earth's on a long paper laid on the floor. I carried the machine and delineation to the late Martin Folkes, Esq., president of the Royal Society, on a Thursday afternoon. He expressed great satisfaction at seeing it, as it was a new discovery, and took me that evening with him to the Royal Society, where I showed the delineation and the method of doing it.

When the business of the society was over one of the members desired me to dine with him next Saturday at Hackney, telling me that his name was Ellicott, and that he was a watch-maker.

I accordingly went to Hackney and was kindly received by Mr. John Ellicott, who then showed me the very same kind of delineation and part of the machine by which he had done it, telling me that he had thought of it twenty years before. I could easily see, by the colour of the paper and of the ink lines upon it, that it must have been done many years before I saw it. He then told me, what was very certain, that he had neither stolen the thought from me nor had I from him; and from that time till his death Mr. Ellicott was one of my best friends. The figure of this machine and delineation is in the seventh plate of my book of Astronomy.

Soon after the style was changed I had my rotula new engraved, but have neglected it too much by not fitting it up and advertising it. After this I drew out a scheme, and had it engraved, for showing all the problems of the rotula except the eclipses; and in place of that it shows the times of rising and setting of the sun, moon, and stars, and the positions of the stars for any time of the night.



In the year 1477 I published a "Dissertation on the Phenomena of the Harvest Moon," with the description of a new orrery, in which there were only four wheels. But having never had a grammatical education, nor time to study the rules of just composition, I acknowledge that I was afraid to put it to press; and for the same cause I ought to have the same fears still. But having the pleasure to find that this, my first work, was not ill received, I was emboldened to go on in publishing my *Astronomy*, *Mechanical Lectures*, *Tables and Tracts* relative to several Arts and Sciences, "*The Young Gentleman and Lady's Astronomy*," a small treatise on *Electricity*.

In the year 1748 I ventured to read lectures on the eclipse of the sun that fell on the fourteenth of July in that year. Afterwards I began to read astronomical lectures on an orrery which I made, and of which the figures of all the wheel-work are contained in the sixth and seventh plates of this book. I next began to make an apparatus for lectures on mechanics, and gradually increased the apparatus for other parts of experimental philosophy, buying from others what I could not make for myself, till I brought it to its present state. I then entirely left off drawing pictures, and employed myself in the much pleasanter business of reading lectures on mechanics, hydrostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, electricity, and astronomy, in all which my encouragement has been greater than I could have expected.

At the period when our author concludes his memoir, he had acquired a large funded property, and appeared likely to enjoy a considerable share of that repose which his previous labours so justly merited. A series of misfortunes however were prepared for the evening of a well-spent life. His daughter, an elegant and accomplished young lady, suddenly disappeared, and his eldest son suffered shipwreck, narrowly escaping with his life. These and other circumstances of a similar nature gradually impaired his health, which, naturally delicate, ultimately sunk under a series of accumulated infirmities, and he died on the 16th of November, 1776.

*James Ferguson.*

FERGUSON, ROBERT, a Scottish poet of considerable celebrity, who was born in 1750, and educated partly at Edinburgh, and partly at the university of St. Andrew's, where his great application and turn for poetry obtained him the patronage of Dr. Wilkie, himself a poet and author of the "*Epigoniad*;" but, some gross irregularities having procured him to be expelled, he returned to Edinburgh, without resolving on any permanent employment. Having an opulent relation, he visited him, in hopes by his interest to procure some sinecure place; but at the end of six months this relation ordered him abruptly to leave his house, and Ferguson returned to Edinburgh stung with indignation; and as soon as he recovered from a severe illness, brought on by disappointment and the fatigue of his journey, he composed two elegies, one on "*The Decay of Friendship*," and the other "*Against repining at Fortune*." He was now so destitute that he submitted to copy papers in a public office; but not liking the employ-

ment, and quarrelling with his employer, he soon left the office in disgust.

Hitherto he had lived rather in obscurity, and happy had it been for him if he had been suffered to remain in that obscurity; but, possessing an inexhaustible fund of wit and good nature, he was viewed with affection by all to whom he was known, and his powers of song, and almost unrivalled talent for mimicry, led him oftener into the company of those who wished for him merely to enliven a social hour, than of such as by their virtue were inclined, or by their influence were able, to procure him a competent settlement for life. The consequence of this was great laxity of manners, and much of his life was disgraced by actions which in his cooler moments he reflected on with abhorrence. His conscience indeed was frequently roused, and once so powerfully that all his vivacity forsook him. From this state of gloom, however, he gradually recovered, and, except that a settled melancholy was visible in his countenance, had apparently recovered his health, when one evening he fell and received a violent contusion on the head, which was followed by a delirium that rendered it necessary for his friends to remove him to the lunatic hospital of Edinburgh, where, after two months' confinement, he died, October 16, 1774.

FERNE, SIR JOHN, an eminent English antiquary, who was born in Lincolnshire. At the commencement of the reign of James I. he received the honour of knighthood, and was created at the same time secretary, and keeper of the king's signet of the council established at York, for the northern parts of England. He probably died about 1610, leaving several sons behind him, of whom Henry, the youngest, was afterwards created bishop of Chester. In 1586 Sir John published "*The Blazon of Gentry, divided into Two Parts*," &c. This is written in dialogues, and, though in a language uncommonly quaint and tedious, contains critical accounts of arms, principles of precedence, remarks upon the times, &c., which are very curious. The nobility of the Lacys, earls of Lincoln, which forms a part of it, was written in consequence of Albert a Lasco, a noble German, coming to England in 1583, and claiming affinity to this family of Lacy, and from this, Ferne says, he was induced to open their descents, their arms, marriages, and lives. The work is curious, and during the century that elapsed after its publication, before the appearance of Dugdale's "*Baronage*," must have been very valuable.

FERRAR, ROBERT, an English prelate, who was born early in the sixteenth century at Halifax in Yorkshire. He was educated at Oxford and Cambridge, and was chosen prior of the monastery of St. Oswald, which dignity he surrendered on the dissolution in 1540, and received a pension of 100*l.* per annum as an equivalent. Early embracing the principles of the Reformation, he was made bishop of St. David's by Edward VI. In consequence of incautiously issuing out his commission to his chancellor to visit his chapter and enquire into the cause of some dilapidations which had taken place, a mistake in the drawing up of this commission appears to have given the bishop's enemies an advantage over him. They accused him of a great ecclesiastical offence; and so great were the expenses of the prosecution consequent on this that he was unable to pay the tenths and first fruits, and he was imprisoned.

They also exhibited fifty-six articles and informations against him of the most frivolous kind, all of which he fully answered; but, the debt to the crown remaining unpaid, he was detained in prison until Queen Mary's reign, when he was attacked on the score of heresy, and in February 1555 was brought, in company with Hooper, Bradford, and other mar-



tyrs, before Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, who sent him on the 14th of the same month to his diocese, where he was tried and condemned.

The principal charges against him were his allowing the marriage of priests, denying the corporal presence in the sacrament, affirming that the mass is not a sacrifice propitiatory for the quick and dead, declaring that the host ought not to be elevated or adored, and asserting that man is justified by faith alone. All these Morgan pronounced to be damnable heresies, degraded Dr. Ferrar from his ecclesiastical functions, and delivered him to the secular power. In consequence of this sentence he was burned at Carmarthen on the south side of the market-cross, March 30, 1555. It was remarkable that a person named Jones, coming to the bishop a little before his execution, lamented the painfulness of the death he had to suffer, but was answered that, if he once saw him stir in the pains of his burning, he should then give no credit to his doctrine. And what he said he fully performed, for he stood patiently, and never moved till he was beat down with a staff.

FERRARI, LEWIS, an Italian mathematician, who is distinguished from having been the first to discover the method of resolving biquadratic equations. He was born at Bologna in 1521, and was employed by the Milanese government to make financial calculations. He afterwards removed from Milan to Bologna, where he became professor of mathematics, and died in 1565.

FERRARS, GEORGE, a poet of the sixteenth century, who was born near St. Alban's in 1510, and was educated at Oxford, after which he entered Lincoln's Inn, and in a short time was called to the bar. Cromwell, earl of Essex, recommended him to the king, by whom he was employed both in a civil and a military capacity, and who rewarded his services with the grant of an estate in his native county.

This event took place in 1535, but it did not prevent his becoming involved in debt; and some years after, when member of parliament for Plymouth, he was taken in execution by a sheriff's officer, and conveyed to the Compter. This, however, being represented to the House of Commons, occasioned such a disturbance there, as not only produced his discharge, but a settled rule with respect to privilege. He continued afterwards in high favour with Henry all his reign, who fully approved what the House of Commons had done; and Ferrars seems to have stood upon good terms with the protector Somerset, in that of King Edward, since he attended him as a commissioner of the carriage of the army into Scotland in 1548. Edward also had a singular kindness for him, and caused him during the Christmas holidays to be proclaimed "Lord of Misrule." This office, which required no common talents, he discharged for twelve days together at Greenwich, with great magnificence and address, and entirely to the king's satisfaction. In this character, attended by the court, he came to London, where he was very honourably received by officers created for that purpose, and splendidly entertained by the lord mayor. Ferrars wrote several valuable works, among which we may mention his "History of the Reign of Queen Mary," which appeared in "Grafton's Chronicle," and a translation of Magna Charta. He died at Flamstead House in 1579.

FEUILLEE, LEWIS, an eminent French naturalist and mathematician, who belonged to the religious order of Minims. Louis XIV. sent him to South America, to make discoveries in natural history and philosophy, the result of which appeared in "Journal des Observations Physiques, Mathematiques, et Botaniques, faites sur les Côtes Orientales de Amerique Meridionale, et dans les Indes Occidentales." He was also employed by the French government in several important missions, and he finally became botanist to the king. He died at Marseilles in 1732.

FEVRE, JAMES, was born in Picardy in 1440, and was instrumental in reviving polite literature in France. He became however suspected of Lutheranism, and was obliged to retire from Paris to Meaux, where the bishop, William Briçonnet, was obliged against his inclination to desert Fevre, and the latter was forced to retire to Blois, and from thence to Guienne. Margaret, queen of Navarre, sister to Francis I., honoured him with her protection; so that he enjoyed full liberty at Nerac till his death, which took place in 1537, when he was little short of 100 years of age.

FEVRE, NICOLAS LE, a learned individual, who was born in July 1543. Having finished his education, he was sent to study the law at Toulouse and Bologna, after which he travelled through Italy, and resided for some time in Rome, where he acquired his taste for the investigation of antiquities. His mother and brother dying in 1581, he afterwards employed himself reading the ancients, in correcting them by MSS., of which he had a great number in his own library, and in writing notes upon them. He applied himself also to mathematics, in which he succeeded so well that he discovered almost immediately the defect in Scaliger's demonstration of the quadrature of the circle. When Henry IV. of France became at length the possessor of the crown, he appointed Fevre preceptor to the prince of Condé



After the death of Henry IV. he was chosen by the queen preceptor to Louis XIII., and died in 1611.

**FIDDES, RICHARD.**—This eminent historian and theological writer was born in 1671. He was educated at Oxford, and became rector of Halsham in 1694.

His first publication appears to have been "A Prefatory Epistle concerning some Remarks to be published on Homer's Iliad, occasioned by the proposals of Mr. Pope towards a new English version of that poem." It is addressed to Dr. Swift. It would seem to have been his intention to write a kind of moral commentary upon Homer, but probably for want of encouragement this never appeared. The first work by which he distinguished himself in any considerable degree was, "Theologia Speculativa: or the first part of a body of divinity under that title, wherein are explained the principles of Natural and Revealed Religion." This was published in 1718. Dr. Fiddes's second part is entitled "Theologia Practica, wherein are explained the duties of Natural and Revealed Religion;" and was published in 1720. The same year also he published in folio, "Fifty-two Practical Discourses on Several Subjects," six of which were never before printed. These, as well as his "Body of Divinity," were published by a subscription, which was liberally encouraged at Oxford. But the work which gained him the most friends and most enemies was "The Life of Cardinal Wolsey," dedicated to the chancellors, vice-chancellors, doctors, and other members of the two universities, and encouraged by a large subscription. Dr. Fiddes died at the house of his friend Anstis at Putney in 1725.

**FIELD, RICHARD,** a controversial divine, who distinguished himself highly in the sixteenth century. He received his first education in the free school of Berkhamstead, and was afterwards admitted of Magdalen Hall, Oxford; and such was the character he left behind him, that his chambers and study there were shown for a long time after he quitted them. But according to Wood's account he was first admitted of Magdalen College in the year 1577, and became A.B. before he went to Magdalen Hall, where he took his master's degree, and was esteemed the best disputant in the schools. After some time spent in the study of divinity, he read the catechetical lecture in Magdalen Hall, which, though a private lecture, was in his hands rendered so interesting as to be much frequented by the whole university. In 1594 he was chosen divinity-reader to the honourable society of Lincoln's Inn, and soon after presented by Mr. Richard Kingsmill, one of the benchers and surveyor of the court of wards, to the valuable rectory of Burghcleare in Hampshire, where Mr. Kingsmill lived, and refused the living of St. Andrew, Holborn, which was afterwards offered to him, preferring a retired life, and passing the greater part of his time at Burghcleare to his death. On April 9, 1594, he married Elizabeth daughter of Mr. Richard Harris, sometime fellow of New College, Oxford, and rector of Hardwicke in Buckinghamshire, with which lady, who had received a very liberal education, he lived happily upwards of twenty years. On September 27, 1598, he was made chaplain in ordinary to Queen Elizabeth, after having preached a kind of probationary sermon before her majesty; and he was soon after made prebendary of Windsor.

He often preached before the king, who the first time he heard him said, "Is his name Field? This is a field for God to dwell in;" and Fuller, in the same punning age, calls him "that learned divine, whose memory swelleth like a field which the Lord hath blessed." In the king's progress through Hampshire, in 1609, the bishop of Winchester appointed him among those who were to preach before him; and in 1611 the king having a mind to hear the prebendaries of Winchester in their order, the dean wrote to him first, and he preached oftener than any of them, and to crowded congregations. The king, who delighted to discourse with him on points of divinity, proposed to send him into Germany to compose the differences between the Lutherans and Calvinists, but for some reason this appointment did not take place. Bishop Hall tells us that about the same time he was to have been made dean of Worcester. On October 27, 1614, he lost his wife who left him six sons and a daughter. After continuing a widower about two years he married the only daughter of Dr. John King, prebendary of Windsor, but died of apoplexy shortly afterwards. His principal work is entitled "Of the Church," but he was the author of a great many controversial pamphlets.

**FIELDING, HENRY,** a novelist, who ranked higher than any of his contemporaries in that class of composition. He was born in 1707, and after receiving a good education commenced writing for the stage before he had completed his twentieth year. His first dramatic attempt was a piece called "Love in several Masques," which, though it immediately succeeded the long and crowded run of the "Provoked Husband," met with a favourable reception, as did likewise his second play, "The Temple Beau," which came out in the following year. He did not however meet with equal success in all his dramatic works, for he has even printed in the title-page of one of his farces, "as it was damned at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane;" and he himself informs us in the general preface to his miscellanies, that for the "Wedding Day," though acted six nights, his profits from the house did not exceed fifty pounds.

At twenty-six years of age Fielding married a lady who possessed considerable property, which with his paternal estate he contrived to dissipate in a few years. He had thus undermined his own supports, and had now no dependence but on his abilities. Not discouraged, however, he determined to exert his talents vigorously, applied himself closely to the study of the law, and after the customary time of probation at the Temple was called to the bar, and made no inconsiderable figure in Westminster Hall. To the practice of the law Fielding now adhered with great assiduity both in the courts in London and on the circuits as long as his health permitted, and it is probable would have risen to a considerable degree of eminence in it had not the intemperances of his early life put a check by their consequences to the progress of his success. Though but a young man he began now to suffer such violent attacks from the gout as rendered it impossible for him to give proper attendance at the bar. Under these united severities of pain and want he pursued his researches with an eagerness peculiar to him; and as a proof of the degree of eminence to which he might have risen he left two MS. volumes in folio on the crown law, to which branch he had most assiduously applied. It gives us an idea of the great force and vigour of his mind, if

we consider him pursuing so arduous a study under the exigencies of family distress, with a wife and children, whom he tenderly loved, looking up to him for subsistence, with a body torn by the acutest pains, and a mind distracted by a thousand avocations, yet obliged for immediate supply, to produce, almost extempore, a play, a farce, a pamphlet, or a newspaper.

Fielding may be considered as the founder of a peculiar species of novels, in which nature was the author's primary guide; but in the pursuit of this very laudable object he forgot what was due to religion, decorum, and all the minor moralities, which should be the guide of an author's pen. He also purposely selected those walks of life least fitted for illustrating tales of virtue. The great novelist of the nineteenth century also took nature for his guide, and how different was the result! His pure mind, undefiled by the abasing influence of early license, gave birth to a series of novels which, adhering as closely to nature as those by the subject of this article, tended to refine and purify the age in which he lived. Fielding's principal novels are, "Joseph Andrews," the "History of Jonathan Wild," "Amelia," and "Tom Jones." The latter of these works has had an enormous sale, and the history of its production is so curious that we gladly present it as an interesting feature in the author's life.

Fielding, having finished the MS., and being at the time hard pressed for money, went with it to a bookseller, and called upon him the succeeding morning, full of anxiety, both to know at how high a rate his labours were appreciated as well as how far he might calculate upon its producing him wherewithal to discharge a debt of some 20*l.* which he had promised to pay the next day. He had reason to imagine, from the judgment of some literary friends to whom he had shown his MS., that it should at least produce twice that sum. But, alas! the bookseller, with a significant shrug, showed a hesitation as to publishing the work at all. "And will you give me no hopes?" said he, in a tone of despair. "Very faint ones, indeed, Sir," replied the bookseller, "for I have scarcely any that the book will *move*." "Well, Sir," answered Fielding, "money I must have for it, and little as that may be, pray give me some idea of what you can afford to give for it." "Why, Sir," returned the bookseller, again shrugging up his shoulders, "I have read some part of your 'Jones,' and, in justice to myself, must even think again before I name a price for it; the book will *not move*; it is not to the public taste nor do I think any inducement can make me offer you more than 25*l.* for it." "And that you *will* give for it?" said Fielding, anxiously and quickly. "Really, I must think again, and will endeavour to make up my mind by to-morrow." "Well, Sir," replied Fielding, "I will look in again to-morrow morning. The book is yours for the 25*l.*; but these must positively be laid out for me when I call. I am pressed for the money, and, if you decline, must go elsewhere with my manuscript." "I will see what I can do," returned the bookseller: and so the two parted.

Fielding, returning homewards from this unpromising visit, met his friend Thomson the poet, and told him how the negotiation for the manuscript he had formerly shown him stood. The poet, sensible of the extraordinary merit of his friend's production, reproached Fielding with his headstrong bargain,

conjured him, if he could do it honourably, to cancel it, and promised him, in that event, to find him a purchaser whose purse would do more credit to his judgment. Fielding, therefore, posted away to his appointment the next morning with as much apprehension lest the bookseller should adhere to his bargain as he had felt the day before lest he should altogether decline it. To his great joy the ignorant trafficker in literature, either from inability to advance the money or a want of common discrimination, returned the MS. very safely into Fielding's hands. Our author set off with a gay heart to his friend Thomson, and went, in company with him, to Mr. Andrew Millar (a popular bookseller at that day). Mr. M. was in the habit of publishing no work of light reading but on his wife's approbation; the work was, therefore, left with him, and some days after, she having perused it, "bid him by no means let it slip through his fingers." M. accordingly invited the two friends to meet him at a coffee-house in the Strand, where, having disposed of a good dinner and two bottles of port, Thomson at last suggested, "it would be as well if they proceeded to business." Fielding, still with no little trepidation arising from his rebuff in another quarter, asked Millar what he had concluded upon giving for his work. "I am a man," said Millar, "of few words, and fond of coming to the point; but really, after giving every consideration I am able to your novel, I do not think I can afford to give you more than 200*l.* for it." "What!" exclaimed Fielding, "two hundred pounds!" "Indeed, Mr. Fielding," returned Millar, "indeed I am sensible of your talents; but my mind is made up." "Two hundred pounds!" continued Fielding in a tone of perfect astonishment; "two hundred pounds did you say?" "Upon my word, Sir, I mean no disparagement to the writer or his great merit; but my mind is made up, and I cannot give one farthing more." "Allow me to ask you," continued Fielding with undiminished surprise, "allow me, Mr. Millar, to ask you, whether you are *serious*?" "Never more so," replied Millar, "in all my life; and I hope you will candidly acquit me of every intention to injure your feelings, or depreciate your abilities, when I repeat that I positively cannot afford you more than two hundred pounds for your novel." "Then, my good Sir," said Fielding, recovering himself from this unexpected stroke of fortune, "give me your hand; the book is yours."

Fielding's "Amelia" was entirely planned and executed while he was distracted by a multiplicity of avocations which surround a public magistrate; and his constitution, now greatly impaired and enfeebled, was labouring under severer attacks of the gout than he had before felt; yet the activity of his mind was not to be subdued. At length, however, his whole frame was so entirely shattered by continual inroads of complicated disorders, and the incessant fatigue of business in his office, that, by the advice of his physicians, as a last effort to preserve life, and support a broken constitution, he set out for Lisbon. Even in this distressful condition his imagination still continued making the strongest efforts to display itself; and the last gleams of his wit and humour sparkled in the "Journal" he left behind him of his "Voyage" to that place, which was published in 1755. In 1754, about two months after his arrival at Lisbon, he died October 8, in his forty-eighth year.



FILANGIERI, GAETANO, one of the most celebrated political writers of the eighteenth century, who was born at Naples in 1752. He was a son of Cæsar prince of Araniello, and Marianna Montalto, daughter of the duke of Fragnito. His family was of Norman origin, and one of the most ancient in the kingdom. Filangieri was the third son, and his father not being very opulent, he was destined to the military service, which he entered in his fourteenth year, but which he soon after left and devoted himself to study with such ardour, that notwithstanding the neglect of his early education at the age of twenty he was well acquainted with the Greek and Latin languages, ancient and modern history, the law of nature and nations, and had also studied nearly all the branches of mathematics. He had already conceived the plan of two works, one on Public and Private Education, and the other on the Morality of Princes, founded upon nature and the constitution of society. To gratify the wishes of his family he commenced the practice of the law, in which his learning and eloquence soon made him distinguished. In a work against the favourites of the old system he successfully defended the reforms suggested by the spirit of the age and by reason itself, which Tanucci, prime minister of Naples, was carrying into execution. Tanucci immediately became his patron, and Filangieri was soon appointed to stations of honour at the court, which did not, however, divert him from his favourite studies. He engaged in the preparation of a work which was to embrace the whole science of legislation; and as the celebrated Beccaria at Milan had already published his "Essay on Crimes and Punishments," which formed a new epoch in criminal legislation, Filangieri intended to examine all the relations and explain the fundamental principles of legislation in general. He executed this task with great depth of thought and soundness of judgment. He divided the work "*La Scienza della Legislazione*" (The Science of Legislation) into several books, of which the first, containing the general principles of legislation, and the second, treating of the principles of legislation in their application to political economy, appeared in 1780 at Naples in two volumes. This work met with great success, not only in Italy, but all over Europe; and the author, at the age of twenty-eight, was ranked among the most distinguished publicists.

In 1783 he published the two next volumes on criminal jurisprudence. This subject he treated in its whole extent, and exposed abuses or defects with the same freedom and boldness. His exposure of the evils of the feudal system and of the abuses in the church, excited the fears of the high nobility and clergy, and a venal writer was hired to refute Filangieri; and his work was also condemned by an ecclesiastical decree as tending to foster sedition and atheism. Filangieri's only reply to the feudalists and curialists was the publication of the fifth, sixth, and seventh volumes of his work, which treat of education, morals, and public instruction. In 1783 Filangieri married Caroline Von Frendel, daughter of a Hungarian nobleman, and governess of the second daughter of the king of Naples, and soon after retired, with the consent of his king, to a small town in the vicinity of Naples, to write, in the silence of the country, the last volume of his great work, which relates to religion as connected with the state. But his health had already suffered

much, and he proceeded but slowly. The new king, Ferdinand IV., called him in 1787 to his supreme council of finance. He was, therefore, compelled to return to Naples, and devote himself, almost exclusively, to his new duties. He soon after became ill, and died in July 1788. He had previously completed the eighth part of his work on the religions that preceded Christianity. This work has been translated into many languages, and from the papers of Filangieri it appeared that he had intended to prepare a "*Nuova Scienza della Scienze*," reducing all human sciences to first principles, and a "*Storia Civile Universale Perpetua*," in which, from the history of nations the history of man was to have been explained with all the progress of his mental development. His sudden death, and his opposition to the measures of the infamous Acton, gave rise to a suspicion of poison. There is no proof, however, that this conjecture is well founded.

FILICAIA, VINCENZO DA, an Italian poet of the seventeenth century, who successfully opposed the torrent of bad taste which was corrupting the poetry of his native country. He was born in 1642 at Florence, where he began his studies in the Jesuits' college, and afterwards studied at the university of Pisa. His first poetic attempts were verses to his mistress; but, deprived of the object of his love by her early death, he resolved never again to sing of a passion, the pleasures of which he supposed were vanished from him for ever, and determined to devote his lyre to sacred or heroic subjects. On his return to Florence he was chosen member of the Academy della Crusca, and soon after he married the daughter of a senator, Scipio Capponi, with whom, after his father's death, he retired to the country, and devoted his whole attention to the education of his children and the ease which he loved so well. In this retirement he wrote a great number of Italian and Latin poems; but, as his modesty led him to find more fault with them than did the few friends to whom he showed them, they remained unpublished; and he would probably have continued to conceal his splendid talents had not his friends at length revealed the secret.

Filicaia had celebrated, in six odes, the deliverance of Vienna from the Turks, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and the duke of Lorraine, and the entire defeat of the Turks, which took place soon after. These odes were so much admired that the grand-duke of Tuscany sent them to those princes. They were printed at Florence in 1684, and Filicaia's fame was thus established as the first poet of his time in Italy. His fortune however was little improved by this accession of fame. Queen Christina of Sweden first interested herself in relieving the poet, appointed him a member of the academy of distinguished men which she had founded at Rome, and charged herself with the education of his two sons on condition that it should not be made known, because she was ashamed to do so little for so distinguished a man. The attention of the grand-duke of Tuscany was afterwards turned towards him, and one of his sons, who however soon died, was received into his service as page. Filicaia was then appointed by him senator and governor of Volterra, and afterwards of Pisa. In the discharge of these offices he gained the love of the people and the esteem of the sovereign; and notwithstanding the multiplicity of his occupations he also found time

to devote to his favourite studies. His advanced age, and the loss of several of his children, turned his whole thoughts to religious subjects. He undertook, however, the publication of a revised edition of his complete works, but died at Florence in 1707. His son Scipio published the collection begun by his father, under the title of "*Poesie Toscane di Vincenzo da Filicaia*," and dedicated it to Cosmo III.

FINCH, HENEAGE, the first earl of Nottingham, was born in 1621, and was educated at Westminster school and Oxford. After the Restoration he was raised to the post of solicitor-general, in which capacity he distinguished himself by his zeal in the prosecution of the regicides. In 1661 he was elected member for the university of Oxford, and shortly after obtained a baronetcy. In 1670 he became attorney-general, and in 1673 he succeeded Lord Shaftesbury as lord keeper; and in 1681 his services were rewarded with the earldom of Nottingham. He however survived his elevation little more than a year, as his death took place in 1682.

FIRMIN, THOMAS, a distinguished philanthropist and writer of the seventeenth century. In 1676 he established a linen manufactory for the purpose of furnishing employment to those who would otherwise have been vagrants; and in 1678 he published an account of his institution, under the title of "*Some Proposals for the Employing of the Poor, especially in and about the City of London, and for the Prevention of Begging, in a Letter to a Friend*." This truly amiable and liberal-minded man terminated his useful life in 1697.

FISCHER, GOTTHELF, a distinguished philosopher, vice-president of the medico-surgical academy, professor in the university at Moscow, and Russian counsellor of state, was born October 15, 1771, at Waldheim in Saxony. He was a fellow-student of baron Humboldt at the Mining Academy in Freiberg, and first made himself known by a work, "*Versuch über die Schwimmblase der Fische*" (Inquiry concerning the Airbladder of Fishes), Leips. 1795. At Paris he studied comparative anatomy under Cuvier, and wrote on several subjects in this department of science. In 1800 he was appointed librarian at Mayence, and soon displayed the results of his bibliographical labours. He discovered a printed work older than any then known with the date of the year, described a number of old works, and endeavoured to settle the claims of Guttenberg in his "*Essai sur les Monumens Typographiques de Jean Guttenberg*" (Mayence 1804), "*Notice du Premier Monument Typographique en Caracteres mobiles avec date*" (Mayence 1804), and in several German publications. Fischer was one of the deputation sent to petition the emperor Napoleon to create Mayence a staple; and on this occasion he received permission to select a library for Mayence from the books belonging to the government. Several works on comparative anatomy obtained for him the places of professor and director of the Museum of Natural History in Moscow. In 1805 he published his "*Description du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle*" (Moscow 1805). The same year he founded the society of naturalists at Moscow, which afterwards received the title and privileges of an imperial society. The science of fossil remains is much indebted to him. His "*Tabulæ Synoptice Zoognosie*" passed through a third edition in 1813.

In 1811 he published "*Onomasticon du Systeme d'Oryctognosie*." On the burning of Moscow the splendid museum, and his private collections, preparations, and a rich craniological cabinet, were destroyed. Immediately after the peace he began a museum, which already ranks as one of the richest collections. In 1817 he was appointed vice-president of the Imperial Medico-surgical Academy, to which he rendered essential service by establishing a clinical department, and introducing other improvements. His last work is his description of the insects of Russia, "*Entomographie de la Russie et Genres des Insectes*," in two volumes.

FISHER, JOHN, bishop of Rochester, a learned Catholic divine who lived in the reign of Henry VIII. He was born in 1459 at Beverley in Yorkshire, and received his education at Cambridge, where he graduated and obtained a fellowship. In 1495 he was chosen master of Michael House, and entered into holy orders, and soon after was made vice-chancellor. Margaret, countess of Richmond, chose him for her confessor; and through his influence determined on the noble academical foundations which have perpetuated her memory. In 1501 he was admitted D.D., and the next year he became the first Margaret professor of divinity at Cambridge. In 1504 he was unexpectedly promoted to the see of Rochester, on the recommendation of Fox, bishop of Winchester. He subsequently declined translation to a more valuable bishopric; and he was accustomed to style his church his wife, declaring that he would never exchange her for one that was richer. The same year in which he was raised to the bench the office of chancellor of the university of Cambridge was conferred on him. Deeply prepossessed in favour of the ancient faith of the nation, he opposed with zeal and perseverance the principles of Luther and his followers. But the same conscientious motives which induced Fisher to become the champion of Henry VIII. impelled him to oppose the king's measures for procuring a divorce from his wife, and declaring himself head of the church. His imprudence and weakness in listening to the pretended prophecies of Elizabeth Barton, or the maid of Kent, subsequently furnished the court with an opportunity of punishing his opposition to the royal designs. In 1534 an act of attainder was passed against Barton and her accomplices, among whom Bishop Fisher was included; and being adjudged guilty of misprision of treason, he was condemned to the forfeiture of his property and imprisonment during the king's pleasure. It does not, however, appear that this sentence was executed, a fine of £300, it is said, having only been exacted. He was subsequently sent to the Tower for refusing to submit to the provisions of an act of parliament which annulled the king's marriage with Catherine of Arragon and confirmed his subsequent union with Anne Boleyn. He was attainted and deprived in 1534. Pope Paul III. thought proper to reward his zealous adherent by creating him a cardinal. The king, on learning that Fisher would not refuse the dignity, exclaimed, in a passion, "Yea! is he so lusty? Well, let the pope send him a hat when he will. Mother of God! he shall wear it on his shoulders, for I will leave him never a head to set it on." His destruction was immediately resolved on; and as no evidence against him existed sufficiently



strong to affect his life, Henry employed his infamous solicitor-general, Rich, to entrap Fisher into a positive denial of the king's supremacy. The plot succeeded, and the bishop being tried before a special commission, was convicted of high treason on the evidence of Rich, and on the 22nd of June, 1535, was beheaded on Tower Hill. Bishop Fisher was a zealous promoter and cultivator of literature, and a patron of learned men. Besides a number of tracts, he was also the author of a "Commentary on the Seven Penitential Psalms," of sermons, controversial and devotional treatises, &c.

**FITZGERALD, LORD EDWARD.**—This enthusiastic partisan for the cause of liberty was born in 1763. His father died during his infancy, and his mother married again soon after a Scotch gentleman, who seems to have united in an uncommon degree warmth of heart and shrewdness of head. The family settled for some years in France, and in that country Lord Edward received the first rudiments of education. He was destined for a military life, and this prospect gave the tone to his studies. He returned to England in his sixteenth year, and soon after obtained a commission in a militia regiment. He was next year transferred to a regiment of the line; and in 1781 he landed at Charlestown, where Lord Rawdon was held in check by the operations of Greene. Having displayed on one occasion a wonderful degree of promptitude in an unforeseen emergency, he was rewarded with a staff appointment, in which situation he displayed a spirit of restless enterprise and romantic bravery. On his return to Ireland he was brought into parliament, and seems at one time to have fairly commenced the study of constitutional law. This, however, was soon laid aside: he entered at Woolwich, and again devoted himself to his profession. Meeting with a disappointment in love, he resolved, with much magnanimity, to seek forgetfulness in active service, and for this purpose joined his regiment, at that time stationed in Nova Scotia. He was an indefatigable soldier, and, during the idleness of the winter months, demonstrated the possibility of a shorter road to Quebec, by making the journey himself, in company with five comrades. His amusements were hunting, skating, and excursions into the interior. Now, while there is no doubt that the best receipt for a wounded heart is active employment, there is equal certainty that that employment must be such as to occupy the mind exclusively. Routine and mechanical duties offer dangerous temptations to indulgence in reverie. This was peculiarly the case with Lord Edward, with whom sentiment predominated most decidedly over both intellect and imagination,—who had taken the tone of his mind from that society in which the principles of Rousseau were most fashionable, and whose hours of relaxation were spent in the mysterious loneliness of a primeval forest. His connexion with Fox brought him on his return to England into the circle of the opposition at that time actively engaged in political labours. Shortly afterwards the French revolution exploded: Lord Edward hastened to Paris, attached himself, as might have been anticipated, to the ultra-democratic party, publicly renounced his hereditary honours, was on this account dismissed the British army, and returned home the avowed enemy of government.

For two years after his return, however, he seems

rather to have kept aloof from the political associations of the day. He had made a love-match while in France with a daughter of Madame de Genlis, and found his chief happiness in the bosom of his family. It was not till the year 1795 that he drew closer the bonds between him and the opponents of government; and it was 1796 before he entered the association of United Irishmen. We extract the account of the organization of this body, as it existed at the time of his admission, from Mr. Moore's "Life of Lord Edward Fitzgerald."

"On the re-modelling of the association in 1795, the new impulse given to its principle by the recall of Lord Fitzwilliam, and the consequent increase of its numbers, called for a plan of organization more commensurate with the advance of the cause; and, for all the purposes as well of secrecy as of concert and uniformity of action, it would be difficult, perhaps, to devise a plan more efficient than that which they adopted. In order to avoid the mixture of persons unknown to each other, it was fixed that no society should consist of more than twelve persons, and those, as nearly as possible, of the same street or neighbourhood. By each of these societies of twelve, a secretary was chosen, and the secretaries of five such societies formed a committee, called the lower baronial. The next step in the scale was the upper baronial committee, to constitute which ten lower baronials sent each a member; and above this rose again the district or county committee, composed of one member chosen from each upper baronial.

"Having provided, by these successive layers, as it were, of delegated authority—each exercising a superintendence over that immediately below it—for the organization of the several counties and populous towns, they next superadded, in each of the four provinces, a provincial committee, composed of two or sometimes three members, elected from each of the county committees; and, lastly, came the executive—the apex of the system—which consisted of five persons, chosen in such a manner from the provincial committees as to leave the members of the latter in entire ignorance as to the individuals selected. Over the whole body thus organized, the executive possessed full command, and could transmit its orders with but little risk through the whole range of the union—one member of the executive communicating them to one member of the provincial committee, and he again to the secretary of the county committee, who, in like manner, passed them down through the secretaries of the baronials, and these on to the secretaries of the subordinate societies.

"The facility with which it was found that this plan, though designed at first for a purely civil organization, could be transferred without change of its structure to military purposes, rendered it a doubly formidable engine in the hands that now directed it. The secretary of each subordinate society of twelve was transformed easily into a sergeant or corporal; the delegate of five societies to a lower baronial became a captain with sixty men under his command, and the delegate of ten lower baronials to a county or district committee took rank as a colonel at the head of a battalion of six hundred men."

By this body Lord Edward was despatched to the continent in order to negotiate for assistance from

France, from which he returned without having effected any thing. Shortly after his admission he was the means of giving the association a military character. In 1797 he was one of the most strenuous supporters of an immediate rising. From the time of the rejection of this plan till March 1798, the insurgent leaders were employed counting their forces (as marshalled on paper), and receiving reports of accessions to their funds. At the date just mentioned, three of the insurgent leaders were arrested, and Lord Edward with difficulty escaped. The anticipated rising had been quelled in three provinces; in Leinster alone was a feeble and isolated blow struck. Lord Edward hovered about Dublin for two months after his escape from arrest, and at last concocted a plan for seizing the capital. Just as his plot was on the eve of exploding he was seized in bed (the 17th or 18th May, 1798), and so desperately wounded during his defence, that he not long after died in prison. Lord Edward's wife retired to France, where she died in 1831.

**FITZHERBERT, SIR ANTHONY**, a learned lawyer of the sixteenth century. He was made a justice of the court of common pleas in 1523. His principal work is "A Grand Abridgement of the Laws," but "The Office and Authority of Justices of the Peace" has had the greatest sale. Sir Anthony died May 27th, 1538. His son and grandson were both learned men, and much esteemed in their times.

**FITZJAMES, JAMES**, duke of Berwick. This distinguished military officer was the natural son of James II. He entered the French service in 1686. After his father's abdication he was sent to command for him in Ireland, and was distinguished both at the siege of Londonderry in 1690, and at the battle of the Boyne, where he had a horse killed under him. In 1703 he commanded the troops that Louis XIV. sent to Spain to support the claim of Philip V. In a single campaign he made himself master of several fortified places. On his return to France he was employed to reduce the rebels in the Cevennes. He then besieged Nice, and took it in 1705. For his services in this campaign he was raised the next year to the dignity of mareschal of France; after which he greatly signalized himself in Spain against the Portuguese and others. In 1707 he gained the celebrated battle of Almanza, against the English under Lord Galloway and the Portuguese under Minas, who had above 5000 men killed on the field. This victory fixed the crown on the head of Philip V., who was studious to prove his gratitude to the general to whom he was indebted for it. In 1714 he took Barcelona, being then generalissimo of the armies of Spain. When the war between France and Germany broke out in 1733 he again went out at the head of the French army; but in 1734 he was killed by a cannon-ball before Philipsburg.

**FITZSTEPHEN, WILLIAM**, a celebrated English ecclesiastic, who lived in the twelfth century. He was descended from a noble Norman family, and after studying at home was sent to France to complete his education. On his return he entered into the monastic state at Canterbury, and there acquired the patronage of the celebrated Thomas à Becket, then archbishop of Canterbury. After the death of that prelate, Fitzstephen, who had been an eye-witness of his death, wrote a life of him in the Latin

language, which appeared in 1174. The introductory part of it is an object of great interest in an antiquarian point of view, as it contains a description of the city of London and the manners and customs of its inhabitants. He died in 1191.

**FITZWILLIAM, THE RIGHT HONOURABLE WILLIAM**.—This distinguished nobleman was the fourth earl of that title. He was born in 1748, and came to his title on the death of his father in 1756. Inheriting a good fortune from his father he was also the presumptive heir to the large estates of the marquis of Rockingham; and was honoured with the friendship of the dukes of Devonshire and Portland, and all the leading characters of the Whig party. These connexions he still further extended by an early marriage, on the 11th of July, 1770, with Lady Charlotte Ponsonby, youngest daughter of William, earl of Besborough, by Lady Caroline Cavendish, daughter of William, duke of Devonshire. Enrolling himself among the opponents of Lord North's administration he persevered throughout the American war in resisting the progress of that contest as equally disgraceful and ruinous. When the change of ministry, however, took place at the beginning of 1782, and his uncle the marquis of Rockingham was placed at the head of the new cabinet, Earl Fitzwilliam did not take part in the distribution of office. The death of the marquis, which happened in June of the same year, brought Earl Fitzwilliam a vast accession of fortune, including the fine domain of Wentworth, near Rotherham, in Yorkshire, which had descended to the family of Watson from the sister and heiress of the great earl of Strafford.

Early in 1795 Earl Fitzwilliam was appointed to the government of Ireland. His inclination to healing measures rendered this appointment peculiarly acceptable to the people of that kingdom, and he was received with universal satisfaction. The Irish parliament met on the 22d of January, 1795, and unanimously voted him the most favourable addresses; and, on the 9th of February, agreed to the amplest supplies that had ever been granted in that kingdom. In the mean time the Catholic party was preparing to renew its solicitations, and to enforce them with all the weight that time and circumstances would produce in their favour. Earl Fitzwilliam soon perceived that it would be impracticable to defer the decision on their demands without incurring the highest danger. In order to place himself in a favourable light with this formidable party, he employed in the transactions with its leading members a person in whom the Catholics universally confided. This was the celebrated Mr. Grattan, whom they had selected as the most proper and active member of the Irish legislature for the effecting of their purposes. Mr. Grattan moved accordingly, on the 12th of February, for leave to bring in a bill for the relief of persons professing the Roman Catholic religion, and leave was given. The joy and exultation expressed by the Roman Catholics on this occasion had never been equalled in Ireland. But the universal satisfaction arising from the hopes conceived of an approaching emancipation from all restrictions was quickly damped by the intelligence that arrived two days only after the passing of the motion, that the British ministry were averse to the measure. Earl Fitzwilliam informed them of the great danger that would infallibly result from re-



tracting the assent so formally given to a motion of such importance; and explicitly refused, by taking upon him that office, "to be the person to raise a flame which nothing but the force of arms could keep down." In consequence of this answer he was dismissed from his post.

The universal dissatisfaction of the Irish at the removal of Earl Fitzwilliam was soon after evinced in a more serious manner. Tumults arose in several places which were not quelled without the intervention of the military; from the most moderate of the disaffected addresses to him were presented, full of indignation at the treatment he had experienced, and of invectives against the authors of his disgrace. The feeling of the public was particularly marked on the day that Earl Fitzwilliam took his departure from Ireland. It was one of general gloom; the shops were shut, no business of any kind was transacted, and the whole city put on mourning. The noble earl's coach was drawn to the waterside by some of the most respectable citizens, and the people seemed intent on every demonstration of grief.

When the death of Mr. Pitt occasioned a new ministerial change in 1806, Earl Fitzwilliam returned to the seat of president of the council, which he retained until the fall of the Grenville administration in the following year. He afterwards gradually retired from public life; and in 1819 he resigned the lieutenancy of the West Riding of Yorkshire. At a visit which he paid to Ireland a few years previous to his death he was welcomed with the utmost enthusiasm. Indeed, independently of the popular measures with which he had connected his reputation, his liberal and beneficent management of his large Irish estates fully deserved every mark of the public approbation and respect. One of the bountiful acts of his early life was the erection of a public Flannel Hall in the town of Rathdrum, county Wicklow. His princely expenditure during his viceroyalty made a deep impression on the gratitude of the tradesmen of Dublin; and among his many liberal acts towards Ireland may be recorded his voluntary exemption from the compensation granted by government to the sufferers in the rebellion of 1798, and a gift of 2000*l.* in 1807 to the Benevolent Society of St. Patrick at Liverpool. Earl Fitzwilliam, after an active and well spent life, died at Milton House, near Peterborough, on the 8th of February, 1833.

**FLACCUS, CAIUS VALERIUS**, a celebrated Latin poet, who flourished in the time of Vespasian. He is best known for his account of the Argonautic expedition. The best edition of his works is that by Burman.

**FLAMINIUS**, a celebrated Roman, raised to the consulship in the year of Rome 554. He was trained in the art of war against Hannibal, and he showed himself capable of discharging with honour the great office with which he was entrusted. He was sent at the head of the Roman troops against Philip, king of Macedonia, and in his expedition he met with great success. The Greeks gradually declared themselves his firmest supporters, and he totally defeated Philip on the confines of Epirus, and made all Locris, Phocis, and Thessaly, tributary to the Roman power. He granted peace to the conquered monarch, and proclaimed all Greece free and independent at the Isthmian games. This celebrated action procured the name of patrons of Greece to the Romans, and

insensibly paved their way to universal dominion. Flaminius was afterwards sent ambassador to King Prusias who had given refuge to Hannibal, and there his prudence was of the greatest service to the Romans. Flaminius was found dead in his bed after a life spent in the service of his country.

**FLAMINIUS, MARK ANTHONY**, one of the best Latin poets in the sixteenth century. The pope had chosen him secretary to the council in 1545, but he refused that employment because, favouring the new opinions, he would not employ his pen in an assembly where he knew those opinions were to be condemned. He paraphrased several of the psalms in Latin verse, and also wrote notes on the psalms, and some letters and poems which are still esteemed. He died at Rome in 1550.

**FLAMSTEED, JOHN**.—This eminent English astronomer was born at Derby in 1646. In 1674 he wrote an ephemeris, in which he proved the falseness of astrology, and gave a table of the moon's rising and setting, carefully calculated, together with the eclipses and appulses of the moon and planets to fixed stars. This work came into the hands of Jonas Moore, for whom, at his request, he made a table of the moon's true southings. In 1674 Sir Jonas having informed him that a true account of the tides would be highly acceptable to his majesty, he composed a small ephemeris for the king's use; and when Sir Jonas showed the king and duke of York Mr. Flamsteed's telescopes and micrometer, and recommended him strongly, he procured him a warrant to be king's astronomer, with the salary of 100*l.* per annum, on which occasion he was ordained. In 1675 the foundation of the royal observatory at Greenwich was laid, and during the building he lived at Greenwich, his quadrant and telescopes being kept in the queen's house there. His "Doctrine of the Sphere" was published in 1681 in a posthumous work of Sir Jonas Moore, entitled "A New System of the Mathematics."

He spent the latter part of his life in promoting true and useful knowledge, and died of a strangury in 1719. Though he lived to above seventy years of age, yet it is remarkable that he had from his infancy a peculiar tenderness of constitution; and in a letter to Mr. Collins, dated March 20, 1670-71, he says that "he shall scarcely have time to transcribe and fit his papers for the press, partly because his occasions, but more frequently his distempers, withdraw and detain him from his pen endeavours; for the spring," says he, "coming on, my blood increases, which if I should not exercise strongly, I should spit up, or receive into my stomach, with great detriment to my health." He was married, but had no children.

His great work, and that which contained the main operations of his life, was the "Historia Cœlestis Britannica," published in 1725 in three large folio volumes; the first of which contains the observations of Mr. William Gascoigne, the first inventor of the method of measuring angles in a telescope by means of screws, and the first who applied telescopic sights to astronomical instruments, taken at Middleton, near Leeds in Yorkshire, between the years 1638 and 1643, extracted from his letters by Mr. Crabtree, with some of Mr. Crabtree's observations about the same time; and also those of Mr. Flamsteed himself, made at Derby between the years 1670 and 1675; besides a multitude of curious observations and necessary tables to be used with

them, made at the royal observatory between the years 1675 and 1689. The second volume contains his observations made with a mural arch of the meridional zenith distances of the fixed stars, sun, moon, and planets, with their transits over the meridian; also observations of the diameters of the sun and moon, with their eclipses, and those of Jupiter's satellites, and variations of the compass, from 1689 to 1719; with tables showing how to render the calculation of the places of the stars and planets easy and expeditious; to which are added the moon's place at her oppositions, quadratures, &c., also the planets' places derived from observations. The third volume contains a catalogue of the right ascensions, polar distances, longitudes, and magnitudes of near 3000 fixed stars, with the corresponding variations of the same.

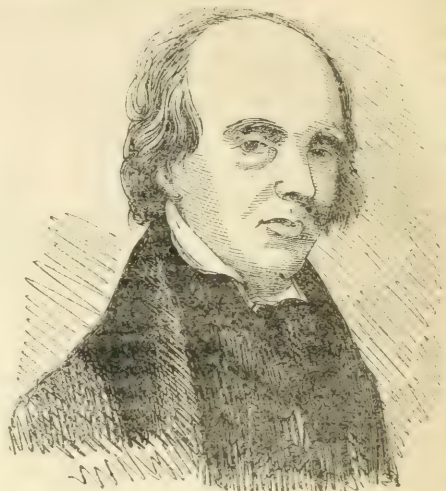
FLATMAN, THOMAS, an English poet of considerable reputation, who was born at London about the year 1633. He studied at the Inner Temple and became a barrister, but it does not appear that he ever practised, for, having a taste for the fine arts, he followed his inclination, and acquired a high reputation both as a poet and a painter. He published in 1682 a third edition of his poems and songs, dedicated to the duke of Ormond. He died in 1688.

FLAVEL, JOHN, an eminent non-conformist minister, who was educated at University College in Oxford, and became minister of Deptford, and afterwards of Dartmouth in Devonshire, where he resided the greater part of his life. Though he was generally respected at Dartmouth, yet in 1685 several of the aldermen of that town, attended by the populace, carried about an effigy of him, to which were affixed the Bill of Exclusion and the Covenant. Upon this occasion he thought it prudent to withdraw from the town. He died in 1691, aged sixty-one, and after his death his works were printed in two volumes folio. Among these, the most celebrated are his "Navigation Spiritualized, or a New Compass for Seamen, consisting of thirty-two points of pleasant observations and serious reflections," of which there have been several editions; and his "Husbandry Spiritualized, &c., with occasional meditations upon beasts, birds, trees, flowers, rivers, and several other objects," of which also there have been many editions published.

FLAXMAN, JOHN.—The fine arts in this country have had no more distinguished ornament than the above illustrious individual. He was born at York in 1755, and his father afterwards kept a shop for the sale of plaster casts of figures in London. The young artist's earliest lessons in sculpture were obtained from a careful study of the casts in his father's warehouse, from which he made many models in clay, and was admitted a student of the Royal Academy in 1770.

Mr. Flaxman's earliest labours as an artist were not successful, and he had made but little way in his profession in 1782, when he married Miss Denman, who was not only an amiable, but a highly accomplished female. She was distinguished for her literary attainments, particularly in French and Italian, and was the companion of her husband's travels and studies in Italy. In 1787 Mr. Flaxman went to Italy, where he pursued his studies for seven years. When at Rome he resided in the Via Felice, and his productions were the objects of general admiration. The late earl of Bristol engaged him to execute in

marble his magnificent group representing the Fury of Athamas, from Ovid's "Metamorphoses," consisting of four figures of heroic size. For this he received only 600*l.*, a sum which proved far from sufficient to cover the actual cost, and Mr. Flaxman in all but reputation was a considerable loser by the commission.



Soon after Mr. Flaxman made for Mr. Hare Naylor, and for the trifling sum of a guinea each, about eighty designs from the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. These designs were so highly admired, that Mr. Flaxman who had already executed a beautiful group in marble of Cupid and Psyche for Mr. Thomas Hope, was engaged by that gentleman to illustrate in a similar manner the works of Dante. At the desire of the late Countess Spencer, he also made a series of designs for her ladyship from *Æschylus*. Had Mr. Flaxman never produced any thing but these designs, his name must have descended to posterity as that of a man of the most powerful and splendid genius, and they immediately established his fame throughout Europe. In 1794 Mr. Flaxman returned to England. His first work after his return, and for which he received the commission before he left Rome, was the monument to Lord Mansfield in Westminster Abbey. It represents the noble and venerable earl in his judicial robes, seated in a curule chair, placed on a lofty pedestal with figures of Justice and Mercy, and behind a recumbent figure, emblematical of death. This is certainly one of the grandest public monuments of which England can boast. One of the causes of its excellence is to be found in the fact of Mr. Flaxman's having been left entirely to himself in its production. From this period through a long course of studious years, Mr. Flaxman was almost uninterruptedly occupied with his professional pursuits. But the noble group of Michael and Satan, executed in marble for the earl of Egremont, and which was the last of the creations of Mr. Flaxman's genius, exhibits in the highest degree the grandeur, elegance, and vigour which were among the characteristics of his style.

A series of drawings and a model for the shield of Achilles, as described by Homer in the eighteenth book of the *Iliad*, occupied Mr. Flaxman occasionally for a series of years. They were finished in



January 1818. It is highly creditable to the taste and liberality of Messrs. Rundell and Bridge, that this great work appears to have been entirely a speculation of their own. They gave the original commission to Mr. Flaxman, and paid him for the drawing and model the sum of £204. Several casts in silver gilt, each of the estimated value of 2000 guineas, were finished from them; the first for his late majesty George IV., who ordered a cast even before the model was finished; the second for his royal highness the late duke of York, the third for the earl of Lonsdale, and the fourth for the duke of Northumberland. The circumference of the shield is nine feet, its convexity six inches from the plane. The skill and application necessary to complete so extensive and complicated a composition, consisting of upwards of a hundred human figures, besides animals, &c., no one perhaps but an artist can adequately conceive. Mr. Flaxman availed himself of the opportunity of condensing into one comprehensive space all the knowledge which he had acquired, during a long and laborious life, from the study of nature and of the sculpture and literature of the Greeks. Among the most striking beauties of this arduous and splendid work are the personification of the sun by the spirited alto-relievo of Apollo in his chariot in the centre of the shield, and the manner in which the various subjects of war, the attack by the lions on the herd of oxen, and the marriage festival, are treated. Nor in the attack upon the herd can any thing be more admirable than the energetic ferocity of the monsters of the forest who have fastened on the bull, the desperate efforts of that noble animal to disengage himself, and the vain attempts of the herdsmen to urge their fierce but alarmed dogs to farther resistance. To these scenes of contest and death, the beauty, elegance, and sprightliness of the nuptial procession, with all its classical accompaniments, form a delightful contrast.

Mr. Flaxman, after a long and well-spent life, died of a gradual breaking up of his constitution, December 9th, 1826. Mr. Flaxman was elected a royal academician in 1800, and a professor of sculpture in that establishment in 1810. We cannot better conclude our notice of this distinguished artist than in the summary of his character furnished by a contemporary writer. "In Flaxman's mind, the wish to work in the classic style of Greece, and the love to work in the original spirit of England, have held a long and an equal war, sometimes forming natural and beautiful unions, and often keeping purely and elegantly asunder. To the aid of his art he brought a loftier and more poetical mind than any of our preceding sculptors, and learning unites with good sense and natural genius in all the works which come from his hand. He has penetrated with a far deeper sense of the majesty of Homer into the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* than Canova, who dedicated his whole life to the renovation of the antique; nor has he failed to catch the peculiar inspiration of whatever poet his fancy selected for illustration. He has never failed to reflect a true general image of the great original: we see the same grave majesty and the same simplicity, and we own the group at once as the offspring of the spirit of Homer, *Æschylus*, or *Dante*. These works have spread the fame of Flaxman far and wide—for they fly where marble cannot be carried, they have given the world a high idea of the present genius of England."

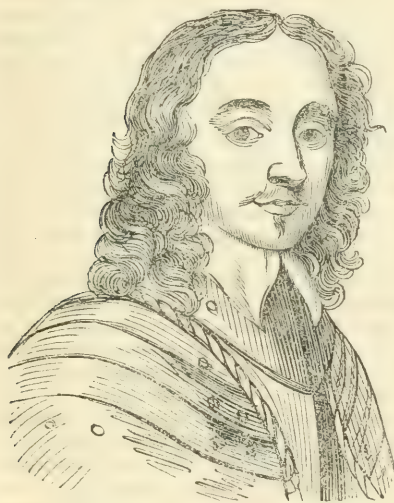
FLECHIER, ESPRIT, a French divine of the Catholic church, highly celebrated as a pulpit orator, who was born of obscure parents in the county of Avignon in 1632. The care of his education was undertaken by his uncle, who was superior of the congregation of the Christian Doctrine, of which young Flechier became a member. He made a great proficiency in literature, and was appointed professor of rhetoric in the college of his order at Narbonne. While in this situation he delivered a funeral oration for the archbishop of Narbonne, which was greatly admired. On the death of his uncle he quitted the congregation owing to a difference with the new superior, and went to Paris, where he devoted his talents to the study of eloquence, in which he became so eminent as to be reckoned the rival of the celebrated Bossuet. In 1673 Flechier was elected a member of the French academy, and in 1679 he published his "History of the Emperor Theodosius the Great," which was followed by his "Life of Cardinal Ximenes." Louis XIV. in 1685 raised him to the bishopric of Lavaur, on which occasion that prince said to him—"I have made you wait some time for a place which you have long deserved, but I was unwilling sooner to deprive myself of the pleasure of hearing you preach." He was translated in 1687 from the diocese of Lavaur to that of Nismes. The latter bishopric abounded in Protestants, and the edict of Nantes having just been revoked, the talents of Flechier were successfully employed in converting them to the established faith. It is to his credit that he acted with great moderation in the discharge of his pastoral duty, endeavouring to recall the people from what he conceived to be the path of error by reasoning and eloquence rather than by force and terror. He died in February 1710.

FLECKNOE, RICHARD, an English poet and dramatic writer, contemporary with Dryden, and chiefly memorable for having had his name exhibited by that satirist in the title of his invective against Shadwell. His works are far from being contemptible.

FLEETWOOD, WILLIAM, a learned English bishop, who lived at the beginning of the eighteenth century, and distinguished himself during King William's reign by his "Inscriptionum Antiquarum Sylloge," by several sermons he preached on public occasions, and by his "Essay on Miracles." He was appointed by King William to a canonry of Windsor. The grant did not pass the seals before the king's death, but the queen gave it him, and he was installed in 1702. In 1707 he published without his name his "Chronicon Pretiosum." In 1708 he was nominated by the queen to the see of St. Asaph. In 1715 he published a pamphlet entitled "The 13th Chapter of the Romans vindicated from the Abusive Senses put upon it;" shortly after which he was translated to the bishopric of Ely, and died in 1723.

FLEETWOOD, CHARLES.—This distinguished parliamentary general commenced his career as colonel in a horse regiment in 1644, and three years afterwards he was appointed one of the commissioners of the army for treating with those of the parliament, with relation to the points in dispute between those two bodies; but notwithstanding his zeal for the interests of the former he was not personally concerned in the death of Charles I. After the establishment of the commonwealth he was raised to the rank of lieutenant-general, and in February 1650-1 chosen

a member of the council of state, and, September 3 following, had a considerable share in the victory gained at Worcester over King Charles II. Soon after this he was present at the conference held between several members of the parliament and the principal officers of the army at the speaker's house concerning the settlement of the nation, in which he declared that it appeared to him very difficult to determine whether an absolute republic or a mixed monarchy was the most proper form of government to be established. After the death of General Ireton Fleetwood married his widow; and being now Cromwell's son-in-law, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in Ireland, and one of the commissioners for the civil affairs of that kingdom, upon which posts he entered in September following, and under his conduct Ireland was soon reduced to a perfect subjection, and he was made lord deputy of it after his father-in-law had assumed the protectorship. Notwithstanding this, he, in conjunction with Disbrowe and Lambert, vigorously opposed Cromwell's taking the title of king, when pressed upon him by the parliament in May 1657; on which account it is probable he was soon after removed from his post of lord deputy, which was given to Henry Cromwell, the protector's younger son, though Fleetwood had afterwards so much regard shown him as to be appointed in December following a member of the house of parliament.



Upon his brother-in-law Richard Cromwell's succeeding to the title of protector, he signed the order for his proclamation. But he afterwards joined with the discontented officers of the army in deposing Richard, after he had persuaded him to dissolve his parliament, and invited the members of the *long* parliament, who had continued sitting till April 20, 1653, when they were dissolved by Oliver Cromwell, to return to the exercise of their trust. Upon their meeting in May 1659 he was chosen one of the council of state, and the next month made lieutenant general of the forces, which post he held till October 12 following, when he was appointed one of the commissioners to govern all the forces, and on the 17th of that month was nominated by the general council of state commander-in-chief of all the forces. But

in December 1659, finding that his interest declined in the army, who were now zealous to have the parliament sit again in honour, freedom, and safety, and that this, concurring with the general temper of the nation, would evidently restore the king, he was advised by Whitelocke to send immediately some person of trust to his majesty at Breda with offers of restoring him to his rights, and by that means anticipate Monk, who had undoubtedly the same design. Fleetwood in return asked Whitelocke whether he was willing to undertake that employment; who consenting, it was agreed that he should prepare himself for the journey that evening or the next morning, while the general and his friends should draw up instructions for him. But Sir Henry Vane, General Disbrowe, and Colonel Berry, coming in at that critical moment, diverted Fleetwood from this resolution; who alleged that those gentlemen had reminded him of his promise not to attempt any such affair without General Lambert's consent; while Whitelocke on the other hand represented to him that Lambert was at too great a distance to give his assent to a business which must be immediately acted, and was of the utmost importance to himself and his friends. He appears, indeed, before that time to have entertained some design of espousing the king's interests if he had had resolution to execute it; for Lord Mordaunt, in a letter to the king dated from Calais, October 11, 1659, asserts, that Fleetwood then looked upon his majesty's restoration as so clearly his interest as well as his duty that he "would have declared himself publicly if the king or the duke of York had landed; and that although that engagement failed, he was still ready to come in to his majesty whensoever he should attempt in person."

Upon the Restoration he was one of the persons excepted out of the general act of pardon and indemnity, to suffer such pains, penalties, and forfeitures, not extending to life, as should be inflicted on them by an act to be made for that purpose; the remainder of his life to be spent in great obscurity among his friends at Stoke-Newington, near London, where he died soon after the Revolution.

FLEMMING, or FLEMMIG, PAUL, one of the best German poets of the seventeenth century, who was born in October, 1609, at Hartenstein in the county of Schonburg. After a good foundation for his education had been laid by private instruction at home, he went to the royal school at Meissen, and from there to Leipsic, where he studied medicine. The confusions of the thirty years' war obliged him in 1633 to go to Holstein, where the Duke Frederic was on the point of sending an embassy to his brother-in-law, the czar Michael Fedorowitsch. Flemming, full of ardour and enthusiasm, sought a place in the ambassador's suite, obtained it, performed the journey with him, and in 1634 returned safe to Holstein. Immediately after the duke resolved to send a still more splendid embassy to Persia to obtain for his states some commercial privileges. Flemming resolved to undertake this journey also, which promised him a large stock of information. The embassy set out in October 1635, and entered Ispahan on the 3rd of August, 1637, remained there more than three months, and, returning by another route, reached Moscow in January 1639, which it left again in March. After returning to his own country to settle as a practising physician in Hamburg, he went



in 1640 to Leyden, where he took his degree. He had but just returned to Hamburg when he was snatched away by death, on the 2nd of April, 1640, in the flower of life. In his songs and sonnets, sacred and other poems, an amiable enthusiasm is joined to deep and warm sensibility. His longer poems describe the adventures of his journey with great spirit and power, and other accidental events with originality and liveliness, and all his works bear the impress of genius.

FLETCHER, ANDREW, of Salton, a celebrated Scotch patriot and political writer, was descended from an ancient family who trace their origin to one of the followers of William the Conqueror. He was born in the year 1650, and his tuition was committed by his father on his deathbed to Mr., afterwards Bishop, Burnet, by whose care he received a pious, learned, and polite education. Having in the course of his classical studies and historical reading been impressed with an enthusiastic admiration both of ancient and modern republics, he had early contracted an ardent love of liberty and an aversion to arbitrary rule. Hence his spirit the more readily took alarm at certain measures in the reign of Charles II. Being knight of the shire for Lothian to that parliament where the duke of York was commissioner, he openly opposed the designs of that prince and the bill of accession. He had a share with Lord Viscount Stair in framing the test act, by which the duke of York complained that he lost Scotland. On these accounts he became peculiarly obnoxious to the duke; and was at last obliged to quit his native country and go to Holland to avoid the fatal consequences of prosecutions which on various pretences were commenced against him. Being cited before the privy council and justiciary courts, and not appearing, he was declared traitor, and his estate confiscated.

In 1681 he, in company with several of his countrymen, came to London in order to concert matters with their party. Mr. Fletcher managed his part of the negotiation with so much address that the administration could find no pretext for seizing him.

Mr. Fletcher having joined the duke of Monmouth upon his landing, received a principal command under him. But the duke was deprived of his services on the following occasion, as related by Sir John Dalrymple:—Being sent upon an expedition, and not esteeming “times of danger to be times of ceremony, he had seized for his own riding the horse of a country gentleman which stood ready equipt for its master. The master hearing this ran in a passion to Fletcher, gave him opprobrious language, shook his cane, and attempted to strike. Fletcher, though rigid in the duties of morality, yet having been accustomed to foreign services both by sea and land, in which he had acquired high ideas of the honour of a soldier and a gentleman, and of the affront of a cane, pulled out his pistol, and shot him dead on the spot. The action was unpopular in countries where such refinements were not understood. A clamour was raised against it among the people of the country; in a body they waited upon the duke with their complaints; and he was forced to desire the only soldier, and almost the only man of parts in his army, to abandon him. With Fletcher all Monmouth’s chance of success in war left him.” But in a manuscript memoir belonging to the family we

have the following notice concerning Mr. Fletcher’s connexion with Monmouth, in which his separation from that prince is very differently accounted for:—“To Lord Marischal Mr. Fletcher explained the motives which induced him first to join and afterwards abandon the duke of Monmouth. The former he ascribed to the duke’s manifesto in Scotland relating to religion, and in England to liberty. For the latter he accounted by the disgust produced in his own mind and that of his associates when the duke declared himself king and broke faith with all who embarked with him on his principles. He complained heavily of the account commonly given of the death of the mayor of Lynne; and mentioned to Lord Marischal, in proof of the contrary, that he did not leave the duke till he came to Taunton, where he was proclaimed king several weeks after the death of the mayor of Lynne.”

Seeing all the efforts of himself and his friends in favour of liberty frustrated at Taunton, he endeavoured to secure his own personal freedom by taking his passage in the first ship bound to a foreign country. It was his misfortune to land in Spain, where he was immediately arrested, thrown into prison, and guarded by three different bands of soldiers, till a vessel should be prepared to carry him a victim in chains to the court of London. But on the morning before the ship could sail, whilst he looked pensive through the bars that secured the window of his room, he was hailed by a venerable personage who made signs to speak with him. The prison doors he found open, and whilst his friendly conductor waved to him to follow him, he passed through a guard of soldiers all asleep. Without being permitted to offer his thanks to his deliverer, he found himself obliged to escape with all speed, and in disguise he proceeded in safety through Spain.

During his exile he maintained a frequent and extensive correspondence with the friends of liberty at home, and he partly employed himself in making a curious collection of books. But his genius also prompted him to engage in more active employments, for he went to Hungary, and served several campaigns as a volunteer under the duke of Lorraine with great reputation. He came over with King William; and in zeal, activity, penetration, and political skill, proved inferior to none of the leaders in the Revolution.

Such, however, was his disinterestedness, that from a survey of King William’s papers, it appears that while others laboured to turn this grand event to the emolument of themselves and the aggrandisement of their family Mr. Fletcher asked nothing. His estate had been forfeited, and his house abandoned to military discretion; his fortune was greatly shattered, and his family reduced to circumstances of distress. Nothing was given him in recompence of all his sufferings. On the contrary he, together with the duke of Hamilton, was distinguished by marks of royal and ministerial dislike. Still, whatever private resentment he might entertain, it appeared that his ruling principle was the good of his country; and that to this great object he was willing to sacrifice all personal considerations. For when in 1692 the abdicated king meditated an invasion, Mr. Fletcher addressed a letter to the duke of Hamilton, in which every argument is employed with skill and energy to engage his grace to forget his injuries, and in the present crisis to employ the extensive influence and

authority he then possessed in the cause of freedom and of his country. This letter produced its full effect, and the duke returned to his duty, from which he had in part begun to deviate.

Being elected a member of parliament, 1693, he showed a uniform zeal for the interest of his country. In that great event, the Union, he performed essential service. He got the act of security passed, which declared that the two crowns should not pass to the same head till Scotland was secured in her liberties civil and religious. Therefore Lord Godolphin was forced into the Union to avoid a civil war after the queen's demise. Although Mr. Fletcher disapproved of some of the articles, and indeed of the whole frame of the Union, yet, as the act of security was his own work, he had all the merit of that important transaction.

This great man died at London in 1716, and his remains were conveyed to Scotland, and deposited in the family vault at Salton.

That Mr. Fletcher received neither honours nor emoluments from King William may perhaps be in part attributed to himself, as his uncomplaining virtue, and the sternness of his principles, were ill calculated to conciliate courtly favour. He was so zealous an assertor of the liberties of the people, that he was too jealous of the growing power of all princes, in whom he thought ambition so natural, that he was not for trusting the best of kings with the power which ill ones might make use of against their subjects. He was of opinion that all princes were made by, and for the benefit of the people, and that they should have no power but that of doing good. This, which made him oppose King Charles and invade King James, led him also to oppose the giving so much power to King William.

FLETCHER, JAMES, a young man of considerable promise, who, after a short but active literary career, ended his life by committing suicide in 1832. He is best known by his "History of Poland," and a clever poem entitled the "Siege of Damascus."

FLETCHER, JOHN, an eminent dramatic writer, who is said to have been born in 1576 in Northamptonshire, where his father was dean of Peterborough, although others suppose that he was a native of London. He received his education at Cambridge, but it is not known that he ever looked forward to any profession except that of a poet, in which capacity he was the inseparable partner of Francis Beaumont. After the death of Beaumont he is said to have consulted Shirley in the formation of his dramas. He survived his coadjutor some years, but died of the plague in 1625, and was interred in the church of St. Mary Overy, Southwark. The plays of Beaumont and Fletcher consist of comedies, tragedies, and mixed pieces, which possess many poetical beauties, and striking incidents and characters. It is a tradition that Beaumont excelled in the judgment requisite in plot and construction, and Fletcher in fancy and poetical feeling. "The Faithful Shepherdess," a dramatic pastoral, the sole composition of the latter, which evidently suggested the "Comus" of Milton, wants the judgment given by Beaumont in respect to plan, and as obviously displays the fancy and feeling of Fletcher. Their plays, according to Dryden, were in his early days acted two for one with those of Jonson and Shakespeare; but the license assumed in the greater part

of these dramas has done much to aid in their exclusion of late years, during which only one or two of them occasionally appear.

FLETCHER, PHINEAS, the celebrated author of "The Purple Island," and "Piscatory Eclogues." The former is an allegorical description of man, founded upon an allegory in the ninth canto of the second book of the "Faery Queen." It is composed in the Spenserian manner, and is not without passages of strong fancy and beauty of description, clothed in smooth and elegant verse. In the first five cantos, however, the reader loses the poet in the anatomist—a character but little adapted to the handling of poetry. When, however, he steps from the physical to the intellectual man, he not only attracts but secures attention by a profusion of images, many of which are distinguished by much boldness of conception and brilliancy of colouring. His "Piscatory Eclogues" have considerable sweetness of versification and much descriptive elegance. Fletcher entered King's College, Cambridge, in 1600, and in 1621 obtained the living of Helgay in Norfolk. His two works above mentioned were printed together in 1630.

FLEURY, ANDRE HERCULE DE, the celebrated cardinal, who was born in 1653 at Lodève in Languedoc, but was brought to Paris at six years of age, and there educated for the church. He distinguished himself in the progress of his studies; and when he appeared in the world, he was aided by the natural advantages of a handsome figure, pleasing address, and well-managed wit. His first preferment was that of a canon of Montpellier; he was also a doctor of the Sorbonne. But his friends becoming numerous, much interest was made for him, and in 1698 Louis XIV. named him bishop of Frejus. Louis XIV., a little before he died, appointed him preceptor to his grandson, in which office he succeeded Bossuet and Fenelon. In 1726 he was made cardinal, and soon after advanced to the place of prime-minister. He was then turned seventy. Yet the weight of this active post did not alarm him; and, to the age of ninety, he manifested a mind in full vigour, and capable of conducting the most difficult affairs. From 1726 to 1740 every thing prospered. He commenced, and brought to a glorious conclusion for his country, the war for the succession in Spain; and he added Lorraine to the French territory. In the war which commenced in 1740 he was not so fortunate; and in 1743 he died, full of grief for a succession of misfortunes, of which the nation reproached him as the author.—Charles Fleury was distinguished for his talents as an ecclesiastical historian. He was born in 1640, and in 1672 was made preceptor to the princes of Conti. In 1716 he became confessor to Louis XV., in which situation it was said of him that his only fault was that of being seventy-five years old. He died in 1723. He was the author of several learned and valuable works.

FLINDERS, MATTHEW, an English navigator, who particularly distinguished himself by his researches in New Holland and the adjacent seas. He was shipwrecked in 1803, and afterwards imprisoned at the Mauritius by the French governor. On his return to England he drew up an interesting account of his researches, which was published after his death in 1814.

FLOOD, HENRY, a distinguished politician, who acted an important part in the affairs of Ireland. He



was born in 1732. Little is recorded of his early life, save that he was first a student at Trinity College, Dublin, and from thence went to Christ Church College, Oxford, where he was placed under the tuition of Dr. Markham, who afterwards was archbishop of York. It is said, that while at the university of Dublin he had been by no means remarkable for his attention to his studies, and that soon after his removal to Oxford he applied himself most diligently to the ancient classics; and, certainly, translations which he left of many of the speeches of Demosthenes and Eschines, as well as of a few of the Odes of Pindar, indicate a thorough and intimate acquaintance with the Greek language. In 1752 he obtained the degree of A. M. at the university of Oxford, and soon after returned to Ireland.

He took his seat in the House of Commons for the first time in 1759 as member for the county of Kilkenny, which he represented for many years; he afterwards sat as member for the boroughs of Callan and Enniskillen, successively. He soon became one of the most prominent leaders of the opposition, and distinguished himself by amazing powers of eloquence. His first oratorical effort in parliament was eminently successful; we are told he was universally applauded. Though not, perhaps, as brilliant in style as some of his contemporaries, his speeches were never surpassed in point of vigorous and commanding language, or of logical and argumentative arrangement. His attacks on the ministry were of the most powerful kind, and he was long regarded as one of their most formidable antagonists.

For many years Mr. Flood co-operated with the Whigs, and was mainly instrumental in procuring the repeal of Poyning's Law, the passing of the Octennial Bill, and several other acts of parliament. In 1775, to the astonishment and regret of his former associates, he took office under government, and joined the administration of Lord Harcourt, then lord lieutenant, as one of the vice-treasurers of Ireland, and presently after was admitted to the council board both of that country and of St. James's. Various motives have been attributed to Mr. Flood for this step. It was asserted by some that his estate had become embarrassed by the expenditure of money in the contested election, and that an addition to his income had in consequence become very desirable to him. On the other hand, it has been more charitably suggested that he hoped by accepting a high and influential office to be able to effect more in forwarding those measures he had before advocated. If this were the case, he soon discovered his mistake, and found that, so far from being called on to take a leading part in parliament, it was now expected that his former activity should rather subside. After continuing in office for about six years he again joined the ranks of the opposition, and was received by them with open arms.

In 1782 the independence of the Irish legislature was achieved by the repeal of the obnoxious statute of the 6th Geo. I., which declared—"That the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain, and that the parliament of England had power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." But, in Mr. Flood's opinion, the simple repeal of the act was not sufficient to prevent England from putting forward a simple claim to legislate for Ireland,

founded upon the principle of that statute; and in this he differed with most of the opposition. His conduct in injudiciously forcing forward a scheme of parliamentary reform further tended to widen the breach. He had taken a leading part in the proceedings of the well-known convention of 1783, and having prepared and submitted to it his plan of reform, he proceeded in the House of Commons to move for leave to bring in a bill to that effect. It is said that at this time he looked forward to a seat in the British House of Commons, which he soon after obtained; and conceiving that his views would be powerfully aided by his exertions in the convention, as well as in the Irish parliament, he was desirous to take the lead in the measure, in the expectation that he would thereby obtain superior weight and influence with the reformers in England; accordingly, without obtaining the concurrence or co-operation of almost any of the other members of the opposition, he hurried on the measure, which, after a most stormy debate, was, as might have been expected under these circumstances, rejected by a considerable majority.

About this time a personal dispute, the most severe and acrimonious in its nature, of any on record in parliamentary history, took place between Mr. Flood and the celebrated Henry Grattan. It would seem that the attack was begun by Flood, who, intemperately alluding to the national grant made to Grattan for his eminent services to his country, had most unjustly stigmatized him as a "mendicant patriot, who was bought by his country, and had then sold his country for prompt payment." This produced from Grattan a retort in a strain of the most caustic and powerful language that could be imagined; in which thinly veiling his vituperation of his antagonist, under the semblance of attacking a supposititious character, with the most pointed direction of look and gesture, he continued to pour forth on Flood the severest and most personal invective. Flood, in a state of great excitement and agitation, stood up to reply, but speedily so lost himself and became so much out of order that the speaker at length interfered. He declared it had been with the utmost pain that he had suffered the debate to proceed so long in that manner, and that nothing but the repeated calls of the house to hear both members would have induced him to remain silent so long; and he then entreated Mr. Flood to sit down; with which request he thought it best to comply, and soon after retired from the house. The speaker immediately issued his warrant for the apprehension of both gentlemen, and they were accordingly taken into custody next morning, and bound over to keep the peace. Some nights after Mr. Flood was permitted, though not without some opposition, to deliver a long and able speech, in which he entered into a defence of his conduct through the course of his whole political life.

Before the close of that year he became a member of the House of Commons of Great Britain, a representative for the borough of Winchester; and at the same time was member in Ireland for Kibbegan, which borough he continued to represent till the year preceding his death. He never seems to have attained the same degree of influence or consideration in England that he had held in the Irish House of Commons. He was unfortunate, we are told, in his first essay there: having ventured, depending on his

practised talents as an orator, and general information and reading, to speak on a subject with the details of which he was almost totally unacquainted,—the affairs of India,—the inevitable consequence of which was a signal failure. He, however, afterwards retrieved his lost credit by several excellent speeches on other measures, especially on parliamentary reform; one which he made on that subject and which at the time elicited much approbation from Mr. Pitt and others of his party, as well as from Fox, who declared the scheme to be the most rational that had ever been brought forward, was republished in 1831, together with his reply to Mr. Windham in the course of the same debate.

A bequest which Mr. Flood made of his estates, of the value of about 5000*l.* per annum, to the university of Dublin, to take effect after the death of his wife, for establishing professorships for the encouragement of the study of the Irish language and history, and for the purchase of books and manuscripts, was the subject of much discussion, and afterwards litigation. An able pamphlet was written in its defence by his friend Lord Ross, when Sir Laurence Parsons. To show that Mr. Flood was by no means singular in his opinion on this subject he gives in a note a letter from Dr. Johnson to Charles O'Connor, the Irish antiquarian, in which he strongly expresses his approval of the design of instituting an inquiry respecting the ancient literature of Ireland. It appears also, that the celebrated philosopher Leibnitz declared that in his opinion the study of the Irish language should be prosecuted diligently; the effect of which would be to perfect, or at all events greatly to promote, the knowledge of Celtic literature. The validity of Mr. Flood's will was contested by his cousin and heir at law, Mr. John Flood, of Flood Hall, who, after protracted litigation, was successful in establishing his claim to the large estates devised for the purpose we have mentioned, and the bequest to the university of Dublin in consequence became void.

In person Mr. Flood was tall and slight: his countenance, though striking and indicative of his commanding intellect, bore little trace of the beauty which it is said he had possessed in early life. His manners were highly polished and courteous; and his style of oratory not only nervous and argumentative, but highly classical and ornate. In conclusion, to use the words of a contemporary of his own, "He made a conspicuous figure in the annals of his country, and was entitled to the respect of every public-spirited man in it; for, unquestionably, he was the senator who, by his exertions, and repeated discussion of questions seldom, if ever, approached before, first taught Ireland she had a parliament." He died in 1791, at his seat of Farnly, in the county of Kilkenny, in the sixtieth year of his age.

FLORIAN, JEAN PIERRE CLARIS DE, a prolific French writer, who was born at the castle of Florian, not far from Sauve, in the Lower Cevennes. His predilection for Spanish literature was derived from his mother, Gillette de Salgues, a native of Castile; and the taste for the age of chivalry and its customs, which animates the romantic poetry of the Spaniards, is clearly to be recognised in his works. An uncle of Florian had married a niece of Voltaire; his father was a friend of this celebrated author, and the author of the "*Henriade*" took pleasure in encouraging the talents of the son of his friend, who

soon became his favourite. Facility, grace, harmony, and a sensibility rare in the French character, are the most striking characteristics of his works. In elevated subjects he is deficient in fire, strength, and colouring; but his descriptions of manners are striking and faithful, particularly his pictures of pastoral life, as for instance in his favourite "*Estelle*." As a writer of fables he ranks immediately after La Fontaine. Voltaire called him by the tender name of Florianet, which paints in a striking manner the species of poetry to which the genius of Florian is adapted, and to which belong his "*Galatée Fables*, *Contes en Vers*." His principal works are "*Estelle* *Gonzalve de Cordoue*, *Numa Pompilius*," and among his dramatic works the "*Deux Billets*." His "*Don Quixote*" may be read as a French original, and is highly interesting, however little it may be esteemed by later translators. The work did not appear until after the death of the author, which took place suddenly.

FLORIDA, BLANCA FRANCISCO ANTONIO MONINO, COUNT OF, a celebrated Spanish minister, who lived in the reign of Charles III. He was born in 1730 at Murcia, where his father was a notary, studied in the university of Salamanca, and soon rendered himself so conspicuous that he was entrusted with the important post of Spanish ambassador at Rome during the pontificate of Clement XIV. In that office he displayed great ability in several emergencies. He particularly distinguished himself by his activity in the abolition of the order of Jesuits, and in the election of Pius VI. Charles III. finding himself obliged to dismiss Grimaldi, the minister of foreign affairs, desired him to nominate his successor. Grimaldi recommended Monino, who was accordingly created Count Florida Blanca, and received the department of foreign affairs, together with that of justice and acts of grace, and the superintendence of the posts, highways, and public magazines in Spain; so that his authority was almost unlimited. He introduced post-coaches, and caused the post-roads to be made practicable; directed his attention to the most important subjects of general police, particularly in the capital; embellished Madrid, and was on every occasion the active friend of the arts and sciences. He endeavoured to confirm the good understanding which existed between the courts of Spain and Portugal by a double intermarriage. His attempt, however, to secure the succession to the throne of Portugal to a Spanish prince proved abortive. The military enterprises which he projected, the attack upon Algiers in 1777, and the siege of Gibraltar, were unsuccessful; and a short time before the death of King Charles III., which took place in October 1788, he requested permission to retire, and presented to the king a justification of his ministerial career. The king expressed himself satisfied with the latter, but refused to accept his resignation. After the accession of Charles IV., however, his enemies, among whom was the prince of peace, succeeded in effecting his disgrace. He was imprisoned in the citadel of Pampeluna, but was soon restored to liberty and banished to his estates. In 1808 he appeared once more upon the political theatre, at the time of convening the cortes, but died in the same year at the age of eighty years.

FLORIS, FRANCIS, a painter possessed of considerable talent, who was born at Antwerp in 1520,



and was called by his contemporaries the Raphael of Flanders. He studied the art of painting under Lombard at Liege, and the pupil soon surpassed his master. After his return to Antwerp Floris established a school for painters in that city. He afterwards went to Italy, where his taste, particularly in design, was improved by the study of the masterpieces of Michael Angelo; but he never equalled the grace and purity of form which distinguished the Florentine and Roman masters. His style was grand, but his colouring and his figures are reproached with dryness and stiffness. After his return to his native country he was engaged to execute important paintings, and soon acquired a considerable fortune, which he squandered by his excesses. He boasted of being the boldest drinker of his time, and, to sustain his reputation, drank on the most extravagant wagers. Most of his works, and in particular his triumphal arches, made on the occasion of the entry of Charles V. and Philip II. into Antwerp, and his twelve labours of Hercules, have often been engraved by skilful artists. His paintings are to be met with in Flanders, Holland, Spain, Paris, Vienna, and Dresden. He died in 1570. Few artists have had so many disciples; amongst whom were his two sons, one of whom, Francis Floris, has some celebrity as a painter.

FLORUS, LUCIUS ANNÆUS, a Roman historian, probably a native of Spain or Gaul. He lived in the beginning of the second century of Christ, and wrote an abridgment of Roman history in four books, from the foundation of the city to the first time of closing the temple of Janus in the reign of Augustus. His style is florid, and not sufficiently simple for history.

FLOWER, BENJAMIN, a very active writer and compiler, who commenced his career in a commercial house in London. Having lost nearly all his property by a speculation in the funds, he devoted himself to literature as a profession, and after a life of much vicissitude, died in 1829. Mr. Flower's principal work is entitled "The French Constitution, with Remarks on some of its Articles, in which the Necessity for Reformation in Church and State in Great Britain is enforced." His "Political Review" occupied eight large volumes.

FLOYD, WILLIAM, a distinguished American, who was born on Long Island in 1734, and was left in his youth heir to a large estate. His education was limited, but his natural intelligence great, and his character elevated. He took part early in the controversy between Great Britain and the colonies on the side of the latter. He was first elected a delegate from New York to the continental congress of 1774, and continued an active member of it until after the declaration of independence. He commanded the militia of Long Island, served as senator of the state of New York, and from 1778, when he was again elected to represent the state in the continental congress, he remained in the national councils until the expiration of the first congress under the present federal constitution. He ended his days in 1821 on a farm upon the Mohawk river, which he began to cultivate in 1784, and to which he removed with his family in 1803. His memory is honourable in every respect. He was a faithful and favourite public servant for more than fifty years.

FLUDD, ROBERT, a celebrated alchemical phi-

losopher born in 1574. He was fellow of the College of Physicians in London, and became a most voluminous writer; he was a great admirer of the wonders of chemistry, was a zealous brother of the Rosicrucian order, and his books, which are mostly in Latin, are as dark and mysterious in their language as in their matter. He died in 1637.

FLUE, NICHOLAS VON DER, born in the village of Saxeln in the canton of Unterwalden, and was celebrated for the purity of his life. In several military expeditions he exhibited no less humanity than valour; and as counsellor of his canton he was equally distinguished for wisdom and prudence. From his youth he was inclined to a contemplative life, and was abstemious and austere in his habits. At the age of fifty, after having faithfully fulfilled the duties of a good citizen, and become the father of ten children, he determined with the consent of his wife to quit the world and live in future in solitude. He chose for his residence a solitary spot not far distant from Saxeln, which was enlivened only by a waterfall. There he spent his time in prayers and pious meditations. His reputation was increased by the report that he lived without food, except the Lord's supper, of which he partook once a month. All who stood in need of counsel or consolation had recourse to him as an experienced and judicious adviser, and he soon became the benefactor of the whole country. Jealousy and distrust had risen among the eight cantons which at that time composed the Swiss confederacy. It was suspected that the booty taken from the Burgundians, defeated a short time previous at Nancy, had not been faithfully divided; the larger aristocratic towns made common cause, and wished to receive Freyburg and Soleure into the confederacy, to which the smaller democratic cantons were opposed. An assembly of the deputies of the confederated cantons, which was held at Stantz, the capital of the canton of Unterwalden, in 1481, for the purpose of taking these affairs into consideration, was agitated by the most violent debates. The dissolution of the confederacy, and with it the ruin of the liberty of Switzerland, which must have been the inevitable consequence, seemed at hand; but at this crisis brother Claus, as Nicholas was now called, appeared in the assembly of the deputies. His great reputation, his lofty and dignified appearance, which seemed to bespeak a messenger from heaven, his conciliating but powerful language, in which he painted the dangers of separation, and exhorted to union, produced such an impression on the assembly that a compact, celebrated in Swiss history as the covenant of Stantz, was immediately entered into; all differences were composed, Freyburg and Soleure were received into the confederacy, and the liberty of Switzerland was saved. Brother Claus, after having completed this work, returned, amidst the blessings of his fellow-citizens, to his cell, where he continued teaching virtue and wisdom till his death, which took place in 1487. All Unterwalden followed his body to the tomb, and all Switzerland mourned his death; foreign princes honoured his memory; and in 1671 Clement X. caused him to be beatified.

FOIX.—Of the many distinguished individuals who have borne this name, none merits notice more than the celebrated Paul de Foix, archbishop of Toulouse. He was born in 1528, and studied at Paris and Toulouse. He was afterwards employed

on embassies to Scotland, Venice, England, and Rome. De Thou, who accompanied him on his embassy to Rome, said that he never left the society of this great man without perceiving that it had rendered him better and wiser. De Foix died at Rome in 1584. He was the author of several very valuable works.

**FOLENGIO, THEOPHILUS**, an Italian poet, remarkable for giving to a poem a name which has been adopted ever since for all trifling performances of the same species, consisting of buffoonery, puns, anagrams, wit without wisdom, and humour without good sense. His poem was called "The Macaroni," from an Italian cake of the same name, which is sweet to the taste, but has no alimentary virtue; on the contrary palls the appetite and cloyes the stomach. These idle poems, however, became the reigning taste in Italy and France. They gave birth to macaroni academies, and, reaching England, to clubs bearing the same name. Folengio died in 1545.

**FOLKES, MARTIN**, an English antiquary, mathematician, and philosopher, who was born at Westminster about 1690, and became distinguished as a member of the Royal Society in London, and of the Academy of Sciences at Paris. He was admitted into the former at twenty-four years of age, made one of their council two years after, named by Sir Isaac Newton himself as vice-president, and, after Sir Hans Sloane, became president. There are numerous memoirs of his in the "Philosophical Transactions." Coins, ancient and modern, were the great object of study with him, and his last and best work was devoted to describing of English silver coins from the conquest to his own times. He died in 1754.

Martin Folkes was a man of great integrity, and a friend to merit. Among others whom he patronised were Edwards the ornithologist, and Norden the Danish traveller. His library was large and well chosen, and his cabinet enriched with a collection of English coins of great extent and value. The manuscripts of his composition, which were not a few, and upon points of great antiquarian importance, not having received from him that revision and completion which he was capable of giving them, were expressly directed by him to be suppressed, an injunction which the public has probably great reason to regret. His knowledge was extensive, his judgment exact and accurate, and the precision of his ideas appeared from the conciseness of his style on abstruse and difficult topics, and especially in his speeches at the anniversary elections of the Royal Society on the delivery of the prize medals, in which he always traced out the rise and progress of the several inventions for which they were assigned as a reward. He had turned his thoughts to the study of antiquity and the polite arts with a philosophical spirit, which he had contracted by the cultivation of the mathematical sciences in his youth; but his talents appeared to greatest advantage upon the subjects of coins, weights, and measures, which had been perplexed by previous writers, for want of a moderate share of arithmetic; in the prosecution of which he produced many arguments and proofs which were the results of his own experiments and observations.

**FONTANA, DOMENICO**, an eminent Italian architect, who was born at Milan in 1543, and went to Rome early in life for the purpose of studying archi-

tecture. Sixtus V., to whom his merits were known when he was cardinal Montaldo, was no sooner raised to the tiara than he made him his architect, and employed him in building a palace near the baths of Diocletian. Sixtus wished to remove the great obelisk now in front of St. Peter's church, which was then nearly buried under the rubbish, to the middle of the square. This undertaking had been already contemplated by several popes, but had been relinquished on account of the difficulty of accomplishing it. Fontana happily executed this gigantic operation in the year 1586, and he afterwards erected three other obelisks, which were found partly buried under ruins in different squares. Among other buildings erected by Fontana, by the command of Sixtus V., and which are an honour to the patron not less than to the architect, the library of the Vatican and the aqueduct deserve particular mention. Under Clement VIII. Fontana also constructed several buildings, and repaired many ancient monuments. Having been accused of converting to his private use the money received for public purposes, he was deprived of his office by the pope, but immediately received the offer of the post of architect and chief engineer of the king of the Two Sicilies, and in 1592 went to Naples. He there constructed several canals to prevent inundations, a new road along the bay, and the royal palace in the capital, which, however, has been since considerably changed. His plan for a harbour at Naples was executed after his death by another architect. Fontana died at Naples in 1607, and was succeeded in the office of royal architect by his son, Julius Cæsar. We have but one literary work by Domenico Fontana, which was published at Rome in 1590. It is an explanation of his method of removing the great obelisk, and the process must be considered as his own invention since the writings of former architects contain no rules on this subject.

**FONTANA, FELICE**, a natural philosopher 'at the grand-ducal court of Florence, who was born at Pomarolo, not far from Roveredo, in the Italian Tyrol, in 1730, and began his studies in the schools at Roveredo and Verona, and, after having completed them at the universities of Padua and Bologna, went to Rome, and thence to Florence. The grand-duke Francis, who afterwards became emperor, appointed him professor of natural philosophy in the university of Pisa, and the grand-duke Leopold, afterwards emperor Leopold II., invited him to Florence, but permitted him to retain his office at Pisa, and employed him in forming the cabinet of the natural sciences which is yet one of the ornaments of Florence. This collection contains an immense number of anatomical preparations in coloured wax, which exhibit all parts of the human body in the minutest detail, and in all imaginable positions. They are executed with the greatest skill, and were made by different artists under the direction of Fontana. The emperor Joseph II. procured from him a similar collection for the surgical academy in Vienna. In the same way many plants, and other natural objects which lose their natural colours by keeping, were represented in coloured wax, from nature, under his direction. Fontana is the author of several works on scientific subjects, some of which have been translated into German and French. He also made several discoveries relative to the application of carbonic acid, and different sorts of gas. His



writings show him to have been an ingenious and indefatigable observer, but the political principles which he avowed during the events of 1799 in Tuscany involved him in some difficulties. He died in 1805, and was buried in the church of Santa Croce, by the side of Galileo and Viviani.

FONTAINE, JOHN DE LA, a celebrated French writer, who was born in 1621. He appears not to have attempted composition of any description until his twenty-second year, when he was suddenly impressed and excited by the recital of an Ode of Malherbes. He immediately began studying the works of this author, and at length imitated him. The first fruits of his pen he usually communicated to a near relation, who encouraged him and frequently read with him the best Latin poets and critics, as Horace, Virgil, Terence, Quintilian, &c. He passed from thence to such French and Italian writers as excelled in the manner and style to which his genius led him; particularly Rabelais, Marot, Ariosto, Boccaccio, &c. Rabelais was uniformly his favourite and idol. He had recourse also to the Greek authors, and especially to Plato and Plutarch; from whom he drew those fine moral maxims with which he has enriched his fables. Though his disposition was exceedingly averse to confinement or restraint of any kind, yet, to oblige his parents, he consented to marry; and was so far captivated by the wit and beauty of his wife, that he entertained a high opinion of her judgment, and never undertook any considerable work without consulting her. The duchess of Bouillon, however, niece to Cardinal Mazarine, being banished to Château-Thierry, Fontaine was presented to her, and he followed her when she was recalled to Paris. Here the intendant Fouquet soon procured him a pension, which he enjoyed in great comfort without troubling himself at all about his wife, or, perhaps, even reflecting that he had one. Upon the disgrace of this minister, he was admitted as a gentleman usher to Henrietta of England; but the death of this princess put an end to all his court hopes. After this, among other favours from the most illustrious persons in the kingdom, the generous and witty Madame de la Sabliere furnished him with an apartment and all necessaries in her house; who, one day, having hastily turned away all her servants, declared that she then kept but three animals in her house, which were her dog, her cat, and La Fontaine.

Beside "Tales," he was the author of "Fables;" and in both he has merited the title of an original writer, who is, and probably will ever be, single in his kind. In his subjects indeed, he has made great use of the Greek, and Latin, and French, and Italian authors; but he is truly original in his manner, which is so easy, so natural, so simple, so delicate, that it does not seem possible to exceed it. His compositions have much nature, and are entirely devoid of affectation: his wit seems unstudied, and so much pleasantry is hardly to be met with. He never grows languid or heavy, but is always new and entertaining. His "Tales" are said to have been a great while the cause of his exclusion from the French Academy; but at last, upon his writing a letter to a prelate of that society, in which he declared his regret for the liberties he had taken, and his resolution that his pen should never relapse, he was received into that body with marks of esteem. His first Fables are more valued than his last: he seems

to have thrown the best of his fire and force into them; and both the one and the other have more sobriety and correctness than his Tales.

La Fontaine died at Paris in 1695, and after his death his family were rendered exempt from imposts and taxes of every description. The life of this original and talented writer had as little of affectation in it as his writings: he was all nature, approaching to the extreme of simplicity, without a grain of art. He had a son, whom, after keeping a short time at home, he recommended to the patronage of the president Harlay. Fontaine, being one day at a house where this son was come, did not know him again, but observed to the company that he thought him a boy of parts and spirit. Being told that this promising youth was no other than his own son, he answered very unconcernedly, "Ha! truly I am glad on't." This apathy, which so many philosophers have vainly affected, was perfectly natural to Fontaine; it ran through every part of his behaviour, and seemed to render him insensible to every thing without.

FONTANES, LOUIS, MARQUIS DE, a distinguished member of the French Institute, who was born of a noble family at Niort in 1757. In the commencement of the French revolution he edited a journal entitled the "Modérateur," and, after the fall of Robespierre, joined La Harpe and others in the publication of a paper called "Le Mémorial," which was, together with about forty more of the same description, suppressed by the National Convention on the 6th of September, 1797, the several proprietors, editors, &c., being all included in one common sentence of banishment and confiscation of property. M. de Fontanes escaped to England, where he contracted an intimacy with M. de Châteaubriand, in company with whom he returned to his native country, taking advantage of the amnesty granted on the elevation of Bonaparte to the consulship, and joined MM. Ronald and La Harpe in conducting the "Mercure de France." Shortly after he obtained a seat in the *corps législatif*, of which body he eventually became the president. In 1808 he was appointed grand-master of the university of Paris, and in 1810 attained to the dignity of a senator. In this capacity he, on the 1st of April, 1814, made a strong speech in favour of the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty; and being subsequently placed on the committee for drawing up the constitutional charter, was, for his services, raised to the peerage, on the re-establishment of that body. In 1817 he was one of the supporters of the election law introduced by Decaze, but afterwards changed his opinion, and voted for its repeal. M. de Fontanes died at Paris in March 1821.

FONTANGES, DUCHESS OF, a celebrated mistress of Louis XIV., who was born in 1661, was descended from an ancient family of Rovergue, and was lady of honour to the queen mother. She was beautiful as an angel, says the abbé Choisy, but as silly as she was beautiful, she nevertheless captivated the affections of Louis XIV. As soon as she had secured her royal conquest, she became haughty and extravagant, spending a hundred thousand crowns a month, and retorting a hundred-fold the disdain she had experienced from Madame de Montespan. She became the general dispenser of the king's favours, and the model of fashion. One day, when she was on a hunting party, the wind having put her head-



dress in disorder, she fastened it with a riband, the knot of which falling over her forehead, this fashion spread over all Europe under her name. The king made her a duchess, but she did not long enjoy the rank, as she died when scarcely twenty years old, in the abbey of Portroyal, Paris.

**FONTENELLE, BERNERD LE BOVIER DE.**—This learned French author was born at Rouen in 1657, and was the son of an advocate and of a sister of the great Corneille. He lived to the age of nearly a hundred years, and retained till his death a remarkable degree of activity, preserving a sound mind in a sound body. He began his youthful studies in the college of the Jesuits at Rouen, and, after completing his studies, he was admitted an advocate, conducted a cause, which he lost, and renounced the bar for ever. In 1674 he went to Paris, and soon became known by his poetical effusions and learned works. Several of his poems appeared in the "*Mercur Galant*," and displayed much poetic sensibility and taste. Before the age of twenty he had assisted in the composition of the operas of *Psyche* and *Bellerophon*, which appeared under the name of his uncle, Thomas Corneille. In 1681 he brought out his tragedy "*Aspar*," which was unsuccessful; and its failure excited so much attention that Racine wrote an epigram on it. Zeal for the fame of his uncle, and personal feeling, brought him into a party entirely opposed to the opinions of those who then directed the destinies of French literature. But his amiable character and his love of peace prevented him from entering into the contest with acrimony. In 1683 appeared his "*Dialogues of the Dead*," which were favourably received, although his continual straining after wit and novelty deprives them of the charm of natural ease. His "*Entretiens sur la Pluralité des Mondes*" was the first book in which astronomical subjects were discussed with taste and wit; but it has now become obsolete in consequence of the advancement of science. Fontenelle distinguished himself as secretary of the Academy of Sciences by his "*Eloges*," a class of writings which have become so common since his time. Perhaps no other man of letters ever enjoyed so universal an esteem as Fontenelle, which advantage he owed not only to his works, but to the prudence of his conduct and the sweetness of his manners. His conversation was lively though placid, and his politeness was equal to his wit. Though he was superior to most other men, he did not make them feel it; but bore with their defects, and conversed as an equal. "Men," he said, "are foolish and wicked; but such as they are, I must live among them; and this I settled with myself very early in life." He was accused of want of feeling: and certainly he had not all the warmth which some require in a friend; but his friendship had more constancy and equality than that has in general which is more tender or more lively. He rendered services without the smallest ostentation. When the duke of Orleans proposed to him to be made perpetual president of the Academy of Sciences his reply was, "Take not from me, my lord, the delight of living with my equals." He was ready always to listen as well as to talk, but when he had delivered his opinion, he studiously avoided dispute, pretending his lungs were not equal to it. Though poor originally, he became rich for a literary man, by the royal bounty, and by an economy free from all

tincture of avarice. He was sparing only to himself; to others he was ready at all times to give or lend, and frequently to persons unknown to him. One of his maxims was, "that a man should be sparing in superfluities to himself, that he may supply necessities to others"—a sublime and truly Christian saying, which with the rest of his excellent character may discharge us from the necessity of entering into the dispute concerning his religious faith; which, probably, has been estimated too low, because he was superior to the superstitious opinions thought essential to it in his time.

This great author died in January 1757, without ever having had any violent disorder, or felt any of the maladies of age till he was turned of ninety, after which he was a little deaf, and his eyes in some degree failed. The tranquil ease of his temper is thought to have contributed to extend his life to this unusual period.

**FOOTE, SAMUEL**, a distinguished writer and actor, who was born at Truro in Cornwall about 1720. His father was member of parliament for Tiverton in Devonshire, and enjoyed the post of commissioner of the prize office for some years. His mother was heiress of the Dinely and Goodere families. In consequence of a fatal misunderstanding between her two brothers, Sir John Dinely Goodere, Bart., and Samuel Goodere, Esq., captain of his majesty's ship the *Ruby*, which ended in the death of both, a considerable part of the Goodere estate, which was better than 5000*l.* per annum, descended to Mr. Foote. He was educated at Worcester College, Oxford, and on leaving the university he commenced student of law in the Temple; but as the dryness of this study did not suit his genius, he soon relinquished it. And shortly after he married, and immediately launched into all the fashionable foibles of the age, gaming not excepted, and in a few years spent his whole fortune. His necessities led him to the stage, and he made his first appearance in the character of Othello. He next performed *Fondlewife* with much more applause; and this, indeed, was ever after one of his best parts.

In 1747 he opened the theatre in the Haymarket, taking upon himself the double character of author and performer; and appeared in a dramatic piece of his own composing, called the "*Divisions of the Morning*." This piece consisted of nothing more than the exhibition of several characters well known in real life, whose manner of conversation and expression this author very happily imitated in the diction of his drama, and still more happily represented on the stage by an exact and most amazing imitation, not only of the manner and tone of voice, but even of the very persons, of those whom he intended to represent. Mr. Foote took off with great humour and accuracy the several styles of acting of every principal performer on the English stage. This performance at first met with some opposition from the civil magistrates of Westminster, under the sanction of the act of parliament for limiting the number of theatres, as well as from the jealousy of one of the managers of Drury Lane; but the author being patronized by many of the principal nobility and other persons of distinction, this opposition was overruled; and having altered the title of his performance, Mr. Foote proceeded without further molestation to give "*Tea in a Morning*" to his friends, and represented it through a run of forty mornings



to crowded audiences. The ensuing season he produced another piece of the same kind, which he called "An Auction of Pictures." In this performance he introduced several new and popular characters, particularly Sir Thomas de Veil, then the acting justice of peace for Westminster, Mr. Cock the celebrated auctioneer, and the equally celebrated orator Henley. This piece also had a very great run. His "Knights," which was the produce of the ensuing season, was a performance of somewhat more dramatic regularity; but still, although his plot and characters seemed less immediately personal, it was apparent that he kept some particular real persons strongly in his eye in the performance. Mr. Foote continued from time to time to select for the entertainment of the public such characters, as well general as individual, as seemed most likely to engage their attention. His principal dramatic works, exclusive of the interlude called "Piety in Pattens," are as follow: "Taste," "The Knights," "The Author," "The Englishman in Paris," "The Englishman returned from Paris," "The Mayor of Garrat," "The Liar," "The Patron," "The Minor," "The Orators," "The Commissary," "The Devil upon Two Sticks," "The Lame Lover," "The Maid of Bath," "The Nabob," "The Cozeners," "The Capuchin," "The Bankrupt," and an unfinished comedy called "The Slanderer." All these works are only to be ranked among the *petites pieces* of the theatre. In the execution they are somewhat negligent and unfinished; the plots are often irregular, and the catastrophes not always conclusive; but, with all these deficiencies, they contain more strength of character, more strokes of keen satire, and more touches of temporary humour, than are to be found in the writings of any other modern dramatist. Even the language spoken by his characters, incorrect as it may sometimes seem, will on a closer examination be found entirely dramatical, as it abounds with those natural minutæ of expression which frequently form the very basis of character, and which render it the truest mirror of the times in which he wrote.

In the year 1766, being on a party of pleasure with Lord Mexborough and Sir Francis Delaval, Mr. Foote had the misfortune to break his leg by a fall from his horse; in consequence of which he was compelled to undergo an amputation. This accident so sensibly affected the duke of York that he obtained for Mr. Foote a patent for life of the theatre in the Haymarket, from the 15th of May to the 15th of September every year.

He now became a greater favourite with the public than ever; and his very laughable pieces, with his more laughable performance, constantly filled his house.

In 1775, the duchess of Kingston having made herself the topic of public conversation, Foote thought that she would afford a happy subject for the stage, and wrote a part for her, under the character of Lady Kitty Crocodile, in a new piece which he was composing, called the "Trip to Calais." Taking care that his intention should reach her ears, a negotiation was set on foot to prevent its execution for a pecuniary consideration. So large a sum was demanded, that the duchess exerted her influence with the lord chamberlain, and Foote was obliged to expunge the character from his drana. He was soon after assailed by a charge of an infamous nature brought by a discarded man-servant, according to some accounts, instigated by female revenge. He

was however acquitted in full accordance with the sentiments of the judge, but he so felt the disgrace that his health declined, and a few months afterwards he was seized on the stage with a paralytic fit, which obliged him to retire and spend the summer at Brighton. He was afterwards taken ill at Dover, and died there in October 1777. The character of Foote may be gathered from the foregoing sketch. Of delicacy or feeling he was wholly destitute; as a humorist, he was irresistible, which made him a constantly welcome guest at the tables of the gay and great; as a dramatic writer, he possessed the *vis comica* in a superlative degree, and there is a force and a nature in some of his comic delineations which would not have discredited Moliere.

FORBES, PATRICK, a celebrated bishop of Aberdeen, who was born in 1654, when the affairs of the church of Scotland were in much confusion; to the settlement of which he greatly contributed. As chancellor of the university of Aberdeen, he improved that seat of learning by repairing the building, and he also made many valuable additions to the library, besides reviving the professorships. He published a "Commentary on the Revelations," at London, in 1613, and died in 1635.

FORBES, JOHN.—This learned prelate was the author of several valuable works, among which we may mention, as the most celebrated, his "Historical and Theological Institutes." He was bishop of Aberdeen, but was expelled by the Covenanters, and forced to fly to Holland, but was afterwards permitted to return, and lived on his private estate until he died in 1648.

FORBES, WILLIAM, a learned bishop of Edinburgh, who was born in 1585. His ill-health and the anti-episcopal disposition of the Scots, confined him chiefly to a retired life; but when Charles I. in 1633 founded an episcopal church at Edinburgh, he selected Mr. Forbes to fill the see. He however died three months after his consecration in 1634.

FORBES, DUNCAN, was born in the year 1685. He was educated in a family remarkable for hospitality; which, perhaps, led him afterwards to a free indulgence in social pleasures. His natural disposition inclined him to the army, but by the advice of his friends he applied himself to letters. He directed his studies particularly to the civil law, in which he made a rapid progress, and in 1709 was admitted an advocate. From 1722 to 1737 he represented in parliament the boroughs of Inverness, Fortrose, Nairn, and Forres; and in 1725 he was made king's advocate, and lord president of the court of session in 1737. In the troubles of 1715 and 1745 he espoused the royal cause, but with so much moderation that not a whisper was heard to his prejudice. He died in 1747 in the sixty-second year of his age.

FORCELLINI, EGIDIO or GILES, a celebrated Italian philologist and lexicographer, who was born in 1688, in a village not far from Feltre, in the ancient Venetian territory. The poverty of his parents prevented him from going to school, and he was almost grown up when he began to study Latin in the seminary at Padua. His teacher in this language, who soon became his friend, was Professor Facciolato. Forcellini made rapid progress in the ancient languages, and assisted Facciolato in his new and greatly augmented edition of Calepin's dictionary of seven languages. The two friends then resolved to

publish a complete Latin dictionary; but the execution of this project was long delayed by Forcellini's being appointed professor of rhetoric and president of the seminary at Ceneda, in the Trevisan. But, having been recalled to Padua in 1731, and having obtained, through the patronage of the bishop of that city, cardinal Rezzonico, sufficient leisure to prosecute his task, he finished it under the direction of Facciolo. It was published under the title of *Ægidii Forcellini Totius Latinitatis Lexicon*," &c.—a monument of erudition and accurate knowledge of the Latin tongue. Forcellini died in 1768.

FORD, JOHN, an early English dramatic author, was born in Devonshire in 1586, and entered the Middle Temple in 1602 for the purpose of studying law. While there he published, in 1606, a piece entitled "Fame's Memoriall," a species of monody on the earl of Devonshire, which poem, considered as the production of a youth, exhibits great freedom of thought and command of language. He printed his first tragedy of the "Lover's Melancholy" in 1629. This, however, was not his first play, as a piece of his, entitled, "A Bad Beginning makes a Good Ending," was previously acted at court. He wrote, or assisted to write, at least eleven dramas; and such as were printed appeared from 1629 to 1634. Most of these were exclusively his own composition; but some of them were written in conjunction with Decker, Drayton, Hatherwaye, and others. The date of his death is uncertain, but it is thought that he did not long survive 1639. As a dramatic writer, he is often elegant and elevated, and uniformly easy and harmonious. His genius was most inclined to tragedy, and he was too fond of an accumulation of terrific incidents, which overlays the natural pathos in which he was by no means deficient.

FORDYCE, GEORGE.—This eminent physician was born at Aberdeen in 1736. He received his medical education with Dr. John Fordyce, and in 1758 received his diploma of M. D. at Edinburgh. About the end of 1758 he came to London, but went shortly after to Leyden, for the purpose, chiefly, of studying anatomy under Albinus. He returned in 1759 to London, where he soon determined to fix himself as a teacher and practitioner of medicine. When he made known this intention to his relations they highly disapproved of it, as the whole of his patrimony had been expended upon his education. Inspired, however, with that confidence which frequently attends the conscious possession of great talents, he persisted in his purpose, and, before the end of 1759, commenced a course of lectures upon chemistry. This was attended by nine pupils.

In 1764 Dr. Fordyce began to lecture also upon *materia medica* and the practice of physic. These three subjects he continued to teach nearly thirty years, giving, for the most part, three courses of lectures on each of them every year. A course lasted nearly four months; and during it a lecture of nearly an hour was delivered six times in the week. His time of teaching commenced about seven o'clock in the morning and ended at ten, his lectures upon the three above-mentioned subjects being given one immediately after the other. In 1765 he was admitted a licentiate of the College of Physicians. In 1770 he was chosen physician to St. Thomas's Hospital, after a considerable contest; the number of votes in his favour being 109, in that of his antagonist, Dr. Watson, 106.

In 1776 Dr. Fordyce was elected a fellow of the Royal Society. In 1787 he was admitted a fellow of the College of Physicians, and no circumstance can demonstrate more strongly the high opinion entertained of his abilities by the rest of his profession in London than his reception into that body. He had been particularly active in the dispute, which had existed about twenty years before, between the fellows and licentiates, and had for this reason, it was thought, forfeited all title to be admitted into the fellowship through favour. But the college in 1787 were preparing a new edition of their *Pharmacopœia*, and, knowing his talents in the branch of pharmaceutical chemistry, suppressed their resentment of his former conduct, and by admitting him into their body secured his assistance in the work. In 1793 he assisted in forming a small society of physicians and surgeons, which has since published several volumes, under the title of "*Medical and Chirurgical Transactions*;" and continued to attend its meetings most punctually till within a month or two of his death, which occurred in 1802. Dr. Fordyce's principal work, entitled the "*Elements of the Practice of Physic*," was used by him as a text-book for a part of his course of lectures on that subject.

FORDYCE, SIR WILLIAM, a very able medical practitioner, born in 1724. He was educated in the Marischal College, Aberdeen, and soon obtained extensive practice in London. His works are generally of a surgical character, but his treatise on the cultivation of rhubarb in this country procured him a gold medal from the Society of Arts. Sir William died in 1792.

FORDYCE, DAVID, a Scottish writer of the last century, who was born in 1711, and was educated at Marischal College, Aberdeen. Having been licensed as a public preacher, he officiated for some time as chaplain to a gentleman residing at Bretton in Essex, but he never settled as the pastor of any congregation. He was the author of several valuable theological works. Mr. Fordyce was shipwrecked off the coast of Holland in 1751. His brother James Fordyce was also distinguished as a theological writer.

FORMEY, JOHN SAMUEL, perpetual secretary of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, who was born in 1711 at Berlin, where he died in March 1797. He distinguished himself by numerous works in the French and Latin languages. In 1740 he was appointed secretary and historiographer to the Academy of Berlin, and in 1748 perpetual secretary. Frederick the Great always manifested the highest esteem for him, although he was displeased with him for not taking the part of Voltaire in his philosophical controversies.

FORMEY, JOHN LOUIS, one of the most distinguished practical physicians of Germany, who was born in 1766 at Berlin, and studied at Halle and Göttingen. He received the degree of doctor at Halle, and published a dissertation "*De Vasorum Absorbentium Indole*." He then studied at Paris, which he left at the beginning of the revolution. He was afterwards one of the highest physicians of the army, and a practising physician at Berlin, and also became body physician to the king of Prussia, and in 1806 was invited to Paris to attend a medical consultation on the case of Prince Louis, afterwards king of Holland. He died in June 1823. Among his works are the "*Medical Topography of Berlin*,"



"Medical Ephemerides," a new edition of "Zükert's Instructions for the Treatment of Infants," "On the Hydrocephalus of Children," "Miscellaneous Medical Writings," and a "Treatise on the Pulse," written during his last illness. His reputation as a practical physician was very great.

FORSKAL, PETER, a Swedish botanist, and pupil of Linnæus. He was born in 1736, and studied at Göttingen. A French pamphlet, entitled "Thoughts on Civil Liberty," which he published soon after his return to Sweden, offended the ruling oligarchy in that country. He was then invited to Copenhagen as a professor; and, on the recommendation of Linnæus, he was selected by Frederic V. to join the scientific expedition to Arabia, to take charge of the department of natural history. In 1761 he set out on this expedition with Carsten Niebuhr Von Haven and Kramer, and collected plants in the environs of Marseilles, of which he published a Flora at Malta. He arrived in Egypt and Arabia, where he collected plants with the greatest zeal, but being attacked by the plague, he died in 1763 at Djerim, in the latter country, too early for science. Niebuhr collected Forskal's papers, which consisted merely of detached sheets, accompanied them with remarks, and published them at Copenhagen in 1775.

FORSTER, GEORGE, an English traveller, of whose personal history, unconnected with his travels, very little information can be obtained. He was in 1782 engaged in the civil service of the East India Company. He spoke Hindivi with uncommon correctness and fluency; Persic was familiar to him; in Sanscrit he had made some progress, and in that dialect of it spoken by the Mahrattas he was much more conversant. Thus qualified, in August 1782 he commenced a journey from Bengal to Persia, and thence through Russia to England. Some account of Mr. Forster's expedition appeared in 1790, but a fuller narrative was published in 1798, under the title of a "Journey from Bengal to England, through the Northern Part of India, Kashmere, Afghanistan, and Persia, and into Russia by the Caspian Sea," which work was translated into French. The author travelled chiefly in the character of a Mohammedan merchant, which his knowledge of the Asiatic languages and customs enabled him to support. His information was derived rather from enquiry and observation than from books, and when he relates what he had seen his veracity may be trusted, but his historical disquisitions are frequently inaccurate. He returned to India, and was preparing for further researches in that part of the world when his death took place at Allahabad in 1792.

FORSTER, JOHN REINHOLD, a learned Prussian professor of natural history at Halle, who was born in 1729. His family, which was descended from an ancient house in Scotland, had fled to Polish Prussia, and his father became burgomaster of Dirschau, a town not far from Dantzic. In 1748 he began to study theology at Halle, and in 1751 he went to Dantzic, and obtained the place of preacher at Nassenhuben. He just gave so much attention only to his office as necessity required, and entered with his whole soul into his favourite studies—mathematics, philosophy, history, geography, and the ancient languages. His passion for travelling was gratified by a commission to examine the state of the colony of Saratov, in Asiatic Russia, for which he set out in March 1765. His official report gave much satis-

faction, and after his return to Petersburg he was commissioned, with several other distinguished men, by the Empress Catherine II., to draw up a code of laws for the colonists. But his activity was not rewarded as he had expected, and having lost the place of preacher by his long absence, he went to London in August 1766, without having received the least compensation. Here he supported himself and his son George, partly by the sale of the curiosities which he had collected in his travels, and partly by translations. He afterwards joined a dissenting academy at Warrington in Lancashire, as teacher of natural history and the French and German languages. He was finally invited to accompany Captain Cook, in his second voyage of discovery, as naturalist of the expedition. This voyage, which lasted three years, is minutely described in a work bearing the name of his son, George Forster, as it was made a condition with the father that he should not print any account of this voyage. The father afterwards published his valuable remarks on the physical geography, the natural history, and the moral and intellectual condition of the countries he had visited. The publication of the account of the voyage gave offence to the English government, and deprived Forster of the chance of further patronage from that quarter, and he remained for some time in straitened circumstances.

In 1780 he was invited to Halle as professor of natural history, and continued an ornament of the university until his death, which took place eighteen years afterwards. At Halle he wrote many valuable works, and translated the latest voyages, among which was the third voyage of Cook. He died in December 1798. He united great penetration and quick apprehension with an astonishing memory and was well acquainted with every department of literature. Of his numerous writings the best are his "Observations on a Voyage round the World," already mentioned, his "History of Voyages" and his "Discoveries in the North," and his "Antiquarian Researches on the Byssus of the Ancients."

FORSTER, JOHN GEORGE ADAM, son of the preceding, was born in November 1754 at Nassenhuben, near Dantzic. When his father went to England he was placed with a merchant in London, but his feeble health soon compelled him to give up mercantile pursuits, and he resided with his father at Warrington, where he continued his studies, translated several works into English, and taught German and French in a school of the neighbourhood. In company with his father, he performed the voyage round the world with Cook, 1772—1775, and in 1777 he went to Paris with the intention of settling there, but soon after went to Holland, and was on his way to Berlin when the landgrave of Hesse offered him the chair of natural history in an academy in Cassel. He held that office till 1784, when he accepted an invitation to become professor of natural history at Wilna, where he received the degree of doctor of medicine. The empress Catherine, in 1787, formed the design of a voyage round the world, and Forster was named historiographer of the expedition. The war with Turkey interrupted the project, and Forster, unwilling to remain idle, returned to Germany, and published several treatises on natural history and literary subjects. In 1788 the elector of Mentz appointed him his first librarian, and Forster occupied this post with great reputation

till the French entered the city in 1792. He had warmly embraced revolutionary principles, and was sent to Paris by the republicans of Mentz to request a union with France, but while absent on this commission the Prussians recovered the city. By this event he lost all his property, with his books and papers. He thus found himself completely ruined. He now separated from his wife, who at his request married his friend Huber, and adopted the resolution of going to India. With this view he began the study of the Oriental languages, but sunk under the repeated shocks of the previous year, and died at Paris on the 12th of January, 1794.

**FORSYTH, WILLIAM.**—This able horticulturist was born at Old Meldrum, in the county of Aberdeen, in 1737, and having been early initiated in the science of horticulture, a favourite study in his own country, he came to London in 1763. Shortly after he became pupil to the celebrated Philip Miller, gardener to the company of apothecaries at their botanic garden at Chelsea, and succeeded him in that situation in 1771. Here he remained until the beginning of 1784, when he was appointed by his majesty chief superintendent of the royal gardens at Kensington and at St. James's, which appointments he held until his death, which took place in July 1804. His two principal works are entitled "Observations on the Diseases, Defects, and Injuries of Fruit and Forest Trees," and "A Treatise on the Culture and Management of Fruit Trees."

**FORTESQUE, SIR JOHN,** a distinguished lawyer and politician, who was much attached to the royal house of Lancaster. He was educated at Oxford, and Henry VI. made him one of the governors of Lincoln's Inn. In 1441 he was appointed a king's serjeant at law, and the year after chief justice of the king's bench. He stood high in favour with the king, of which he received a signal proof by an unusual increase of his salary. He held his office through the reign of Henry VI., to whom he steadily adhered, and served him faithfully in all his troubles; for which, in the first parliament of Edward IV., which began at Westminster in November 1461, he was attainted of high treason, in the same act by which Henry VI., Queen Margaret, Edward their son, and many persons of the first distinction, were likewise attainted. After this, Henry fled into Scotland, and it is generally believed that he then made Fortescue chancellor of England. His name indeed, upon this occasion, is not found recorded in the patent rolls, but several writers have styled him chancellor of England; and in his book "*De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*," he calls himself "*Cancellarius Angliæ*."

In April 1463 he embarked with Queen Margaret, Prince Edward, and many persons of distinction who followed the fortunes of the house of Lancaster, at Bamburg, and landed at Sluys in Flanders; whence they were conducted to Bruges, thence to Lisle, and thence into Lorraine. In this exile he remained for many years, retiring from place to place, as the necessities of the royal family required; for though, during that space, the queen and prince were often in motion, and great efforts were made to restore Henry, yet, considering the age of Fortescue, it is not probable that he was suffered to expose himself to such hazards; especially as he might do them better service by soliciting their interest at different courts. It is certain that he was not idle; but ob-

serving the peculiar disposition of Prince Edward, who applied himself wholly to military exercises, and seemed to think of little else but qualifying himself for an expert commander, he thought it time to give him just notions of the constitution of his country, as well as due respect to its laws; so that if providence should favour his designs, he might govern as a king, and not as a conqueror. With this view, as we learn from his introduction, he drew up his celebrated work, entitled "*De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*;" which, though it failed of its primary intention, the young prince being shortly after murdered, will yet remain a lasting monument of this great and good man's respect and affection for his country. This very curious and concise vindication of our laws was not published till the reign of Henry VIII., when it was printed by Edward Whitchurch, but without a date, and many other editions appeared afterwards. The house of Lancaster having afterwards a prospect of retrieving their fortunes, the queen and the prince came over to this country, Fortescue with many others accompanying them. On the failure of this expedition, Fortescue contrived to procure a pardon, and died a very few years after in retirement.

**FOSCOLO, UGO.**—This distinguished foreigner ranked higher in classical literature than any other Italian of modern times. He was born in 1776, and educated in the university of Padua. When the first symptoms of democratic feeling approached the most ancient and most aristocratic of all governments, that of Venice, Foscolo was suspected to be an ardent democrat, and he was summoned before the Inquisitors of State. His mother, a high-spirited Grecian lady, though a great aristocrat, called out to him in Greek whilst on his way to the tribunal, "Die, but do not dishonour thyself by betraying thy friends." After an admonition from the secretary of state he was discharged, and his mother was advised to send him on his travels. He went to Tuscany, and ere he had yet attained the age of twenty, he wrote his tragedy "*Tieste*," from which Alfieri, then living, argued that the young poet would greatly surpass him.

The Venetian government succumbing to the menaces of General Bonaparte, who affected to discover symptoms of enmity to the French republic in the punishment of the Venetian democrats, ceased to pursue strong measures against them, and Foscolo, availing himself of their quietude, returned to Venice. His first thoughts were turned to the representation of his tragedy, which was strictly classical, and altogether on the plan of those of Alfieri. The circumstances under which he contrived to have it acted will give some idea of the confidence which he had in his own strength, as well as of the character of the young poet. The Venetians had no great relish for Alfieri's tragedies, but preferred to them those of Pepoli and Pindmonte. Foscolo, out of spite for their taste, caused his tragedy to be acted on the fourth of January, 1797, at the theatre of Saint Angelo, whilst at two other theatres were produced two new tragedies by Pepoli and Pindmonte. His boldness, his youth, and perhaps also the circumstances of his being a Venetian of high birth, gained him a complete victory over his rivals; and the tragedy was repeated ten times successively before audiences numerous beyond parallel in the history of the Italian stage. His name being thus established, Foscolo, who by his powerful friends and relations



was destined for a diplomatic career, was sent as secretary to Battaglia, who was appointed ambassador from the republic to Bonaparte, in order to save the independence of Venice. Foscolo, neither liking nor liked by the new government, retired into Lombardy, then "the Cisalpine republic," where he wrote and published the "Ultime Lettere di Jacopo Ortis," a romance portraying in the most powerful language the utmost vehemence of passion and feeling. Knowing that, in order to be independent and free, it is necessary to be ready to fight for independence and freedom, Foscolo enlisted in the first Italian legion which was formed, and was shut up in Genoa during the famous siege of 1799 with General Massena. There he wrote two of the most beautiful odes of which the Italians can boast, both to Luigia Pallavicini, one on her having fallen from her horse, another on her recovery from the effects of that accident.

After the battle of Marengo, Foscolo remained in the Italian army, until in 1805 he was sent to Calais to form part of the army destined for the invasion of this island. But greatly disliking the tyranny of Bonaparte, although admiring him as a general, particularly after he had declared himself emperor, and becoming obnoxious to the government by his love of freedom and republican principles, he retired from active service.

In 1808 and 1809 he published an edition of the works of the celebrated General Montecuccoli, the rival of Turenne, which he dedicated to General Cafferelli, minister of war for the kingdom of Italy, to whom Foscolo was aide-de-camp. This edition is by far the best existing, and is enriched with most learned annotations, by the editor, on the art of war in ancient Greece and Rome, as well as in Europe in general, subsequent to the fall of the Roman empire; and this he did with the hope of turning the minds of the Italians to arms.

In 1807 he published at Brescia the poem "I Sepolcri." It met with unprecedented approbation, and was followed by a host of imitators, endeavouring to follow in the footsteps of its author; but, as generally happens in similar cases, all scrupulously copying the faults, without approaching the beauties of the little poem, which won the heart of almost every reader in whose bosom glowed any spark of feeling.

About the year 1809, Monti, professor of literature at the university of Pavia, being appointed by Napoleon historiographer of the kingdom of Italy, Foscolo was called to fill up his place at the university. He opened his course with one of the strongest, most liberal, and finely written speeches ever composed by an Italian—"Dell' Origine e dell Ufficio della Letteratura." This speech, the character of the man, and the spirit of his lectures, alarmed the liberal Napoleon, who (it is believed chiefly on account of Foscolo's boldness) by a most despotical and arbitrary mandate, suppressed the professorships of literature in the three universities of Pavia, Padua, and Bologna. Thus was Foscolo dismissed, after having enjoyed the dignity of professor only two months.

In the year 1812 he wrote another tragedy, "Ajace," which was represented at Milan in the theatre Della Scala, producing the greatest sensation, and exciting the jealousy of the government, the public having discovered that it was a satire against "the master of the world," for under the

name of Ajace they recognised General Moreau, Napoleon being supposed designed under the name of Ulysses, &c. Foscolo was obliged to leave the kingdom of Italy, and retired to Florence, glad to escape being immured in a state-prison. His tragedy was unmercifully criticised by some hired literati, who hated Foscolo for his noble independence, and for the profound and undisguised contempt with which he always spoke of and acted towards them. Foscolo never forgave them the unfairness of their criticism, even on his death-bed. At that time he had also written some very excellent articles, all remarkable for their originality, wit, and independence of opinion, in the "Annali d'Italia," a review published by him in conjunction with Dr. Rasori and some others.

As early as the year 1807 he printed the first book of his translation of the Iliad, simultaneously with the first book of Monti's translation. The latter accomplished most nobly his undertaking, but Foscolo never published more than the first and third book. The latter came out in 1821, and is remarkable, amongst other things, for its conciseness, the four hundred and thirty-one verses of the original being rendered into five hundred and twenty-two Italian hendecasyllables. He was prevented from completing his translation, partly by the irritability and impatience of his temper, partly by his scrupulous admiration, amounting almost to awe, of the text of Homer, and by his fastidiousness of style and versification. Twenty times or more has he been known to vary his version of the same period, and at length to remain unsatisfied with himself. He translated here and there the passages with which he was most struck of his favourite Homer, and, excepting the first and third, he perhaps never translated one entire book.

His design was to publish the translation of Homer with the text, and such notes, historical and critical, as would render his work acceptable to foreign scholars; and, had he lived, we are confident he would have achieved the task with credit to himself and advantage to literature.

When at Florence, he made a very spirited translation of Sterne's "Sentimental Journey," which he published in 1813. He went to Milan in 1814, and was promoted to the rank of major by the regency of the Italian kingdom, after the fall of Napoleon. True to his country, it was said that he was privy to a conspiracy, asserted to have been planned in that year, to drive the Austrians from Italy. Some persons accused of high treason upon that occasion were imprisoned and condemned; amongst others, Dr. Rasori, General De Mneester, General Cavedoni, and Colonel Moretti. Foscolo retired to Switzerland, and not thinking it prudent any longer to breathe the air of Italy, about the year 1815 he came over to this country.

His reputation secured him a good reception from our most distinguished literati, and from some of the highest of the nobility and people of fashion. He took a great part in the contest about the *Æolic Digamma*, and having built a cottage on South Bank, Regent's Park, where he lived, he gave it the title of *Digamma Cottage*. He now published "Ricciarda," a tragedy, of which an account was given in the forty-eighth number of the "Quarterly Review." The editor of the Review thus addresses Foscolo in a learned critique on that work—"To Signor Foscolo,



who is resident amongst us, we may address ourselves more personally. To him, whose mind is so richly stored, not merely with the intellectual treasures of his own country, but those of ancient Greece and Rome,—to him who is a scholar in the highest sense of the word, not merely from skill in recollecting the anomalies of language, and the peculiar usages and force of words (though from the notes appended to a specimen of a translation of the *Iliad*, we should suppose him profound in this department also), but from his intuitive power of entering into the spirit and character of the great ancient writers,—to him whose mastery over his own language, the language of Dante, Petrarch, and Tasso, is only so great as to lead him to a somewhat wanton and capricious display of power in inverting it, and condensing it into epigrammatic conciseness,—to him we would say, that the name of Foscolo should be known to posterity as something greater than that of the author of ‘*Ortis’s Letters*,’ or even of ‘*Ricciarda*.’”

The best notion of Foscolo’s style and vivid feelings, when clothed in our own language, may be gathered from his “*Essays on Petrarch*.” The following remarks are part of an essay on his poetry:—

“The Vision of the Spirit of Laura” was written, as appears by the expressions at the close of it, when Petrarch was far advanced in years. He revised it four months before his death, and inserted it as an episode in a moral poem which he called the “*Trionfi*”—a series of allegorical visions on the powers of Love, Chastity, Death, Talents, Fame, Time, and Eternity. Several Provençal poems written before his time, and the “*Dream*,” the “*Flower and the Leaf*,” and the “*House of Fame*,” of his contemporary Chaucer, are of the same description. Perhaps the models of them may be traced in the visions which the monks preached in imitation of those of Ezekiel, and St. John’s Revelation. The last canto of the “*Trionfi*” is called *Della Divinità*, and begins, “Since, then, I behold nothing certain beneath the heavens, I look fearfully around me, and ask myself, in what then canst thou trust? I answered, In God.”—It concludes with Laura: “If he who beheld her on earth was blessed, what shall he not be on beholding her again in heaven!”

“Se fu beato chi la vide in terra,  
Or che fia dunque a rivederla in Cielo!”

He considered this work as a great undertaking; and he gave it up from the fear that he would be unable to finish it. He betook to it again, however: he perceived that he had failed; but he persevered nevertheless, and left it so disfigured with various readings, that, to complete a copy after his death, it was necessary to supply much by conjecture. It is only when he is speaking of Laura in this poem that his heart communicates its fire to his genius, which had languished more under the disgust of life than the burden of years. He records his melancholy feelings on the margins of his manuscript: “The more I reflect on what I am, the more I feel ashamed of this work. It is no longer myself, it is another who writes.” He was born to create with anxiety, and to dissipate in despair, the illusions which were necessary to his repose, and he was thus often tempted to destroy even the lyric poetry which he had addressed to Laura. He does not even mention it in his “*Letter to Posterity*,” though, if it had not

been for this very poetry, the other literary merits of this great man would not have been remembered with so much gratitude. To his intimate friends he expresses himself ashamed of having devoted his talents to the amusement of ballad-singers and lovers, lamenting that his verses had been too generally dispersed to be recalled, and complaining that they had sometimes been partially disfigured, and sometimes entirely forged, by professional singers, who took great merit to themselves for collecting them. He offers the same apology to the world in the first sonnet of his collection, which he resolved to prepare in his old age, rejecting those pieces which were apocryphal, and those which he considered unworthy of him.

This extract may serve as a specimen of his original composition; his mode of translating from his own language, is equally characteristic.

“In the eyes of my mistress love is seated, for they ennoble every thing she looks upon. Where she passes, men turn and gaze; and whomsoever she salutes, his heart trembles; the colour forsakes his downcast face, and he sighs for all his unworthiness. Pride and anger fly before her. Assist me, ladies, to do her honour! All gentleness, all thoughts of love and kindness, spring in the hearts of those who hear her speak, so that it is very blessedness first to behold her. But when she faintly smiles, it passes both utterance and conception; so wondrous is the miracle, and so gracious!”

Foscolo, having laboured for more than two years under a dangerous organic disease, died September 27th, 1827.

FOSTER, SIR MICHAEL.—This distinguished English lawyer was born in 1689. He was educated



at Oxford, and in 1707 was admitted a member of the Middle Temple; but not having much success as an advocate, he retired into the country, and settled in his native town. Here he formed an intimacy with Algernon, earl of Hertford, afterwards duke of Somerset, which continued many years, and until the death of the duke, who by his will appointed his friend executor in trust with his son-in-law Hugh, earl afterwards duke of Northumberland.



Having greatly distinguished himself on many occasions after his settlement at Bristol, Mr. Sergeant Foster, in the vacation after Hilary term in 1745, on the recommendation of the lord chancellor Hardwicke, was appointed to succeed Sir William Chapple as one of the judges of the court of king's bench; and, being knighted by the king, was sworn into the office. He continued to fill this post until November 1763, during which period many points of singular importance, as well in civil as criminal cases, in which he bore a considerable share, were determined.

Sir Michael Foster was the author of a tract against the Codex of Bishop Gibson printed in 1735, and a "Report of the Trial of the Rebels," which took place in 1746. The latter work was reprinted in 1776.

Shortly after the death of Lady Foster (which happened in 1758) his health began to decline, and he complained of a loss of appetite, which made it necessary for him occasionally to spend some time at Bath. He received considerable benefit from the use of the Bath waters; but died in 1763, being confined to his bed a short time only. By his own direction, he was buried in the parish church of Stanton-Drew, in Somersetshire, where Lady Foster had been buried.

**FOSTER, SAMUEL.**—This eminent mathematician was born at Coventry, and educated at Cambridge, where he took the degree of master of arts in 1623. He became professor of Gresham College in 1636, and after resigning that office was re-elected in 1641. The civil war breaking out soon after, he became one of that society which was afterwards established by charter, under the name of the Royal Society, in the reign of Charles II. In 1646 Dr. Wallis, another member of that society, received from Foster a mathematical theorem, which he afterwards published in his "Mechanics." He was also well versed in the ancient languages, as appears from his revising and correcting the "Lemmata" of Archimedes, which had been translated from an Arabic manuscript into Latin, but not published, by a Mr. Greaves. He made also several curious observations upon eclipses both of the sun and moon, as well at Gresham College as in Northamptonshire, at Coventry, and in other places; and was also celebrated for inventing, as well as improving, astronomical and other mathematical instruments. After being long in a declining state of health, he died in July 1652, at his own apartment at Gresham College, and was buried in the church of St. Peter le Poor.

**FOSTER, HENRY.**—This distinguished British officer entered the navy early in life, and served with considerable credit in the polar voyages of discovery. In 1828 he was appointed to command the Chanticleer sloop of war, which was fitted out to prosecute a scientific voyage of research in the southern regions of the globe, to determine the specific ellipticity of the earth, ascertain the chronometric difference of meridians of the principal stations in the Atlantic, and make observations on magnetism, meteorology, &c. The Chanticleer left Spithead in April 1828, and the first places visited by her were Madeira, Teneriffe, St. Antonio, Fernando de Noronha, Rio de Janeiro, and St. Catharine's. At Monte Video the pendulum experiments commenced, with the other objects of research. At this place she remained eight weeks, and took in provisions

for her southern voyage; from thence she proceeded to Staten Land, and thence to the singular and remarkable island of Deception (one of the South Shetland group). This island is of volcanic origin, and affords the most striking contrarieties of character. After this a landing was effected on the most southern tract of land in the globe, viz., Prince William's Island. From thence she went to St. Martin's Cave, distance about eight miles from Cape Horn, where she experienced nothing but hurricanes and severe gales. At this place many Fuegian families were met with; the officers supplied them with axes, knives, fish-hooks, needles, &c. In such a state of nature were these people, that, when those articles were given them, they did not know the use of them: clothing they had none but what is worn by the most uncultivated negro in Africa's clime. From Cape Horn the Chanticleer, in twenty-eight days, ran to the Cape of Good Hope, after the crew had lived nine months on salt provisions. She remained there four months, during which period Captain Foster was sedulously employed in the splendid observatory erected by government in that colony, and the young gentlemen of the Chanticleer equally so in their observations on magnetism, meteorology, &c. St. Helena was the next place visited; for which she left on February 9th, and arrived at that island on the 14th. After a stay of upwards of three months, Captain Foster having completed his observations, the Chanticleer quitted for Fernando Noronha, a small but fertile island on the coast of Brazil, and in the possession of the Brazilians. It is used as a place of exile for political delinquents and criminals. Maranham was the place next visited. Leaving this, the Chanticleer ascended a branch of the river Amazon, to the city of Grand Para, the capital of the province of that name, which is considered by some as the paradise of the Brazils, and the Indies of America—such are its presumed wealth, extent of resources, beauty and fertility of soil, and nature appearing to have no end to its productions. The apathy, however, of the inhabitants, conjoined with a system of misrule, counteracts in some degree this boon of nature. The heat of the climate was intense (it being on the equator), and, although there was much swamp and marshy ground, little or no disease was contracted. From Para the Chanticleer returned down the Amazon (or Maranham), surveying by the way. The place next visited was Trinidad, in the tranquil Gulf of Paria, where she remained six weeks. Leaving Trinidad, she touched at La Guayra, and proceeded to Porto Bello, where, in addition to the usual experiments and observations to be made at this place, Captain Foster had to ascertain the difference of meridians between Panama, on the Pacific side, and Porto Bello, or some fixed point, on the Atlantic, by rockets. Soon after the Chanticleer's arrival at Porto Bello, a party, under the command of Lieutenant Austin, was despatched on foot across the isthmus, to explore and ascertain the nature of the country, and fix upon the mountains most eligible for the explosion of rockets. On their return a party of sixteen men and officers were detached into the interior, and stationed on the highest hills: a party were also placed at Porto Bello; and the captain was at Panama, to observe the explosion of the rockets. These parties slept many nights in the woods and in the open country,



yet escaped without any disease, though their risk was great and danger imminent. With a view to effect to a certainty the purpose of a mission to this place, Captain Foster ascended the river Chagres in a canoe, and proceeded to Panama, to ascertain chronometrically their relative positions on the globe. This he did a second time, and was returning down the river Chagres in a canoe, on the eve of the 5th of February, 1831, when he slipped from off the covering of the canoe, on which he was incautiously resting, and was unfortunately drowned.

FOSTER, DR. JAMES, a dissenting minister, who was born in 1697. After receiving a good education, he became celebrated as a preacher in 1711. After having been appointed minister of a Baptist congregation in London, he published a "Defence of the Usefulness, Truth, and Excellency of the Christian Revelation," against Tindal's "Christianity as Old as the Creation." This "Defence" is written with great force of argument, and great moderation. In 1744 he was chosen pastor of the independent church of Pinner's-hall, and in 1748 the university of Aberdeen conferred on him the degree of D. D. by diploma. In August 1746 he attended Lord Kilmarnock, who was out in the rebellion the year before; and they who lived with him imagined that this attendance made a deep impression on his mind. In April 1750 he was visited with a violent disorder, of which he never thoroughly recovered, though he continued to preach more or less till January 1752. Shortly after he had another attack of illness, and died on the 5th of November, 1753.

FOTHERGILL, JOHN, an eminent physician, was born at Carr-end, in Yorkshire, in 1712, where his father, who was a Quaker, resided upon a family estate. He studied physic at Edinburgh, took his degree of M. D. in 1736, and then went to London and entered as a pupil in St. Thomas's Hospital. In 1740 he made a tour to the continent, and on his return devoted himself to his profession. In 1748 he greatly distinguished himself by a publication entitled "An Account of the Sore Throat attended with Ulcers," which passed through several editions and was translated into French. He also supplied a monthly account of the weather and diseases of London to the "Gentleman's Magazine," which is considered the parent of all statements of the kind. For thirty years he was at the head of his profession in London. In 1762 he purchased an estate at Upton in Essex, and formed an excellent botanic garden with hot-houses and green-houses to the extent of 260 feet. He acquired a large fortune, of which he made a most liberal use. On his own society he conferred great benefits, projecting and carrying into effect the institution of a large public school for the Friends at Ackworth in Yorkshire. He was also the associate of Mr. Howard in his attempt to alleviate the condition of poor prisoners. Doctor Fothergill was likewise zealous for the political interests of the country, and interfered to prevent that fatal breach with the American colonies which produced their final separation from the parent country.

FOUCHE, JOSEPH, DUKE OF OTRANTO.—This distinguished French politician was born at Nantes on the 9th of May, 1763. He was educated from the age of nine years by the fathers of the oratory in his native place, and was intended for the profession of his father—a sea-captain. As he was not however strong enough to bear the hardships of

a sea life, he prosecuted his studies at Paris. He then taught metaphysics, physics, and mathematics, in the academies at Juilly, Arras, and Vendome, and at the age of twenty-five years was placed at the head of the college of Nantes. In September 1792 he was chosen member of the convention by the department of the Lower Seine, and shortly after he appeared for the first time in the Jacobin club at Paris. In the period of his life, which now begins, two acts are particularly prominent—his vote for the death of the king without appeal to the nation, and his mission with Collot d'Herbois to Lyons. The first he always considered as an act of political necessity. "If," said he, to the last of his life without exultation or regret, "the vote of the Mountain was not the most generous, it was certainly the most consistent, and in the situation of the country, with Europe armed against her, the most politic." As to the second, great as our horror must be at this foul stain on the page of history, we must remember also that he was but the secondary agent in this mission, which he wrote to the convention to decline, but was not permitted to do so; and that after his return from Lyons he was furiously attacked by Collot d'Herbois, Couthon, and Robespierre, members of the committee of public safety. Collot, as member of the committee, had been particularly active with the execution of the decree against Lyons, and was the chief of the mission. Before Fouché was employed in this dreadful business, he had been sent to the department of the Aube, and at another time to that of the Nièvre, to quell the insurrectionary spirit, which he did without violence. It was in the latter department that he suffered an inscription to be placed over the gate of the grave-yard of Nevers, running thus—*La mort est un sommeil éternel*; and when he returned he was accused of materialism in the convention by Robespierre! Fouché's name, after his return from Lyons in 1795, was erased from the list of the Jacobin club, of which he had been president. This was in consequence of his having united himself with the opponents to Robespierre's tyranny, Tallien, Legendre, &c. But after the fall of Robespierre, those who had overthrown him separated again into two parties, one of which professed strict democratic principles, and conspired to regain possession of power: this was called the conspiracy of Babeuf. Fouché belonged to this party, and having been denounced as a terrorist to the convention on the proposition of Boissy-d'Anglas, an accusation against him was voted in August 1795. He then withdrew to the Vallée de Montmorency, where he lived in perfect retirement, not having increased his fortune by his public employments, until in 1798 the directory appointed him French minister to the Cisalpine republic, where he rendered much service by opposing the plans of Austria, &c., in Upper Italy; but a diplomatic note which he addressed to the Cisalpine government on this subject caused his recall, to which he objected, and he was supported by the commander of the Italian army, Joubert, his particular friend. The directory, whose conduct in this affair disgusted Fouché, were obliged to treat with him. After the members of the directory were changed, Fouché was made ambassador to the Hague, and there received his appointment as minister of the police in 1799, when France was in a most critical situation.

His first measure was to break up the Jacobin



club. France at that time was tottering between two abysses, the return of the Bourbons and the anarchy of revolution. Men like Fouché, Sièyes, &c., saw that a stable government was the most urgent want of the country. To establish liberal institutions, and to retain the conquests which were on the point of being lost, required a man at the head of the government who was both a general and a statesman. Bonaparte was in Egypt, Moreau refused, Joubert accepted the call; but the battle of Novi, which took place in August 1799, put an end to his life and the plans of his friends. The dangers of the state increased, Bonaparte appeared on the coast of Provence, and Fouché without hesitation joined the young general. The consular government was established, and, though the deplorable state of things induced many to rally round the first consul, his increasing power soon filled them with fear, and this circumstance affords a reason for Fouché's great popularity; indeed he was considered by many as a guarantee of democratic principles. Fouché was made minister of the police, and rendered himself useful in the highest degree by the detection of royalist and Jacobin projects and conspiracies. He frustrated the conspiracy of Arena, Cerracchi, and Topino-Lebrun, brought the contrivers of the infernal machine to trial, and proved it to have been a contrivance of the aristocracy. Napoleon was much in fear of the conspiracies of the Jacobins; Fouché did not agree with him, and thought them dangerous only in proportion as the independence or liberty of the country was threatened, but he considered the royalists very formidable. He was indefatigable in tracing out conspiracies; and, so far from inventing them in order to throw more power into the hands of the government, his often repeated principle was, that "a new government always dates only from the conspiracy last detected, because such a discovery necessarily calls again in question what has been settled, and therefore shakes that which was already considered firm."

Some months after the peace of Amiens, which was concluded in March 1802, the ministry of the police was added to that of justice. Fouché was made senator, and remained almost two years without employment. The conspiracies of Pichégrou, George Cadoudal, &c., and the excitement occasioned by them, obliged Napoleon to re-appoint Fouché in July 1804, though Savary retained the charge of the secret police. In this period happened the death of Captain Wright, which has been laid to Fouché because he had the command of the Temple in which Wright was imprisoned; but the police had not the sole care of the Temple; such a deed is not consistent with Fouché's character, and no sufficient motive has ever been assigned for his committing it. Pichégrou, in April 1804, had been found strangled in the Temple at a time when Fouché was not minister of police. In 1806 Prussia concluded a secret treaty with Great Britain, which, as Fouché knew, was equivalent to a declaration of war against France. It was of great importance to get possession of this instrument. Fouché took his measures so well that the disguised courier, who carried it concealed in the bottom of a coach, was attacked by his agents on the road from Hamburg to Berlin, and deprived of the document. Fouché constantly advised the emperor to turn his chief attention to the internal condition of France, to establish new institutions, and to de-

velope the old. It seemed also necessary to him that Napoleon should leave issue of his own to succeed him. He therefore advised a divorce, and a marriage with a Russian princess; but he was always opposed to a marriage with a daughter of the house of Austria. Talleyrand persuaded Napoleon to secure Spain, and an opportunity was afforded by the revolution of Madrid. Napoleon marched to Spain, Austria declared war, and Napoleon departed for the campaign of 1809. France without troops was left under the regency of a council, under the presidency of one of Napoleon's brothers, and Fouché had the portfolios of the interior and the police. But an English fleet, with an army on board, appeared before Flushing, and threatened Belgium; the danger was imminent; a council was held, and when Fouché proposed as the only effectual measure, to give the command to Bernadotte, who had been in disgrace since the battle of Wagram, the arch-chancellor Cambacérès objected to the measure in these words—"You are going to divulge a great state secret; it must not be known that the empire can be saved by any body but the emperor." However, the danger became greater, and Fouché was left at liberty to call the national guards to arms, and to give the command, on his own responsibility, to Bernadotte; measures which were crowned with the fullest success.

When the emperor returned every one expected the disgrace of Fouché, whom he had made before his departure duke of Otranto; but the emperor, on the contrary, spoke of him at court to M. Fontaines as *un homme prodigieux*. Whether, however, the activity and popularity of the minister, his union with Bernadotte, or his strenuous opposition to a marriage with an Austrian princess, gave umbrage to Napoleon, or whether the only cause of Fouché's disgrace was the following, we shall not attempt to decide. After hostilities had begun again with England Napoleon had tried several times to enter into negotiations with the British minister, but insisted that they should begin under his name, while the English minister said that that would be agreeing to a point which was only to be settled by treaty, namely, the acknowledgment of Napoleon as emperor. Peace was desirable, and the duke of Otranto, with the full consent of Napoleon, sent an agent to the marquis of Wellesley to promote a mutual understanding. Napoleon distrusted his minister, and several times attempted to carry on the negotiations himself, but was always unsuccessful. This irritated him, and the duke of Otranto received orders to discontinue the negotiation, and to give up all the correspondence connected with it, and the names of his agents. The correspondence was given up, but not the names of the agents and the merchants through whom it had been carried on, because he considered the transaction as strictly confidential. In June 1810 Savary, duke of Rovigo, was made minister of police, and Fouché governor of Rome. Before he went there the emperor wished to take from him certain orders which he had given him respecting his ministry; but the duke of Otranto declared that he had burned them, and hastened to Italy, where he received an invitation from the commander of a British man-of-war to go to England with all possible guarantees from the British government; but he refused the offer, and determined to remain at all risks in Italy. He was soon recalled



to France, and banished to Aix, the capital of his senatorship, where he lived some time, when he was permitted to return to his estate on condition of not appearing in Paris.

In 1813 the duke was fixed upon by Napoleon to receive the temporary direction of a new government, the centre of which would have been Berlin if Prussia had been conquered as Napoleon hoped after the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen. The duke arrived at Dresden, when the French, having been repulsed from Berlin, had concentrated themselves at that point. It was intended that he should negotiate with Austria at Prague, but he saw that the die was cast and refused, and he was sent to Illyria as governor-general; but he was soon compelled by the events of the war to return to France. He arrived at Paris a few days after the declaration of the senate that Napoleon had forfeited the throne. He lived retired during the first restoration, a witness of the wretched policy of the Bourbons. Deeming the proximity of the deposed emperor a great evil, and that his restoration would be disastrous, he wrote a prophetic letter to the ex-emperor, advising him to go to the United States, for his own sake and that of the adherents to the principles of the revolution. When Napoleon returned from Elba the king sought for support from Fouché, who had an interview with Monsieur at the house of the duke of Dalberg, but he declared it too late. Bourrienne, prefect of police at Paris, then gave orders to arrest him. Fouché escaped and joined Napoleon, who a third time made him minister of police. The battle of Waterloo showed the whole danger of France. The chamber elected five members as a provisional government, at the head of whom was the duke of Otranto. The marshals decided that Paris was not tenable, and a civil war would have totally ruined the country, then occupied by foreign armies. The Bourbons returned with the foreigners, and every thing was to be feared from the fury of the royalists; and, if the duke of Otranto's motive in accepting the ministry of police was to prevent civil dissensions as far as possible, and to give to a revengeful administration some alloy of reason, such a sacrifice of reputation to patriotism must be regarded as truly noble. He accepted the portfolio expressly on the condition laid down by Talleyrand, that no vengeance should be taken. The party which considered themselves deceived by him became his bitterest enemies. Whatever may be the opinion of this step of the duke, no one denies that he prevented much evil. The court of the Tuileries soon became a focus of revenge. The number of victims demanded is supposed to have amounted to 3000: Fouché had it reduced to a few, whom with all his exertion he could not save. Hence the motley list which some have considered as drawn up by the minister to show his power! His enemies say that he should have refused to sign a list containing the names of his own friends, and of persons who had been induced by his advice to act the part for which they were then proscribed, but his friends say that his abandoning the portfolio would have been the death-warrant of many more. Talleyrand and Otranto did not sit in the house of peers when Ney was tried, excusing themselves on account of their participation in the ordinance. In 1815 the duke of Otranto married a second wife, a lady named De Castellane. Her family belonged to the nobility before the revolution; and though he

might, if his intention had been to unite himself more closely with the royalists, have easily connected himself with a much more distinguished family, yet, under existing circumstances, this step was considered by the liberals as an expression of hostility to them. France was then in a most deplorable state; England and Russia were waging war against each other in the French council. The opposition attacked the government on account of this foreign influence, against which the duke of Otranto incessantly struggled. In this state of things, with the view of trying the effect of an appeal to public opinion, he presented two reports to the king—one on the relations of the foreign armies to the kingdom, their claims, &c.; the second on the resources left to France, particularly the levée en masse, in which of course the royalist party could not form an important item. The immediate consequence was the union of the royalists and foreign powers to displace the duke. Talleyrand offered him a mission to the United States, where he wished to live; but his wife's disinclination, and his anxiety for the education of his children, prevented it. He was then sent as minister to Dresden, but not for a long time. In 1816 he was comprised in the law against the regicides, and the court of Saxony was not strong enough to protect him. He then retired to Prague, Lintz, and at last to Trieste, where he died on the 26th of December, 1820.

**FOUQUIER-TINVILLE, ANTHONY QUENTIN.**—This individual, who became so notorious for his ferocious cruelty in the French revolution, was born at Hérouelles, near St. Quentin, in 1747. His excesses obliged him to sell the place of a *procureur au Chatelet* (attorney in the court of this name), which he had purchased, and to declare himself insolvent. As a member of the revolutionary tribunal, he distinguished himself by his alacrity in pronouncing the verdict of guilty, and attracted the attention of Robespierre, who gave him the office of public accuser before this tribunal. The victims now became numberless. Fouquier drew up the scandalous articles of accusation against the queen Marie Antoinette. Indeed his thirst for blood seems to have been increased by gratification, until it became a real insanity. He proposed the execution of Robespierre and all the members of the revolutionary tribunal, but in 1794 was himself arrested. He died on the 7th of May, 1795, under the guillotine, in a cowardly manner, and as infamously as he had lived. There does not appear to be a trait in the life of this monster which can entitle his crimes to the same palliation as those of Robespierre, who considered the extermination of the aristocracy as a necessary evil.

**FOURCROY, ANTHONY FRANCIS DE,** a celebrated French chemist and natural philosopher, who was a native of Paris, and educated at the college of Harcourt. In his youth he was fond of music and poetry, and was even disposed to become an actor; but the ill-success of one of his friends deterred him. Having adopted the profession of medicine, he applied himself closely to the study of the sciences connected with it, and especially to chemistry. In 1780 he took the degree of M. D.; in 1784 he was made professor of chemistry at the Jardin du Roi; and the next year he was chosen a member of the Academy of Sciences. At this period he became associated with Lavoisier, Guyton-Mor-



veau, and Berthollet, in the researches which led to the vast improvements and discoveries in chemistry which have immortalized their names; and, in conjunction with those gentlemen, he drew up the "Methode de Nomenclature Chimique," which was published at Paris in 1787. He distinguished himself less by the discovery of unknown bodies than by the systematic arrangement of the principles of the science, and by popular expositions in his lectures and publications.

When the revolution took place, he engaged in politics, and was chosen a deputy from Paris to the national convention; but he did not take his seat in that assembly till after the fall of Robespierre. By his means a plan for a uniform system of weights and measures was adopted. In September 1794 he became a member of the committee of public safety, and his attention in this post was chiefly directed to the formation of public schools, and the establishment of institutions for the education of youth. He organized the central school of public works, out of which the polytechnic school afterwards sprung, and co-operated in the establishment of the normal schools. In September 1795 he passed into the Council of Ancients, and was nominated professor of chemistry and a member of the National Institute. He vacated his seat in the council in May 1797, and in December 1799 Bonaparte gave him a place in the council of state, in the section of the interior, in which place he drew up a plan for a system of public instruction, which with some alteration was adopted. He died in December 1809.

FOWLER, EDWARD, a learned divine, who was born in 1632 at Westerleigh in Gloucestershire. In the beginning of 1650 he became clerk of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and was admitted one of the chaplains in 1653, and the same year took a bachelor of arts degree. Afterwards removing to Cambridge, he took his master's degree as a member of Trinity College, and, returning to Oxford, was incorporated in the same degree in July 1656. About the same time he became chaplain to Arabella countess dowager of Kent, who presented him to the rectory of Northill in Bedfordshire. Archbishop Sheldon, in order to introduce him into the metropolis, collated him in August 1673 to the rectory of All-hallows, Bread-street.

In February 1675 Mr. Fowler was made prebendary of Gloucester, and in March 1681 vicar of St. Giles's, Cripplegate, on which he resigned the living of All-hallows. During the struggle between protestantism and popery in this kingdom he appeared to great advantage in defence of the former; but this rendered him obnoxious to the court, and in all probability was the secret cause of a prosecution against him in 1685 by some of his parishioners, who alleged that he was guilty of Whiggism, that he admitted to the communion excommunicated persons before they were absolved, &c. After a trial at Doctors' Commons, he was suspended, under the pretence of having acted in several respects contrary to the canons of the church. This affront however did not intimidate him from doing what he thought his duty, for he was the second who in 1688 signed the resolution of the London clergy not to read king James's new declaration for liberty of conscience. He was rewarded for this and other services at the revolution, for in 1691 he was preferred to the see of Gloucester, and continued there

till his death, which took place at Chelsea in August 1714.

FOX, CHARLES JAMES.—This eminent British statesman was born on the 13th of January, 1748, and was the second son of Lord Holland. He was the peculiar favourite of his father, who joined great indulgence with the most careful attention to his education. As his father intended him to rise in the political world, he procured him a seat for the borough of Midhurst in 1768 before he was of legal age, and in 1770 the same interest procured him the office of one of the lords of the Admiralty, which situation he resigned the following year, and was immediately appointed a commissioner of the Treasury. At this period there can be but little doubt but that his opinions were in unison with those of his father, who was accounted a Tory, and were adverse to the turbulent proceedings of the city of London, which at this time was deluded by the specious pretences to patriotism displayed by the celebrated Wilkes. It was in particular Mr. Fox's opinion, in allusion to the public meetings held by the supporters of "Wilkes and Liberty," that "the voice of the people was only to be heard in the House of Commons." That he held however some of the opinions by which his future life was guided, appears from his speech in favour of religious liberty, when Sir William Meredith introduced a bill to give relief from subscription to the thirty-nine articles; and perhaps other instances may be found in which his natural ingenuousness of mind and openness of character burst through the trammels of party; and although it must be allowed that the cause he now supported was not that which he afterwards espoused, it may be doubted whether he was not even at this time, when a mere subaltern in the ministerial ranks, more unrestrained in his sentiments than at some other memorable periods of his subsequent life.



After having displayed his talents to the greatest advantage in favour of the minister for about six years, the latter (Lord North) procured his dismissal from office in a manner not the most gracious, and which, if it did not leave in Mr. Fox's mind some portion of resentment, he must have been greatly superior to the infirmities of our nature, a pre-emi-



nence which he never arrogated. It is said, that on February 19, 1774, while he was actually engaged in conversation with the minister on other subjects in the House of Commons, he received the following laconic note by the hands of one of the messengers of the house:—"His Majesty has thought proper to order a new commission of treasury to be made out, in which I do not see your name. NORTH."

This event was not occasioned by any opposition on the part of Mr. Fox to Lord North's measures, but to a difference of opinion as to the best mode of carrying them into effect, and that in an instance of comparatively small importance.

At the general election in 1780 Mr. Fox became candidate for the city of Westminster, in which, after a violent contest, he succeeded, though opposed by the formidable interest of the Newcastle family, and by the whole influence of the crown. Being now the representative of a great city, he appeared in parliament in a more dignified capacity, and acquired a considerable increase of consequence to his political character. In himself he was still the same; he now necessarily lived and acted in the bosom of his constituents; his easiness of access, his pleasant social spirit, his friendly disposition and conciliating manners, which appeared in all he said, and the good temper which predominated in all he did, were qualities that rendered him the friend and acquaintance as well as the representative of those who sent him into parliament; his superior talents, and their powerful and frequent application to popular purposes, made him best known among political men, and gave him a just claim to the title so long applied to him, of "The man of the people." Notwithstanding all this, it might not be difficult to prove that Mr. Fox was upon the whole no great gainer by representing a city in which the arts of popularity, even when most honestly practised, are no security for its continuance; and indeed the time was not far distant when he had to experience the fatal effects of preferring a seat which the purest motives only can neither obtain nor preserve, and in contesting which, corruption on one side must be opposed by corruption on the other.

The subjects of debate in the new parliament affording the opposition opportunities for the display of their eloquence, they now became formidable by an increase of numbers. Ministers were assailed in the house by arguments which they could neither repel nor contradict, and from without they were overwhelmed by the clamours of that same people to whom the war was at first so acceptable, till at length Lord North and his adherents were obliged to resign, and it was thought, as such vengeance had been repeatedly threatened both by Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke, that they would have been made responsible for all the mischiefs and bloodshed that had occurred during their calamitous administration. The Rockingham party, however, who came into power in the spring of 1782, and whose resentments the attainment of that object seems to have softened, contented themselves with the defeat of their opponents. Mr. Fox obtained the office of secretary of state for foreign affairs, and Mr. Rockingham was nominated the first lord of the treasury. Still the expectation of the nation was raised to the highest pitch; with this party they hoped to see an end to national calamity, and the interests of the country supported and maintained in all quarters of the globe. Much in-

deed was performed by them considering the shortness of their administration. A more generous policy was adopted in regard to Ireland, a general peace was meditated, and America, which could not be restored, was at least to be conciliated. In the midst of these promising appearances, the marquis of Rockingham, who was the support of the new administration, suddenly died, an event which distracted and divided his party. The council board was instantly torn in pieces by political schisms, originating in a dispute respecting the person who should succeed as first lord of the treasury. The candidates were Lord Shelburne, afterwards marquis of Lansdowne, and the late duke of Portland; the former, supposed to have the ear of the king and a majority in the cabinet, was immediately entrusted with the reins of government, and Mr. Fox retired and joined the very man whose conduct he had for a series of years deprecated as the most destructive to the interests of his country and most baneful to the happiness of mankind; while his former colleague, the earl of Shelburne, was busied in concluding a peace with France, Spain, Holland, and the United States of America. But as this nobleman, though by no means deficient in political wisdom, had omitted to take those steps which preceding ministers had ever adopted to secure safety, a confederacy was formed against him by the union of the friends of Mr. Fox and Lord North, known by the name of "The Coalition," which proved in the event as impolitic as it was odious to the great mass of people. Their conduct in the cabinet led the sovereign to use a watchful and even jealous eye upon their acts; and the celebrated India bill proved the rock on which they finally split, and on account of which they forfeited their places. Mr. Fox had now to contend for the government of the empire with William Pitt, who succeeded to the post of premier. Still, although in the new parliament which met in 1784 Mr. Pitt had a decided majority, Mr. Fox made his appearance at the head of a very formidable opposition.

In 1788 Mr. Fox repaired to the continent, in company with the lady who was afterwards acknowledged as his wife, and after spending a few days with Gibbon at Lausanne, departed for Italy, but was suddenly recalled home, in consequence of the king's illness, and the necessity of providing for a regency. On this memorable occasion Mr. Fox, and his great rival Mr. Pitt, appeared to have exchanged systems; Mr. Pitt contending for the constitutional measure of a bill of limitations, while Mr. Fox was equally strenuous for placing the regency in the hands of the heir apparent without any restrictions; and powerful as he and his party were at this time, Mr. Pitt was triumphant in every stage of the bill, and was supported by the almost unanimous voice of the nation.

When the revolution took place in France, Mr. Fox perhaps was not singular in conceiving that it would be attended with great benefit to that nation; in some of his speeches he went farther, and continued an admirer of what was passing in France long after others had begun to foresee the most disastrous consequences. While Mr. Fox perceived nothing but what was good, Mr. Burke predicted almost all, indeed, that has since happened; and an accidental altercation in the House of Commons separated these two friends for ever.

On the conclusion of the war in 1801, after the resig-



nation of Mr. Pitt, when Lord Sidmouth concluded the treaty of Amiens Mr. Fox and his friends gave him his support. When hostilities were again meditated, Mr. Fox at first expressed his doubts of their necessity; but when, on the death of Mr. Pitt, in 1806, he came again into power as secretary of state for the foreign department, in conjunction with the Grenville party, he found it necessary to support the war by the same means and in the same spirit as his predecessor. Some measures of a more private nature, which he was obliged to adopt in order to satisfy the wishes of the new coalition he had formed, served rather to diminish than increase his popularity; but his health was now decaying; symptoms of dropsy appeared, and he died on the 13th of September, 1806, without pain and almost without a struggle.

Mr. Fox was buried in Westminster Abbey, and we subjoin a sketch of the beautiful monument that has since been erected.



The distinguishing feature of Mr. Fox's intellectual character appears to us to have been imagination and sensibility. These were the traits which showed themselves most prominently both in his public and private life. In the former, their predominance, and the defects with which it is almost necessarily associated, may account for the comparatively awkward and uninteresting manner in which he commenced the most brilliant efforts of his oratory. While getting over preliminary details and clearing the way to the great principles to which on every question he naturally tended, and the development of which called forth all his powers of fascination and conviction, he was generally slow, constrained, and infelicitous. He invariably kindled with his subject, and only exhibited the animation for which he was so remarkable under the influence of the great moral principles on which his subject turned. The necessary consequence of this habit of thinking and speaking was, that his auditory sympathized with him, were carried passively along under the same impressions, and kept at a temperature corresponding with his own.

In private life the effect of these characteristics was equally evident. No man was more alive to the beauties of natural scenery, and the relish for them lasted in undiminished intensity to the day of his death. In perfect accordance with this unsophis-

ticated taste was his delight in poetry, to which his partiality amounted to enthusiasm, and which perpetually afforded him a relaxation from his political cares and fatigues. His taste in this as in all other respects was remarkably pure, and his memory so exceedingly retentive and ready that he had the finest passages of all the best poets in several languages entirely at his command.

We will now proceed to notice somewhat more generally the character of Mr. Fox, and we cannot better do this than by making a selection from the numerous delineations of it by the hands of his most intimate and most distinguished friends, which appeared after his death. The first we shall give was contained in the characters of Fox by Dr. Parr, under the name of "*Philopatris Varvicensis*," and is confidently attributed by him to his illustrious friend Sir James Mackintosh.

Mr. Fox united, in a most remarkable degree, the seemingly repugnant characters of the mildest men and the most vehement of orators. In private life he was gentle, modest, placable, kind, of simple manners, and so averse from parade and dogmatism as to be not only unostentatious, but even somewhat inactive in conversation. His superiority was never felt but in the instruction which he imparted, or in the attention which his generous preference usually directed to the more obscure members of the company. The simplicity of his manners was far from excluding that perfect urbanity and amenity which flowed still more from the mildness of his nature than from familiar intercourse with the most polished society of Europe. His conversation when it was not repressed by modesty or indolence was delightful. The pleasantries perhaps of no man of wit had so unlaboured an appearance. It seemed rather to escape from his mind than to be produced by it. He had lived on the most intimate terms with all his contemporaries distinguished by wit, politeness, or philosophy, or learning, or the talents of public life. In the course of thirty years he had known almost every man in Europe whose intercourse could strengthen, or enrich, or polish the mind. His own literature was various and elegant. In classical erudition, which, by the custom of England, is more peculiarly called learning, he was inferior to few professed scholars. Like all men of genius, he delighted to take refuge in poetry from the vulgarity and irritation of business. His own verses were easy and pleasing, and might have claimed no low place among those which the French call *vers de société*. The poetical character of his mind was displayed in his extraordinary partiality for the poetry of the two most poetical nations—or at least languages—of the west, those of the Greeks and of the Italians. He disliked political conversation, and never willingly took any part in it.

To speak of him justly as an orator would require a long essay. Every where natural, he carried into public something of that simple and negligent exterior which belonged to him in private. When he began to speak, a common observer might have thought him awkward; and even a consummate judge could only have been struck with the exquisite justness of his ideas and the transparent simplicity of his manners. But no sooner had he spoken for some time than he was changed into another being. He forgot himself and every thing around him. He thought only of his subject. His genius warmed



and kindled as he went on. He darted fire into his audience. Torrents of impetuous and irresistible eloquence swept along their feelings and conviction. He certainly possessed, above all moderns, that union of reason, simplicity, and vehemence, which formed the prince of orators. He was the most Demosthenean speaker since Demosthenes. "I knew him," says Mr. Burke, in a pamphlet written after their unhappy difference, "when he was nineteen; since which time he has risen, by slow degrees, to be the most brilliant and accomplished debater the world ever saw." The quiet dignity of a mind roused only by great objects, the absence of petty bustle, the contempt of show, the abhorrence of intrigue, the plainness and downrightness, and the thorough good nature which distinguished Mr. Fox, seem to render him no unfit representative of that old English national character, which, if it ever changed, we should be sanguine indeed to expect to see succeeded by a better.

The simplicity of his character inspired confidence, the ardour of his eloquence roused enthusiasm, and the gentleness of his manners invited friendship. "I admired," says Gibbon, "the powers of a superior man as they are blended in his attractive character, with all the softness and simplicity of a child; no human being was ever more free from any taint of malignity, vanity, and falsehood." From these qualities of his public and private character, it probably arose, that no English statesman ever preserved, during so long a period of adverse fortunes, so many affectionate friends and so many zealous adherents.

The following very vivid delineation of his powers as an orator is from the pen of his friend Lord Erskine:—

"This extraordinary person generally, in rising to speak, had evidently no more premeditated the particular language he should employ, nor frequently the illustrations and images by which he should discuss and enforce his subject, than he had contemplated the hour he was to die. And his exalted merit as a debater in parliament did not, therefore, consist in the length, variety, or roundness of his periods, but in the truth and vigour of his conceptions; in the depth and extent of his information; in the retentive powers of his memory, which enabled him to keep in constant view, not only all that he had formerly read and reflected on, but every thing said at the moment, and even at other times, by the various persons whose arguments he was to answer; in the faculty of spreading out his matter so clearly to the grasp of his own mind as to render it impossible he should ever fail in the utmost clearness and distinctness to others; in the exuberant fertility of his imagination, which spontaneously brought forth his ideas at the moment in every possible shape in which the understanding might sit in judgment on them; whilst, instead of seeking afterwards to enforce them by cold premeditated illustrations or by episodes, which, however beautiful, only distract attention, he was accustomed to repress his subject not *methodically*, but in the most unforeseen and fascinating review, enlightening every part of it; and binding even his adversaries in a kind of spell of involuntary assent for the time.

This will be found more particularly to apply to his speeches upon sudden and unforeseen occasions, when certainly nothing could be more interesting

and extraordinary than to witness, as I have often done, the mighty and unprepared efforts of his mind, when he had to encounter the arguments of some profound reasoner, who had deeply considered his subject, and arranged it with all possible art, to preserve its parts unbroken. To hear him begin, on such occasions, without method, without any kind of exertion, without the smallest impulse from the desire of distinction or triumph, and animated only by the honest sense of duty, an audience who knew him not would have expected little success from the conflict—as little as a traveller in the east, whilst trembling at a buffalo in the wild vigour of its well-protected strength, would have looked to its immediate destruction when he saw the boa moving slowly and inertly towards him in the grass. But Fox, unlike the serpent in every thing but his strength, always taking his station in some fixed invulnerable principles, soon surrounded and entangled his adversary, disjoining every member of his discourse, and strangling him in the irresistible folds of truth.

"This intellectual superiority, by which my illustrious friend was so eminently distinguished, might nevertheless have existed in all its strength without raising him to the exalted station he held as a public speaker. The powers of the understanding are not of themselves sufficient for this high purpose. Intellect alone, however exalted, without *strong feelings*, without even irritable sensibility, would be only like an immense magazine of gunpowder, if there were no such element as fire in the natural world. It is the heart which is the spring and fountain of eloquence. A cold-blooded learned man might, for any thing I know, compose in his closet an eloquent book; but in public discourse, arising out of sudden occasions, he could, by no possibility, be eloquent.

"It has been said that he was frequently careless of the language in which he expressed himself; but I can neither agree to the justice nor even comprehend the meaning of that criticism. He could not be *incorrect* from carelessness because, having lived from his youth in the great world, and having been familiarly conversant with the classics of all nations, his most unprepared speaking (or, if critics will have it so, his most negligent) must have been at least *grammatical*, which it not only uniformly was, but distinguished by its taste; more than that could not have belonged to it without the very care which his habits and his talents equally rejected.

"He undoubtedly attached as little importance to the musical intonations of his speeches as to the language in which they were expressed. His emphases were the unstudied effusions of nature—the vents of a mind burning intensely with the generous flame of public spirit and benevolence, beyond all control or management when impassioned, and above the rules to which inferior things are properly subjected; his sentences often rapidly succeeded, and almost mixed themselves with one another—as the lava rises in bursts from the mouth of a volcano, when the resistless energies of the subterranean world are at their height."

We can only cursorily allude to the last and greatest political achievement of Mr. Fox, when his whole energies were devoted to the cause of liberty in another clime. It is commemorated in the following spirited passage from the pen of the Rev. G. Croly:—

"Fox's politics may now be obsolete; his parlia-



mentary triumphs may be air; his eloquence may be rivalled, or shorn of its beams by time, but one source of glory cannot be extinguished—the abolition of the slave-trade. This victory no man can take from him. Whatever variety of opinion may be formed on his public principles, whatever condemnation may be found for his personal career, whatever doubts of his great faculties, on this one subject all voices will be raised in his honour, and the hand of every man of English feeling will add a stone to the monument that perpetuates his name. On the 10th of June, 1806, Fox brought forward his motion in a speech brief but decided. “So fully,” said he, “am I impressed with the vast importance and necessity of attaining what will be the object of my motion to-night, that if, during the forty years that I have had the honour of a seat in parliament, I should have been so fortunate as to accomplish that, and that only, I should think I had done enough, and should retire from public life with comfort, and the conscious satisfaction that I had done my duty.”

His speech concluded with the important resolution:—“That this house, conceiving the African slave trade to be contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy, will, with all practicable expedition, proceed to take effectual measures for abolishing the slave trade, in such manner and at such period as may be deemed advisable.”

*C. J. Fox*

FOX, JOHN.—This celebrated church-historian was born at Boston in 1517. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1543 elected a fellow of Magdalen College. His first work was written in Latin and entitled “De Christo Triumphante,” and shortly afterwards he became a convert to the doctrines of the Reformation and was expelled his college. He was restored in the reign of Edward VI., but in the reign of Mary retired to Basle where he commenced his “Acts and Monu-



ments.” This work was completed and published in 1553, and has excited so much interest in all readers of BIOGRAPHY.—VOL. I.

church history that we subjoin a specimen illustrative of the martyrdom of Dr. Taylor. Fox observes that “not only was his word a preaching unto them, but all his life and conversation was an example of unfeigned Christian life and true holiness. He was void of all pride; humble, and meek as any child; so that none were so poor but they might boldly, as unto their father, resort unto him; neither was his lowliness childish or fearful, but, as occasion, time, and place required, he would be stout in rebuking the sinful, so that none was so rich but he would plainly tell him his fault with such earnest and grave rebukes as became a good curate and pastor. To the poor that were blind, lame, sick, bed-ridden, or that had many children, he was a very father, a careful patron, and a diligent provider, insomuch that he caused the parishioners to make a general provision for them: and he himself (beside the continual relief that they always found at his house) gave an honest portion yearly to the common alms-box. His wife also was an honest, discreet, and sober matron, and his children well nurtured, brought up in the fear of God and good learning.

“To conclude: he was a right lively image or pattern of all those virtuous qualities described by St. Paul in a true bishop—a salt of the earth, savourily biting the corrupt manners of evil men; a light in God’s house, set upon a candlestick for all good men to imitate and follow. Thus continued this good shepherd among his flock, governing and leading them through the wilderness of this wicked world all the days of the most innocent and holy king of blessed memory, Edward VI. But after it pleased God to take King Edward from this vale of misery unto his most blessed rest, the Papists (who ever assembled and dissembled both with King Henry VIII. and King Edward his son) now seeing the time convenient for their purpose, uttered their hypocrisy, openly refusing all reformation made by the said kings; and, contrary to what they had all these kings’ days preached, taught, written, and sworn, they violently overthrew the true doctrine of the gospel, and persecuted with fire and sword all those that would not agree to receive again the Roman bishop as supreme head of the *universal* church, and allow all the errors, superstitions, and idolatries, that before by God’s word were disproved and justly condemned, as though now they were good doctrine, virtuous and true religion.

“In the beginning of this rage of Antichrist, a certain pretty gentleman after a sort of a lawyer, called Foster, being a steward and keeper of courts, a man of no great skill, but a bitter persecutor in those days, with one John Clerk of Hadley (which Foster had ever been a secret favourer of all Romish idolatry), conspired with the said Clerk to bring in the pope and his image worship again into Hadley church. For as yet Dr. Taylor, as a good shepherd, had retained and kept in his church the godly church service and reformation made by King Edward, and most faithfully and earnestly preached against the popish corruptions which had infected the whole country. Therefore the aforesaid Foster and Clerk hired one John Averth, parson of Aldham (a very mammonist, a blind leader of the blind, a popish idolater, and an open adulterer and whoremonger), a very fit minister for their purpose, to come to Hadley, and there to give the onset to begin again the popish mass. To this purpose they builded up, with

all haste possible, the altar, intending to bring in their mass again about the Palm Monday. But this their device took none effect; for in the night the altar was beaten down. Wherefore they built it up again the second time, and laid diligent watch lest any should again break it down. On the day following came Foster and John Clerk, bringing with them their popish sacrificer, who brought with him all his implements and garments to play his popish pageant; whom they and their men guarded with swords and bucklers lest any man should disturb him in his missal sacrifice." An order was made by Queen Elizabeth that this work should be placed "in the Common Hall of the dignified clergy," and it was very generally distributed. It may, however, be right to add, that it breathes a spirit more in accordance with the violent bigotry of the dominant church party than is creditable to the historian, who evidently lent his pen to their views. Dr. Fox died in 1587.

FOX, EDWARD a distinguished English statesman, who was born at Dursley in Gloucestershire. In 1528 he was sent ambassador to Rome, jointly with Stephen Gardiner, afterwards bishop of Winchester, in order to obtain bulls from Clement VII. for Henry's divorce from Catherine of Arragon. In 1530 he was employed with Gardiner at Cambridge to obtain the university's determination in the matter of Henry VIII.'s divorce. In 1531 he was promoted to the archdeaconry of Leicester, and in 1533 to that of Dorset. It was he that apprized the clergy of their having fallen into a *præmunire*, and advised them to make their submission to the king, by acknowledging him supreme head of the church, and making him a present of 100,000*l*. In 1535 he was promoted to the bishopric of Hereford. He was the principal pillar of the Reformation as to the politic and prudential part of it, being of more activity and no less ability than Cranmer himself; but he acted more secretly than Cranmer, and therefore did not bring himself into danger of suffering on that account. He died in 1536.

FOX, GEORGE.—This celebrated individual was the founder of the Society of Friends or Quakers. He was born at Drayton in Leicestershire, of humble parents, and at the early age of nineteen he formed the idea that he had received a divine commission to forsake all earthly enjoyments and devote himself entirely to religion. In 1648 he began to propagate his opinions, and then commenced public preaching at Manchester, from which place he went into the neighbouring towns and villages, insisting on the certainty and efficacy of experiencing the coming of Christ in the heart, as a light to discover error and the knowledge of one's duty. He now made more extensive journeys, and travelled through the counties of Derby, and Leicester, and Northampton, addressing the people in the market-places, and inveighing strongly against injustice, drunkenness, and the other prevalent vices of the age. At Derby the followers of Fox were first denominated "Quakers," either on account of the trembling accent used in the delivery of their speeches, or because when brought before the higher powers they exhorted the magistrates and other persons present "to tremble at the name of the Lord." Both George Fox and his followers contended, that as God did not dwell in temples made with hands, so the people should receive the inward divine teaching of the Lord, and take that for their rule of life.

In 1655 Fox was sent prisoner to Cromwell, who contented himself with obtaining a written promise that he would not take up arms against him or the existing government; and then ordered him to be set at liberty. Fox re-commenced his ministerial labours at London, and spent some time in vindicating his principles by means of the press, and in answering the books circulated against the society which he had founded, and which began to attract public attention. Notwithstanding the moderation of Cromwell towards Fox, he was perpetually subject to abuse and insult, and was more than once obliged to solicit the interference of the Protector to free him from persecution. Once he wrote to Cromwell, soliciting his attention to the sufferings of his friends; and on hearing a rumour that he was about to assume the title of king, Fox solicited an audience, and remonstrated with him very freely upon the measure. The history of Fox, for several years previously to 1666, consists of details of his missions and accounts of his repeated imprisonments. In this last-mentioned year he was liberated by order of the king, and he immediately set about forming the people who had embraced his doctrines into a compact and united body. Shortly after he married Margaret, the widow of Judge Fell, at whose house he had been entertained in his progress through Lancashire. After this Mr. Fox sailed for America, where he spent two years in making proselytes, and in confirming the faith and practice of those who had already joined in his cause.

In 1684 Fox visited the continent, and upon his return he found his health too much impaired, by incessant fatigues and almost perpetual persecutions, to contend any more with his enemies: he accordingly lived more retired; and in 1690 he died, having, however, performed the duties of a preacher till within a few days of his decease. Fox was a man of good natural talents, and thoroughly conversant in the scriptures. The incessant zeal which he exhibited through life affords abundant evidence of his piety, sincerity, and purity of intention; and his sufferings bear testimony to his fortitude, patience, and resignation to the divine will. William Penn, speaking of him, says that "he had an extraordinary gift in opening the scriptures but that, above all, he excelled in prayer."

FRANCIS I., king of France, called by his subjects the father of literature, was born at Cognac in 1494. His father was Charles of Orleans, count of Angoulême, and his mother Louisa of Savoy. He ascended the throne of France in January 1515, on the death of his father-in-law Louis XII. Francis determined to support his claims to Milan, and to take possession of the duchy. The Swiss, who had established the duke Maximilian Sforza in Milan, held all the principal passes; but Francis entered Italy over the Alps on the 13th of September, 1515. After two days' fighting he gained a victory over the Swiss, who had attacked him in the plains of Marignano. This was the first battle which the Swiss had lost. And they left 10,000 men dead on the field. In this engagement the king gave striking proofs of his valour and presence of mind. Maximilian Sforza now concluded a peace with Francis, surrendered Milan, and retired into France, where he passed the rest of his days in tranquil retirement. The Genoese declared for Francis, and Leo. X., alarmed at his success, met him at Bologna, made peace with him, and granted the well-known concordate. A year after the conquest of



Milan in 1516, Charles I. of Spain, afterwards the emperor Charles V., and Francis, signed the treaty of Noyon, a principal article of which was the restoration of Navarre. On the death of Maximilian in 1519 Francis was one of the competitors for the empire; but, in spite of the enormous sums he expended to obtain the suffrages of the electors, the choice fell on Charles. From this period Francis became his rival, and was almost continually at war with him; first on account of Navarre, which he won and lost almost in the same moment. He was more fortunate in Picardy, whence he drove out Charles who had entered it, invaded Flanders, and took Landrecy, Bouchain, and several other places. But, on the other hand, he lost Milan, with its territory; and, what was still more sensibly felt by him, the constable of Bourbon, forced by the intrigues of the queen-mother to leave France, went over to Charles. And this great commander defeated the French in Italy, drove them over the Alps, took Toulon, and laid siege to Marseilles. Francis flew to the defence of Provence, and, after delivering it, advanced into the Milanese, and laid siege to Milan in the midst of winter. He was imprudent enough to send 16,000 of his troops to attempt the conquest of Naples, which left him too weak to withstand the forces of the emperor, and he was entirely defeated at Pavia in February 1525. He himself, after having two horses killed under him, fell with his principal officers into the hands of the enemy. Though surrounded, and without hope of rescue, he yet refused to surrender his sword to a French officer, the only one who had followed the constable. De Lannoy, viceroy of Naples, was then called, to whom he gave up his sword. On this occasion he wrote to his mother, "All is lost, Madam, except our honour."

Francis was carried to Madrid, and kept in confinement; and he could recover his liberty only by signing the severe terms of the treaty of January 1526, by which he renounced his claims to Naples, Milan, Genoa, and Asti, the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, promised to cede the duchy of Burgundy, and to pay 2,000,000 crowns. As security for the fulfilment of these conditions he was obliged to give up his two youngest sons (for whom he was exchanged on the frontiers) as hostages. But when Lannoy, who accompanied him to Paris as the ambassador of the emperor, demanded the surrender of Burgundy, Francis led him into the assembly of the Burgundian estates, who declared that the king had no right to dismember the monarchy. In addition to this, Lannoy had the mortification of witnessing the proclamation of the holy league, consisting of the pope, the king of France, the republic of Venice, and all the Italian powers, who agreed to check the advances of the emperor. Francis, the soul of this league, commanded Lautree to occupy a part of Lombardy, and thus delivered the pope from the imperial troops. He would likewise have taken Naples, had not the plague destroyed almost the whole of the French army with their general. This loss hastened the peace of Cambray, which was signed in 1529. The king of France resigned a part of his claims and retained Burgundy, but was obliged to pay 1,200,000 crowns as a ransom for his two sons, and married Eleonora, widow of the king of Portugal, and sister of the emperor. But this peace was of short duration. Milan, the constant object of contention, and the grave of the French, still excited the ambition of Francis. In 1535 he

once more invaded Italy, and made himself master of Savoy. But the emperor made a descent upon Provence, and besieged Marseilles. In the mean time Francis entered into an alliance with Soliman II. At length, at a conference which took place at Nice between the king and Charles, through the mediation of the pope, in 1538, a truce of ten years was concluded; and the emperor, who some time after passed through France, to chastise the rebellious citizens of Ghent, in a personal interview with Francis, promised to invest one of his sons with the sovereignty of Milan; but no sooner had he left France than he refused to fulfil his promise.

In 1541 the imperial governor del Guasto caused the French ambassadors, who had been appointed to Venice and Constantinople, to be murdered on the Po, and war was again kindled. France now promised herself important advantages from an alliance with Sweden and Algiers, when her hopes were destroyed by the alliance of Charles V. and Henry VIII. king of England. The allies invaded Picardy and Champagne, and the emperor rendered himself master of Soissons, while the king of England took Boulogne. Fortunately for France, the union of the Protestant princes of Germany against the emperor prevented him from following up his success, and inclined him to a peace, which was concluded at Crespri in 1544. Charles resigned all his claims on Burgundy, and two years after peace was made with England. In March 1547 Francis died. He possessed a chivalric and enterprising spirit, and his generosity, clemency, and love of letters might have rendered France happy, had he been content to reign in peace; but his protection of letters and the arts has caused many of his defects to be overlooked by posterity, as he lived at the period of the revival of learning, and transplanted into France the remains which had survived the fall of the Greek empire. The arts and sciences may be said to have first begun to exercise a salutary influence on the character and manners of the French during his reign.

FRANCIS, SIR PHILIP, a politician of some eminence, who was born in 1740, and received the principal part of his education at St. Paul's school; on leaving which he became a clerk in the secretary of state's office. After having been to Portugal and the East Indies he was chosen M. P. for the borough of Yarmouth, and on the impeachment of Mr. Hastings he supported every measure against that gentleman. He came into office with the Whig administration, and was honoured with the order of the Bath. He died in 1818. The celebrated "Letters of Junius" have been ascribed to Sir Philip Francis, and a notion of the probability of this assertion may be best gathered from the following specimen of his style when addressing the freeholders of Middlesex.

Sir Philip observes, "I never had a turn or a relish for long speeches, and now the little habit I had of speaking in public is lost by disuse. Besides my natural aversion to prolixity, the time and the occasion call for energy and resolution much more than for debate. It is to be regretted that this county, which, including the wealth and population of the capital, is at the head of the country, has not had an opportunity of meeting sooner, and taking the lead on the business of this day, and giving the earliest example to the rest of the three United Kingdoms, of the course that ought to be pursued in this great emergency. Still I hope your proceedings will not

appear too late to be useful. Wherever your sentiments can be known, I am sure they will make a general and deep impression. This is not a question of precedence. It is, and ought to be, a subject of emulation; not who shall go first, or who shall go second, but how we shall all unite with the greatest vigour and effect in the common cause of the community. The case concerns every man in the kingdom, from the highest in station to the lowest in misery, from the first county to the poorest village, from the palace to the cottage. Once renew the power which has been given and still exists, then ask yourselves what security has the first or last man in the kingdom that he shall be able to escape from its grasp? I know of none, unless you think that exorbitant power may safely be trusted because you are sure it will never be abused. Even so, remember that 'the mildness with which absolute masters exercise their dominion leaves them masters still.' Of myself I shall only say, what it is fair to presume of any man in the same circumstances, that, at my time of life, and afflicted as I am with bodily infirmities, I should not come forward now to take an active part in any of the common transactions of a world in which I must very soon cease to have a personal concern, unless I were in earnest. It is not for ostentation that I make this claim to your confidence, or to court a little transitory applause. These vanities are gone by. I know their full value and esteem them accordingly, as you will do if you live to my age. In disclaiming all interest, I mean to prove my sincerity as far as the heart of man can be judged of on rational presumptions, or human actions accounted for by natural motives.

"Gentlemen, Neither the country nor the government can stand long in their present position. You cannot stop where you are. We are falling still. We must either recover the station we have lost, or sink deeper every day until we reach the lowest gulf of degradation, from which there is no return. We have already lost our original right to the *habeas corpus*. To-morrow the trial by jury may be suspended. The next step will be the abolition of both, as it is said of kings that the interval is short between their imprisonment and their graves. Why should not the trial by jury be suspended? If it be true, as ministers affirm, 'that a traitorous conspiracy has been formed to overthrow the government, laws, and constitution of this kingdom,' and if juries will not find such supposed traitors guilty, then I say that ministers are bound by their principles, if they are sincere, or by their professions at least, if they are not so, to take some shorter course to save the state. They would be traitors themselves if they did not resort to it. They have necessity to plead, which, if it be real, is irresistible. They are bound to take care that the government shall not perish in their hands. If I am driven to a choice, and no other option left me, I am not at all sure that I ought not to prefer an abolition of the trial by jury to that of the *habeas corpus*, because I know that in fact juries have been and may be corrupted or overawed. Otherwise how was it possible that a verdict of Guilty could have been returned against Lord Russel? But juries will not always answer the spur, and the best governments may be compelled to have recourse to a high commission court, and to revive the Star Chamber. In process of time even those formalities will be found too slow or too troublesome for the rapid

patriotism and ardent zeal of cabinet ministers to save their country. Then come the use and real purpose of a standing army of foreigners in the heart of the country. I call them foreigners, though at present most of them may be natives. What is it to us where they were born—in England, or Scotland, or Ireland, in France or in Germany? If they draw their swords against the freedom of their birth-place, to the destruction of every thing that ought to be dear even to themselves, they are foreigners to us and enemies to the well-being of their country. His most faithful majesty the king of Portugal and Algarve, and his catholic majesty the king of Spain, at the head of the edicts, say, 'Jo el Rey'. The most Christian king says, 'Car tel est notre plaisir.' There are still two topics on which it is indispensable that I should detain you a few minutes. The first is the propriety, and indeed the advantage, of adhering strictly this day to the object for which you are regularly convened by the authority of the sheriffs of the county who preside here. You will find it quite enough to animate all your zeal and to occupy all your attention. In the true spirit and language of the field, for I suppose there are many sportsmen present, I say that by starting other hares you spoil your own sport, you mar the chase, and lose the attainable object immediately in view. The second is still more important. Observe what I say, not how I say it. Something worse than a military government awaits us, and shows itself already. An armed force, having taken what it wants, commonly suffers the enslaved nation to enjoy the little remnant that is left, or at least to exist in quiet. Not so when a feeble government shall resort for its support to the ministry of spies and informers, who penetrate into your house, who win your confidence by professing to adopt your opinions, who worm themselves into your family, who watch your unguarded words, who delude or corrupt your servants, who invent when they have nothing to discover, or excite that they may have something to betray. No sooner was the Roman commonwealth converted into an empire, but men such as these, I mean the *delatores*, became the favourite instruments of government, under those devils whom they called emperors. Your house is no retreat, the utmost prudence gives you no security. You well know who I mean;—by whom they are employed, and by whom they must be paid. I will not mention their names: among Christian men they are not fit to be named. I say they must be rewarded—aye, and liberally too; that is, in proportion to the odious character of their service. I did not see the thirty pieces of silver paid by the high-priest to Judas, but I believe it. It is not yet in human nature, let it be corrupted how it may, let it be ever so degraded and depraved, to undertake a service so ignominious and so hazardous without an expectation, without an agreement or stipulation perfectly understood between the contracting parties. Now, gentlemen, though it be not very likely, it is far from impossible that one or more of the beings I allude to may have found their way unobserved into this assembly. A villain is not easily distinguished or discovered by his countenance, for his face may be a mask. If such a man be among us, I exhort and invite him to come forward to declare his mission and to avow his purpose. I challenge him to watch every word I utter, and to write it down at this table, where I will solicit the sheriffs to grant him all the accommodation that can be had



in so crowded a place. As far as may depend on my utmost efforts, he shall then be at liberty to depart unmolested, under the safe conduct of contempt, and to carry with him the proofs of his services and merits to those who employ him."

FRANCIS, PHILIP, a clever dramatic writer and poet, who was educated at the university of Dublin. After taking orders, he came to England and settled at Esher in the county of Surrey, where he opened a school and had for some time among his pupils Gibbon, who subsequently became so celebrated as an historian. He was afterwards presented to the rectory of Barrow in Suffolk and made chaplain of Chelsea Hospital. He died in 1773. Dr. Francis was more distinguished for his translations of classical authors than for his original compositions. His pen was also a good deal employed in political controversy.

FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN.—This eminent practical moralist and philosopher formed one of the brightest ornaments of that extraordinary revolution which gave liberty to one quarter of the globe, and afforded a striking example of the power of self-education combined with high moral rectitude. He was born at Boston in 1706, and was put to a common grammar school at the age of eight years, and from the talents he displayed in learning his father conceived the notion of educating him for the ministry; but, as he was unable to meet the expense, employed him in cutting candle wicks, filling moulds, and running errands. The boy was disgusted with this occupation, and was soon after placed with his brother, a printer, to serve an apprenticeship to that trade. His early passion for reading was now in some measure gratified, and he devoted his nights to perusing such books as his limited resources enabled him to obtain. Defoe's "Essay on Projects," and Doctor Mather's "On doing Good," were among his earliest studies. The style of the "Spectator," with which he early became acquainted, delighted him, and he gives an account of his exertions to imitate it in his memoirs of himself. As he had failed entirely in arithmetic while at school, he now borrowed a little treatise, which he mastered without any assistance, and studied navigation. At the age of sixteen he read Locke "On the Understanding," the "Port-Royal Logic," and Xenophon's "Memorabilia." Happening to meet with a work which recommended vegetable diet, he determined to abstain from flesh; and we now find the philosophic printer and newspaper-carrier purchasing books with the little sums he was enabled to save by the frugality of his diet.

His brother published a newspaper, which was the second that had as yet appeared in America; and Franklin, having secretly written some pieces for it, had the satisfaction to find them well received; but, on its coming to the knowledge of his brother, he was severely lectured for his presumption, and treated with great harshness. One of the political articles in the journal having offended the general court of the colony, the publisher was imprisoned, and forbidden to continue it. To elude this prohibition, young Franklin was made the nominal editor, and his indentures were ostensibly cancelled. After the release of his brother, he took advantage of this act to assert his freedom, and thus escape from the ill treatment which he suffered. His father's displeasure, his brother's enmity, and the odium to which

his sceptical notions subjected him, left him no alternative but a retreat to some other city. He therefore secretly embarked aboard a small vessel bound to New York, without means or recommendations; and, not finding employment there, he set out for Philadelphia, where he arrived on foot, with his pockets stuffed with shirts and stockings, a roll of bread under his arm, and one dollar in his purse. "Who would have dreamed (says Brissot de Warville) that this poor wanderer would become one of the legislators of America, the ornament of the new world, the pride of modern philosophy? Here he obtained employment as a compositor, and having attracted the notice of Sir William Keith, the governor of Pennsylvania, was induced by his promises to go to England for the purpose of purchasing types to establish himself in business. On arriving in London he found that the letters which had been delivered him had no reference to him or his affairs; and he was once more in a strange place, without credit or acquaintance, and with little means. But he soon succeeded in getting business, and, although at one time guilty of some excesses, he afterwards became a model of industry and temperance, and even reformed his brother printers by his example and exhortation. While in London, he continued to devote his leisure hours to study, and wrote a small pamphlet himself, on liberty and necessity, pleasure and pain. After a residence of eighteen months in London, he returned to Philadelphia, in his twenty-first year, in the capacity of clerk to a dry-goods shop; but he soon returned to his trade, and in a short time formed an establishment in connexion with a person who supplied the necessary capital. They printed a newspaper, which was managed with much ability, and acquired Franklin much reputation. It is impossible for us to trace all the steps of his progress to distinction, but we give the following extract from his own memoirs:—

"My original habits of frugality continuing, and my father having among his instructions to me when a boy frequently repeated a proverb of Solomon, 'Seest thou a man diligent in his calling, he shall stand before kings, he shall not stand before mean men,' I thence considered industry as a mean of obtaining wealth and distinction, which encouraged me, though I did not think I should ever literally stand before kings, which, however, has since happened; for I have stood before five, and even had the honour of sitting down with one (the king of Denmark) to dinner.

"We have an English proverb that says,

'He that would thrive  
Must ask his wife;'

It was lucky for me that I had one as much disposed to industry and frugality as myself. She assisted me cheerfully in my business, folding and stitching pamphlets, tending shop, purchasing old linen rags for the paper-makers, &c. We kept no idle servants, our table was plain and simple, our furniture of the cheapest. For instance, my breakfast was for a long time bread and milk (no tea), and I ate it out of a twopenny earthen porringer, with a pewter spoon: but mark how luxury will enter families, and make a progress in spite of principle. Being called one morning to breakfast, I found it in a china bowl, with a spoon of silver. They had been bought for me, without my knowledge, by my wife, and had cost her the enormous

sum of three-and-twenty shillings; for which she had no other excuse or apology to make, but that she thought her husband deserved a silver spoon and china bowl as well as any of his neighbours. This was the first appearance of plate and china in our house, which afterwards, in a course of years, as our wealth increased, augmented gradually to several hundred pounds in value."

Mr. Franklin for many years subscribed for the support of a Presbyterian minister in Philadelphia. This clergyman used to visit him sometimes as a friend, and on these occasions he always admonished him to attend his "administrations." He was accordingly prevailed upon to attend for five Sundays successively; but he proved to be a bad preacher, and besides never inculcated or enforced a single moral principle. Thinking that his aim was rather to make the congregation Presbyterians than good citizens, he at length withdrew in disgust, and returned to the use of a little liturgy, or form of prayer, entitled, "Articles of Belief and Acts of Religion." "My conduct might be blameable," observes he, "but I leave it, without attempting further to excuse it; my present purpose being to relate facts, and not to make apologies for them." "About the same time," it is added, "I conceived the bold and arduous project of arriving at moral perfection; I wished to live without committing any fault at any time, and to conquer all that either natural inclination, custom, or company might lead me into. On the whole, though I never arrived at the perfection I had been so ambitious of obtaining, but fell far short of it, yet I was by the endeavour a better and a happier man than I otherwise should have been if I had not attempted it.

"It may be right my posterity should be informed, that to this little artifice (he here alludes to the notes he took of his conduct), with the blessing of God, their ancestor owed the constant felicity of his life, down to the seventy-ninth year, in which this is written. To temperance he ascribes his long-continued health, and what is still left to him of a good constitution; to industry and frugality, the early easiness of his circumstances, and acquisition of his fortune, with all that knowledge that enabled him to be a useful citizen, and obtained for him some degree of reputation among the learned; to sincerity and justice, the confidence of his country, and the honourable employs it conferred upon him; and to the joint influence of the whole mass of the virtues, even in the imperfect state he was able to acquire them, all that evenness of temper and that cheerfulness in conversation which makes his company still sought for and agreeable even to his young acquaintances."

His industry, frugality, activity, intelligence, his plans for improving the condition of the province, for introducing better systems of education, and his municipal services, now made him an object of attention to the whole community. His advice was asked by the governor and council on all important occasions, and he was elected a member of the provincial assembly.

He had begun to print his "Poor Richard's Almanac" in 1732; and the aphorisms which he prefixed to a later number are well known, and are deservedly admired for their sound sense. At the age of twenty-seven he undertook to learn French, Italian, and Spanish, and after having made some progress in those languages, he applied himself to

the Latin. He was the founder of the university of Pennsylvania, and of the American Philosophical Society, and one of the chief promoters of the Pennsylvania Hospital.

In 1741 he began to print "The General Magazine and Historical Chronicle;" and in 1742 he invented the Franklin stove, for which he refused a patent, on the ground that such inventions ought to be made at once subservient to the common good of mankind. Being in Boston in 1746, he saw, for the first time, some experiments in electricity, which, though imperfectly performed, were the origin of the most brilliant discoveries which had been made in natural philosophy. We cannot avoid being struck with the immediate practical application he made of his new discovery in the invention of the lightning-rod. Franklin had ever shown himself a zealous advocate for the rights of the colonies, and it having been determined to hold a general congress at Albany, to arrange a common plan of defence, he was named a deputy. On his route he projected a scheme of union, embracing the regulation of all the great political interests of the colonies and the mother country. The Albany plan, as it was called, after it was adopted by the congress, proposed a general government for the provinces, to be administered by a president appointed by the crown, and a grand council, chosen by the provincial assemblies: the council was to lay taxes for all the common exigencies. The plan, though unanimously sanctioned by the congress, was rejected by the board of trade as savouring too much of the democratic, and by the assemblies as having too much of prerogative in it.

In 1751 he was appointed deputy postmaster-general, and in this capacity advanced large sums of his own money to General Braddock, the result of whose expedition he foresaw, and in regard to which he made some fruitless suggestions to that general. After the defeat of Braddock, he introduced a bill for establishing a volunteer militia; and, having received a commission as a commander, he raised a corps of 560 men, and went through a laborious campaign. His reputation was now such, both at home and abroad, that he was appointed agent of the provinces of Massachusetts, Maryland, and Georgia. Oxford, and the Scotch universities, conferred on him the degree of doctor of laws, and the Royal Society elected him a fellow. During his residence in England Doctor Franklin formed personal connexions with the most distinguished men of the country and of the continent, his correspondence with whom displays a striking union of a cultivated mind with a native and lively imagination. In 1762 he returned to America, but, new difficulties arising between the province and the proprietaries, the assembly determined to petition for the establishment of a regal government, and Franklin was again appointed agent in 1764. But the American revolution was now commencing, and he appeared in England no longer as a colonial agent, but as the representative of America. He arrived in London in 1764, about thirty-nine years after his first landing in England as a destitute and deluded mechanic. The project of taxing the colonies had been already announced, and he carried with him a remonstrance of the provincial assembly of Pennsylvania against it, which he presented to Mr. Grenville before the passage of the stamp act. He op-



posed the adoption of that measure, and, from its passage to its repeal, was indefatigable in his exertions to prove the unconstitutionality and impolicy of the act. When the repeal was about to be attempted, it was concerted by his friends that he should be examined on the whole question before the House of Commons. This memorable examination took place. The firmness, precision, readiness, and epigrammatic simplicity of manner, with which he replied to the interrogatories, mostly put by his friends, were so striking, the information he communicated was so varied, comprehensive, and luminous, on all points of commerce, finance, policy, and government, that the effect was irresistible; the repeal was inevitable. On the passing of the revenue acts of 1767, he became still more bold and vehement in his expostulations, and openly predicted in England that the inevitable result of those and the other similar measures of the ministry would be a general resistance by the colonies, and a separation from the mother country. But he never deviated from his original plan, to make every effort to enlighten the public opinion in England, to arrest the ministry in their infatuation, and to inculcate moderation and patience, as well as constancy and unanimity, on America. He endeavoured, at the same time, to stand well with the British government, aware that this was necessary to enable him to serve his country effectually; while he never ceased to proclaim the rights, justify the proceedings, and animate the courage of his countrymen. He was not ignorant, to use his own words, "that this course would render him suspected in England of being too much an American, and in America of being too much of an Englishman."

His transmission of the celebrated letters of Hutchinson and Oliver in 1772, which had been placed in his hands, is not the least memorable of his acts at this opening period of the revolution. He immediately avowed his own share in the transaction, although he never divulged the names of the persons from whom he had received them. The indignant petition of the assembly of Massachusetts, in consequence of these letters, was presented by him to the ministry, and he was immediately made the object of the most virulent abuse, and held up to the hatred and ridicule of the British nation. He met the conflict with no less spirit than wit, as is particularly exemplified in his two satirical pieces, the Prussian Edict and the Rules for reducing a great Empire into a small one. At the discussion of the petition before the privy council, Franklin was present. Wedderburn (afterwards lord Loughborough), the solicitor-general, assailed him with the most coarse invective, styling the venerable philosopher, and the official representative of four of the American provinces, a "thief and a murderer," who had "forfeited all the respect of society and of men." The ministry now dismissed him from his place of deputy postmaster-general, and a chancery suit was instituted in relation to the letters, for the purpose of preventing him from attempting his own vindication. Attempts were made, as the difficulties increased, to corrupt the man whom it had been found impossible to intimidate: "any reward, unlimited recompence, honours and recompence beyond his expectations," were promised him; but he was as inaccessible to corruption as to threats. It was at this period that he presented the petition of the first

American congress; and he attended behind the bar in the House of Lords when Chatham proposed his plan of a reconciliation. In the course of the debate that great man characterized him as "one whom all Europe held in high estimation for his knowledge and wisdom; who was an honour, not to the English nation only, but to human nature." Having received an intimation that the ministers were preparing to arrest him as guilty of fomenting a rebellion in the colonies, he embarked for America, and was immediately elected member of the congress. As a member of the committee of safety and of that of foreign correspondence, he performed the most fatiguing services, and exerted all his influence in favour of the declaration of independence.

In 1776 he was sent to France as commissioner plenipotentiary to obtain supplies from that court, but was not at first publicly received in his official capacity, but he succeeded in gaining the confidence of the count de Vergennes; and soon after the reception of the news of the surrender of Burgoyne he had the happiness of concluding the first treaty of the new states with a foreign power on the 6th of February. No sooner were the capture of Burgoyne and the treaty with France known in England than the ministry began to talk of a reconciliation. Emissaries were employed to sound Franklin as to the terms on which this reconciliation of the colonies could be effected, but he rejected every idea of treating except on the basis of independence. "The Americans (he said) were neither to be dragooned nor bamboozled out of their liberty." The next act of the British ministry was to endeavour to separate America from France, and to excite a jealousy between the two countries; but all these wiles were defeated by the prudence of the American ministers. After the conclusion of the treaty with France Franklin had been appointed minister plenipotentiary to that court in 1778, and was subsequently named one of the commissioners for negotiating the peace with the mother country. At the close of the negotiations in November 1782 he requested to be recalled, after fifty years spent in the service of his country, but could not obtain permission to return till 1785.

In a letter to Sir Joseph Banks, dated Passy, July 27, 1783, immediately after the treaty with England, Dr. Franklin gives it as his opinion—

"That there never was a *good war*, or a *bad peace* What vast addition," observes he, "to the conveniences and comforts of living might mankind have acquired if the money spent in wars had been employed in works of public utility. What an extension of agriculture, even to the tops of our mountains; what rivers rendered navigable, or joined by canals; what bridges, aqueducts, new roads, and other public works, edifices, and improvements, rendering England a complete paradise, might not have been maintained by spending those millions in doing good, which in the last war have been spent in doing mischief; in bringing misery into thousands of families, and destroying the lives of so many thousands of working people, who might have performed the useful labour." He adds, "I am pleased with the late astronomical discoveries made by our society. Furnished as all Europe now is with academies of science, with nice instruments, and the spirit of experiment, the progress of human knowledge will be rapid, and discoveries made of which we

have at present no conception. I begin to be almost sorry I was born so soon, since I cannot have the happiness of knowing what will be known one hundred years hence.

"I wish continued success to the labours of the Royal Society, and that you may long adorn their chair; being with the highest esteem,

"Dear Sir,

"Yours, &c. &c.

"B. FRANKLIN."

During this interval he negotiated two treaties, one with Sweden and one with Prussia. The general enthusiasm with which he was received in France is well known. His venerable age, his simplicity of manners, his scientific reputation, the ease, gaiety and richness of his conversation,—all contributed to render him an object of admiration to courtiers, fashionable ladies, and *savants*. He regularly attended the meetings of the Academy of Sciences, and was appointed one of the committee which exposed Mesmer's imposture of animal magnetism. At a meeting of the academy he met Voltaire, then in Paris, on his triumphal visit. The patriarch of letters and the patriarch of liberty met before a crowded hall, and embraced. On his return to his native country, before he was permitted to retire to the bosom of his family, he filled the office of president of Pennsylvania, and served as a delegate in the federal convention in 1787, and approved the constitution then formed. He died on the 17th of April, 1790, with his faculties and affections unimpaired.

FRANKLIN, THOMAS, a writer of considerable talent, who was born in 1721, and was educated for the church. He first appeared as an author in the translation of "The Epistles of Phalaris," and of Cicero's tract entitled "De Naturâ Deorum." In 1759 appeared his translation of Sophocles, and this work was followed by his "Dissertation on Ancient Tragedy." In 1769 he was made one of the chaplains to his majesty, and in 1770 D. D., but he still continued to pay a somewhat inconsistent attention to the stage, by occasionally producing a drama, and on one occasion even a farce. In 1776 he was presented to the living of Brasted in Surrey, which he held till his death, which took place in March 1784.

FRAUENHOFER, JOSEPH VON.—This clever optician was born in the town of Straubing in Bavaria, and was the son of a poor glazier who left him an orphan in his eleventh year. In 1801 the house in which he lodged in Munich was thrown down and young Fraunhofer was buried in the rubbish, from which however he was extricated alive. His remarkable preservation became known to King Maximilian Joseph, who ordered great care to be taken of him; he afterwards gave him a sum of money and promised him his protection. This enabled him to devote his leisure hours to acquiring a knowledge of the theory of optics and mathematics. After experiencing many difficulties he carried his knowledge so far as to be in 1809 appointed optician to the observatory of Buda, and afterward to the glass works at Benedictbaiern. There he made many useful discoveries and inventions, and his grinding and polishing machines and the excellence of the flint and crown glass with which he made his telescopes procured him the highest reputation. This he enjoyed till his death, which took place in June 1826. Fraunhofer held

many posts of distinction, one of which was that of professor in the Royal Bavarian Academy.

FREDEGONDE.—This celebrated female was the wife of Chilperic, a Frankish king of Soissons, a woman who, if all that chronicles relate of her is true, must be considered a monster of wickedness. She was born in 543, but the station of her parents is unknown, and while in the service of the first and second wives of Chilperic her beauty captivated the king. In order to arrive at the throne, Fredegonde removed the first wife of the king by artifice, and the second by assassination. This led to a war between the two brothers Chilperic and Sigebert, Brunehaut, wife of Sigebert and sister of the murdered queen, urging her husband to vengeance. Chilperic was defeated by his brother, besieged in Tournai, and seemed to be lost, when Fredegonde, who had now become his wife, found means to have Sigebert assassinated. She then took advantage of the confusion which this event produced in the camp of the enemy to attack and defeat them, and advanced to Paris, where she took Brunehaut and her daughters prisoners. Chilperic, however, afterwards sent Brunehaut back to Metz, where her son Childebert was proclaimed king in 575. The sons of her husband by his first marriage now fell victims to the ambition of Fredegonde, who at length caused Chilperic himself to be assassinated, to obtain the opportunity of gratifying another passion. By the assistance of her brother-in-law, Guntram, king of Orleans, Fredegonde was made regent of the kingdom during the minority of her son Clothaire II. She gradually extended her authority, was victorious in her wars against the Frankish kings, who had formed an alliance against her, and on her death, which took place in A. D. 597, she left the kingdom in a flourishing condition to her son. If Fredegonde was what we have described her from the chronicles, she is a remarkable instance of successful guilt.

FREDERIC.—The name of many distinguished monarchs, particularly of Germany. One of the most celebrated was Frederic I., Barbarossa, son of Frederic duke of Suabia, whom he succeeded in 1147. He was born in 1121, and received the imperial crown in 1152, on the death of his uncle the emperor Conrad III. He was the second German emperor of the house of Hohenstaufen, and one of the most able and most intelligent of the sovereigns of Germany. He waged war with success against Boleslaus, king of Poland, in 1157, and raised Bohemia to the rank of a kingdom. But his principal efforts were directed to the extension and confirmation of his power in Italy. He undertook six campaigns to chastise the rebellious cities of Lombardy, which had become rich and powerful through their commerce and manufactures. The city of Milan, in particular, had resisted his orders, and subjected several cities, but the emperor compelled it, after an obstinate resistance, to surrender. The city, having revolted a second time, was again captured in 1162, and Brescia and Piacenza were compelled to destroy their fortifications; the other cities which had engaged in the revolt lost their privileges and their freedom. But the pope, Alexander III., who had fled to France, excommunicated the emperor in 1168, and the cities of Lombardy entered into a new alliance. The Milanese rebuilt their city, and gained the decisive battle of Como over the imperial army, the consequence of which was the peace concluded at Venice between



the emperor, the pope Alexander III., and the cities of Lombardy. The events of the war, which lasted almost twenty years, were not particularly favourable for the emperor. In the mean time Frederic had declared Lubec and Ratisbon imperial cities, and thus founded a middle rank between the emperor and the German princes, by which the imperial power was increased, and the condition of the citizens raised. Frederic also increased his power by the separation of the duchies of Bavaria and Saxony, which Henry the Lion had held together; but the two parties of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, which had arisen under his predecessors, were on this account the more exasperated against each other.

News having been received that Saladin had retaken Jerusalem from the Christians, and the pope having preached a new crusade, Frederic, with an army of 150,000 men and several thousand volunteers, undertook the third crusade, before the commencement of which in 1187 a general peace was signed in Germany. The Greek emperor at Constantinople had secretly entered into alliance with Saladin and the sultan of Iconium, and attempted to prevent the march of the Germans through his dominions. But Frederic forced his way to Asia, gained two battles over the Turks near Iconium, penetrated into Syria, and died in the midst of his successes on the 10th of June, 1190, near Seleucia in Syria, after bathing in the Cydnus. Frederic was brave, liberal, and equally firm in good fortune and in reverses; and these qualities atone, in some measure, for the pride and arrogance which were the principal motives of his actions. He possessed a remarkable memory, and, for his age, unusual knowledge. He esteemed men of letters, particularly historians, from whose works he drew the exalted idea of an emperor, which he endeavoured to realize throughout his reign. He appointed his cousin, the bishop Otho of Freysingen, his biographer, and his taste for architecture is still attested by the memorable ruins of the imperial palace erected by him at Gelnhausen in Wetteravia. After the emperor's death the object of the crusade was no longer attainable. His heroic son, Frederic duke of Suabia, who had accepted the chief command, and founded the Teutonic order, was also carried off by a contagious disease in 1191, and only a small part of that powerful army which Frederic had conducted out of Germany ever returned home.

**FREDERIC II., HOHENSTAUFEN** **FREDERIC BARBAROSSA**, the grandson of the preceding, was born at Jesi, in the marquise of Ancona, in 1194, and was the son of the emperor Henry VI. and of the Norman princess Constance, heiress of the Two Sicilies. No sovereign of the middle ages, with the exception of Charlemagne and Alfred, was of so great historical importance, and few were so distinguished by their personal character, and by such a remarkable series of adventures. His long reign, from 1209 to 1250, belongs to the most remarkable period of the middle ages. He lived at a period when men like Gregory VII. and Innocent III. had raised the hierarchy to a degree of importance almost incredible; when, by the establishment of the orders of knighthood (for the purpose of fighting against the infidels, and of extending the papal jurisdiction), of the mendicant orders, and of the inquisition, the formidable pillars of the ecclesiastical structure were erected; when, by means of the crusades, the people of Europe were first brought into a

closer connexion by a common feeling, embodied in the sign of the cross; when, after many individual voices had been raised in vain, though not forgotten, the Protestantism of the middle ages made itself heard through the Waldenses and the Albigenses; when chivalry, ennobled by religion, obtained a higher character and a consistent organization; when the class of free citizens was gradually rising from its long degradation, and was supported in Germany by Frederic, against the aristocracy, although opposed by him in Upper Italy, as contributing to the power of the pope, and when the cities strengthened themselves against external dangers by great confederacies, and completed and confirmed their internal organization by the establishment of corporations; when, in opposition to the system of violence in which the right of the strongest is the strongest right, the first public peace was proclaimed in the German language, and the secret tribunal of the Veme began its first scarcely perceptible workings; when the first universities aroused the spirit of inquiry and examination; when the songs of the Provençals had found a home in Germany and Italy, and were sung by emperors and kings:—these were the times in which the great Frederic of Hohenstaufen lived and acted. Without being tall, Frederic was well formed, of a fair complexion, with a fine forehead, and a nose resembling the antique, and a gentle and kind expression of the eye and mouth. He inherited the chief virtues of his highly distinguished family; was brave, bold, and generous, and possessed great talents, which were highly cultivated. He understood all the languages of his subjects—Greek, Latin, Italian, German, French, and Arabic. He was severe and passionate, mild or liberal, as circumstances required; gay, cheerful, and lively, as his feelings dictated; and, as his body had been strengthened and rendered graceful by chivalrous exercises, so his mind, notwithstanding the neglect of his education, had been developed by its own vigour, and obtained in the school of adversity a versatility of power rarely found in those born to the purple, and an energy of purpose which sustained him in situations in which others would have been reduced to despair. All this strength of body and mind was necessary for a man who was obliged to repress a powerful aristocracy in Germany, a powerful democracy in Upper Italy, a powerful hierarchy in Central Italy, and to reconcile and unite in closer union, in his southern territories, the hostile elements of six nations; who, for forty years, opposed by secular and spiritual arms, by rivals, excommunications and interdicts, victorious or vanquished, endured the rebellion of a son, the treachery of his dearest friend, and the loss of his favourite child.

Frederic remained under the guardianship of Innocent III. till 1209, when he took upon himself the government of Lower Italy and Sicily. The country was divided by the factions of the great barons, favoured by the head of the church at the time when Frederic, at fifteen years of age, without counsel or direction, took the reins of government. After promising to conduct a crusade, he was crowned as German king at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1215; and the possession of the German and Sicilian crowns gave Frederic the hope that he should be able to make himself master of all Italy, subdue Lombardy, and reduce the spiritual monarch in Rome to the dignity of the first bishop in Christendom. But he mistook



the spirit of the times, which was very far behind his own enlightened views. He slowly prepared the execution of this great plan, with a prudence proportioned to its importance. He caused his eldest son, Henry, to be chosen king of Rome in 1220, and appeased the new pope, Honorius III., who was offended at this measure, by the pretence that the crusade which he was about to undertake rendered it necessary, and by the assurance that he would never attempt to unite Sicily with the empire. He then went to Rome without paying any regard to the refusal of the Milanese to allow him to assume the iron crown, received the imperial crown in 1220, and returned as emperor to his hereditary dominions, which he had left in a state little better than that of a fugitive. Here he began to make preparations for the crusade. Although Frederic was obliged to treat the heretics in the empire with severity, and even declared their children, to the second generation, incapable of office or honour unless they denounced their parents, yet he introduced the Saracens from Sicily into his Italian territories, allowed them the free exercise of their religion, and thus made them his most useful and faithful subjects. His new code of laws was designed to unite the interests of church and state, and to reconcile the nobility and clergy, the cities and the peasants; but it was also necessary to adapt it to the character of people so different from each other as the Romans, Greeks, Germans, Arabians, Normans, Jews, and French, while at the same time it should respect as much as possible the existing constitutions.

In 1227 Frederic undertook a crusade, which was frustrated by a contagious disease and the sickness of the emperor, so that the fleet returned without reaching its destination. This excited the anger of the pope, Gregory IX., who excommunicated the emperor, and put his dominions under an interdict. However, in 1228 Frederic set out on a new crusade; but Gregory commanded the patriarch of Jerusalem and the three orders of knights to oppose all the emperor's designs, and caused the dominions of Frederic to be devastated by his own troops under John of Brienne. Frederic, nevertheless, accomplished what no one since the noble Godfrey in 1099 had been able to obtain. By a treaty with Camel, sultan of Egypt, he obtained a truce of ten years, the cession of Jerusalem, of the holy places, of the whole country between Joppa, Bethlehem, Nazareth, and Acre, and of the important ports of Tyre and Sidon. All Christendom rejoiced, but the envy of the patriarch and the knights was kindled. Jerusalem, in which Frederic placed the crown upon his head with his own hands, because no priest would even read mass, was put under an interdict, and Frederic was betrayed to the sultan, of which the noble Saracen himself gave him the first information. The emperor now returned without delay to Lower Italy, recovered his hereditary territories by arms, after an ineffectual attempt at negotiation with Gregory, and baffled all the intrigues of the pope, who was finally compelled to release him from the excommunication. The Lombards would listen to no proposals of peace, but shut up the road to the assembly of Ravenna against his son, and would not allow themselves to be deceived by Gregory's public exhortations to peace; nay, when Frederic had reconciled the pope with his Roman subjects, Gregory secretly attempted to persuade King Henry to rebel against his father, and

promised him the support of the Lombards. The followers of Henry were already numerous, even in Germany, when he was surprised by his father, and the astonished youth threw himself at his feet imploring mercy. But the deluded prince made a second attempt on his father, it is said by poison, and he was instantly condemned, with his wife and child, to perpetual imprisonment at St. Felicia in Apulia. There is an appearance of harshness in the conduct of Frederic on this occasion, that he should celebrate his third nuptials with Isabella of England with great ceremony almost in the very moment in which he was committing the son of his first wife to prison, and causing him to be formally deposed in the general diet of Mentz. At this diet salutary measures were taken for securing the public peace, providing for the distribution of justice, and for encouraging commerce (the importance of which few princes of his time understood as well as Frederic) and agriculture.

Frederic now thought himself strong enough for the struggle with the Lombards, and made his preparations at Augsburg in 1236; and his alliance with Ezzelino da Romano, ruler of Verona, and the Ghibeline cities of Upper Italy, doubled his army. This war and the election of Conrad, his second son, as king of Rome, were, however, interrupted by a short contest with Frederic duke of Austria, the last of the Babenbergs. Soon after the renewal of the war against the Guelph cities of Upper Italy, a victory at Corte Nuova, on the Oglio, broke the power of the Lombards; and Milan, Bologna, Piacenza, Brescia, and all the other cities, surrendered. But Gregory was still more incensed, particularly when the emperor made his natural son, Enzo, king of Sardinia, and prepared for the completion of the conquest of Lombardy; and on Palm-Sunday, 1239, he excommunicated Frederic anew. The emperor, however, continued the war; but he suffered much by the secret treachery of Ezzelino; and to bring the war to a complete termination, he marched suddenly against the pope himself, penetrated through Spoleto into the papal dominions, captured Ravenna, and made the pope tremble in his capital. Rome would have fallen an easy prey had Frederic been able to overcome the last remains of superstition in his own breast, but he was anxious to settle his cause without recourse to extremities, by an assembly of the fathers of the church; but he soon perceived that none but his most decided enemies were summoned to it, and forbade the prelates from going to Rome; but, finding his warnings of no avail, he ordered his son Enzo to attack and destroy the Genoese fleet, and to carry more than a hundred prelates, who had embarked for Rome, prisoners to Naples. This blow brought the inflexible Gregory to his death-bed in August 1241. Occupied by these enterprises, Frederic had been unable to encounter the Mongols, who had invaded Germany, but they retired after their victory on the plains of Wahlstadt in 1241.

After the short reign of Celestine IV., and the long interregnum which succeeded, Frederic at length obtained a new election; but Sigibald Fiesco, who while cardinal had been his friend, became the most formidable of his enemies as Innocent IV. He confirmed the excommunication pronounced by Gregory, and fled suddenly from Italy, where the vicinity of the emperor appeared to him too dangerous, to Lyons in 1244. Frederic had now no alternative but to appear as a criminal before the judgment-seat of a



priest, or to enter on a dangerous contest with the superstition of the age. The pope renewed the excommunication, and summoned a general council at Lyons; and before this council, Thaddeus de Suessa, chancellor of the emperor, defended his cause with the power of eloquence and truth, and refuted accusations the most malicious and most absurd, brought against him by his enemies; but the struggle was in vain. The holy father pronounced the most dreadful curse upon him; the priests remained silent, extinguished their candles, and threw them to the ground. Frederic, however, justified himself before the princes of Europe, was victorious over the Lombards, crushed a conspiracy in his own court, and retained his firmness even after the defeat of his son Conrad, by his rival, Henry. Conrad was soon after successful, and Henry died in 1247. The remainder of Frederic's life was passed in conflict. Shortly after a victory in Lombardy he was surprised by death, and breathed his last in the arms of his natural son Manfred, at Fiorentino, on the 13th of December, 1250. He was not allowed by Providence to usher in the bright day of intellectual light in Europe, but his efforts will always form a remarkable epoch in history; and though a century of political and mental barbarism followed, in which the noble house of Hohenstaufen perished, yet we see in Louis the Bavarian, who resembled Frederic in many points, that his example was not wholly lost, and that a great idea once brought to light cannot be easily forgotten.

FREDERIC WILLIAM, generally called the great elector, was born in 1620, and at the age of twenty years succeeded his father as elector of Brandenburg. He must be considered as the founder of the Prussian greatness, and in more than one point his reign gave to Prussia a character which it still bears. From him is, in a great measure, derived that military spirit which is so striking a trait in the character of the people. His reign began when the unhappy thirty years' war was still raging in Germany, and his conduct towards both parties was prudent. In 1641 he concluded a treaty of neutrality with Sweden, notwithstanding the earnest remonstrances of Austria; and in 1644 he concluded an armistice with Hesse-Cassel, by which Cleves and the county of Mark were restored to him. According to the terms of former treaties, Brandenburg ought to have received Pomerania, on the death of the duke without heirs in 1637, but the elector was obliged by the peace of Westphalia in 1648 to leave Anterior Pomerania, the island of Rugen, and part of Hinder-Pomerania to Sweden, which held it until 1814, and received, by way of indemnity, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, and Cammin.

In the war between Poland and Sweden, which began in 1655, he was obliged to take part on account of the duchy of Prussia. He supported both parties in turn, and obtained an acknowledgment of the independence of the duchy of Prussia from Poland, upon whom it was formerly dependent. In 1672 he concluded a treaty with the Dutch republic, when this state was threatened by Louis XIV. Though the French retreated from the Netherlands when Frederic William advanced into Westphalia, the success of the whole war was frustrated by the slowness of the Austrian generals and their jealousy of the elector, who was obliged to retreat from want of provisions; and on the 6th of June, 1673, he concluded a treaty with France at Vossem, near Louvain, by which

France promised to yield Westphalia, and to pay 800,000 livres to the elector, who in return broke off his treaty with Holland, and promised not to render any aid to the enemies of France. In 1674 the German empire declared war against France. The elector marched 16,000 men into Alsace, but Bourbonville, the Austrian general, avoided a battle, which was ardently desired by the elector, and Turenne defeated the imperial army at Muhlhausen. In the following December a Swedish army, at the instigation of France, entered Pomerania and the Mark. The elector hastened back and defeated them at Fehrbellin. In 1678 he concluded a separate peace with France at Nimeguen, as did also Holland and Spain. France demanded the restoration of all the conquered territories to Sweden. The elector, having refused compliance, formed an alliance with Denmark, and waged a new war against Sweden, but was at last obliged to submit by the peace of St. Germain, which took place in June 1679. He received from France 300,000 crowns. Louis XIV. having occupied several circles of Alsace by his celebrated *chambres de reunion*, Frederic William effected an armistice of twenty years between France and Germany; but when he renewed his treaty with Holland, and received into his dominions about 14,000 Protestant refugees from France, new difficulties arose between him and France, which brought him into a closer connexion with Austria, particularly as he hoped to receive from that power an indemnification for the three principalities of Liegnitz, Brieg, and Wolau, whose prince had died without heirs in 1675, and which, according to an old treaty, ought to have fallen to Brandenburg. He received the circle of Schwiebus in 1686, and in the same year sent 8000 men to assist the Austrians against Turkey, under the command of General Von Schoning, who distinguished themselves at the attack of Buda. The elector paid great attention to the promotion of agriculture and horticulture, and by affording protection to the French refugees gained 20,000 industrious manufacturers, who have been of the greatest advantage to the north of Germany. He died at Potsdam on the 29th of April, 1688, and left to his son a country much enlarged and improved, an army of 28,000 men, and a well-supplied treasury.

FREDERIC WILLIAM I., king of Prussia, was the son of Frederic I., and father of Frederic the Great. He was born in 1688, and displayed a passion for military exercises at an early age. While crown-prince in 1706 he married Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the elector of Hanover, afterwards George I. of England. On his accession to the throne in 1713 he endeavoured to increase the army and reform the finances, and became the founder of the exact discipline and regularity, which have since characterized the Prussian soldiers. His ridiculous fondness for tall men is well known: indeed, so far did he carry it that he established a regiment of them, and used every means—fraud, force, money—to fill its ranks. Nothing could be more despotic than his military system, but in other respects he studied the happiness of his subjects and the welfare of the state. Indignant at the humiliations which his father had suffered from the Swedes and Russians, who marched their troops through his dominions with impunity, he determined to protect his subjects from the consequences of any future rupture, and maintained an army of nearly 60,000 men. Frederic was unwilling

to engage in a war between Charles XII. and Russia, Poland and Denmark; but Charles, for whom he had a great esteem, having made a body of Prussians prisoners, he immediately declared war, and put himself at the head of an army of 20,000 men. He afterwards interfered in favour of the Protestants of some neighbouring countries, and he liberally rewarded the introducers of useful arts; but, being void of science and ornamental literature, he regarded them with contempt, and treated their professors with every kind of discouragement. Poetry and philosophy were equally his aversion, and he banished Wolf for his metaphysical opinions, and his own son, who had acquired a partiality for polite literature and music, was so continually thwarted by the king that he determined to quit Prussia. He was rigorous in his punishments, and always showed an inclination to aggravate rather than mitigate them. In 1734 he fell into a bad state of health, which increased the natural violence of his temper, and he died in 1740, after having been reconciled to his son, and expressed the greatest regard for him. He left behind him an abundant treasury and an army of 66,000 men. His affairs were in the greatest order and regularity, and to his labours and wisdom was Prussia much indebted for that prosperity and success which distinguished her till she was humbled by the power of Napoleon.

FREDERIC II., king of Prussia, was one of the greatest monarchs of the eighteenth century. He was



born in January 1712. Although by the direction of his father he was instructed only in the details of military exercises and service, his taste for poetry and music was early developed by the influence of his first instructress, the highly gifted Madame de Roucoules, and his early teacher Duhan, who, countenanced by the queen, formed a secret opposition to his father's system of education. The prince's inclination led him to adopt entirely the views of his mother, and this gave rise to a coolness between him and his father, which increased the king's desire to settle the succession on his younger son, Augustus William. The minister Von Grumbkow, and Leopold prince of Anhalt-Dessau, to promote certain plans of their own, and the Austrian ambassador, Von Seck-

endorf, for different reasons, widened the breach, and, indignant at the oppression and hatred which he experienced from his father, Frederic determined to flee to the court of George II., king of England, his mother's brother. His sister Frederica, and his friends Lieutenants Katt and Keith, were the only persons entrusted with the secret of his flight. He intended to start from Wesel, whither he had accompanied his father, but some incautious expressions of Katt betrayed the intentions of the prince. He was overtaken, brought to trial at Custrin, and obliged to be an eye-witness of the execution of his friend Katt. Keith made his escape from Wesel, and lived in Holland, England, and Portugal, till Frederic's accession to the throne, when he returned to Berlin in 1741, and was made lieutenant-colonel, equerry, and curator of the Academy of Sciences. While the prince remained in the closest confinement in Custrin, and was undergoing examination, the king sent a proposal to him to renounce the succession, on condition that he should have the liberty of pursuing his own inclinations in regard to his studies, travelling, &c. "I accept the proposal," said the prince, "if my father declares that I am not really his son." Upon this answer, the king, who looked on conjugal fidelity with religious respect, relinquished his plan. That the king was inclined to sentence his son to death is certain; but the provosts Reinbeck and Seckendorf, who had before intrigued against the prince, now saved his life: the latter in particular, by availing himself of the interference of the emperor.

The prince was not admitted to court till on occasion of the nuptials of the princess Frederica with Frederic crown-prince of Bayreuth, and was obliged by his father in 1733 to marry the princess Elizabeth Christina, daughter of Ferdinand Albert, duke of Brunswick-Bevern. Frederic William gave the castle of Schonhausen to her, and to the prince the county of Ruppin, and in 1734 the town of Rheinsberg, where he lived devoted to study till he ascended the throne. Among his daily visitors were literati, musicians, and painters; and he corresponded with foreign scholars, particularly with Voltaire, whom he greatly admired. Several of his writings, in particular his "Antimachiavel," had their origin in the rural tranquillity of Rheinsberg. Frederic, on his accession to the throne, found in his states a population of only 2,240,000 men. At his decease he left 6,000,000. He raised Prussia to this pitch of greatness by his talents as a legislator and general, assisted in the field and in the cabinet, during a reign of forty-six years, by many distinguished men. His father, in expectation of a war on account of the succession of the duchy of Juliers, had an army of 70,000 men on foot; and Frederic II., who had already excited great expectations, retained nearly all the institutions and laws of his father, but gave to the latter more extent and vigour. The death of the emperor Charles VI. was a favourable moment, of which Frederic II. took advantage to revive the claims of the house of Brandenburg with regard to the Silesian principalities of Jagerndorf, Liegnitz, Brieg, and Wolau, so far as to ask from the queen Maria Theresa the duchies of Glogau and Sagan, in return for which he promised her assistance against all her enemies, his vote for the election of her husband as emperor, and 2,000,000 Prussian dollars. But these proposals being rejected, he occupied Lower Silesia in December 1740, and defeated the Austrians under



Neipperg, in April 1741, near Molwitz. This victory, which was almost decisive of the fate of Silesia, raised new enemies against Austria. France and Bavaria united with Prussia, and the war of the Austrian succession commenced. After the victory of Czaslau, gained by Frederic on the 17th of May, 1742, the first Silesian war was terminated by the preliminaries signed at Breslau under British mediation, and by the peace signed at Berlin in July of the same year. Frederic obtained Lower and Upper Silesia, and the county of Glatz, with the exception of Troppau, Jagerndorf, and Teschen, with full sovereignty. On the other hand, Frederic renounced all claims to the other Austrian territories, assumed a debt of 1,700,000 Prussian dollars charged upon Silesia, and promised to respect the rights of the Catholics in Silesia. Frederic II. seized the opportunity of a peace to introduce useful institutions into the conquered territories, and to render his army more formidable.

In 1743, on the death of the last count of East Friesland, he took possession of that country, the reversion of which had been granted to his family in 1644 by the emperor. The war of the Austrian succession continued; the emperor Charles VII. was driven from his hereditary states of Bavaria, and the Austrians were every where victorious. Frederic therefore, apprehensive that an attempt would be made to recover Silesia, entered into a secret alliance with France, and with the emperor, the Palatinate, and Hesse-Cassel, at Frankfurt. He promised to support the cause of the emperor by the invasion of Bohemia, on condition that he should receive the circle of Koniggratz. He therefore entered Bohemia suddenly, and captured Prague; but the Austrians and Saxons under Charles, prince of Lorraine, compelled him to evacuate Bohemia before the close of the year. The death of the emperor, which took place in January 1745, and the defeat of the Bavarians at Pfaffenhofen, obliged Maximilian Joseph, the young elector of Bavaria, to conclude the peace of Fuesen with Maria Theresa, and occasioned the dissolution of the alliance of Frankfurt after Hesse-Cassel had already declared itself neutral. Besides this, Austria, England, the Netherlands, and Saxony, had entered into an alliance at Warsaw, and Saxony had concluded a separate treaty with Austria against Prussia. But Frederic defeated the Austrians and Saxons at Hohenfriedberg in Silesia, entered Bohemia, and gained a second victory at Sor after a very obstinate combat. The victory of the Prussians under Leopold, prince of Dessau, over the Saxons at Resselldorf, in December 1745, led to the peace of Dresden, on the basis of the peace of Berlin. Frederic retained Silesia, acknowledged the husband of Maria Theresa, Francis I., as emperor, and Saxony promised to pay 1,000,000 Saxon dollars to Prussia.

During the eleven following years of peace Frederic devoted himself with the greatest activity to the domestic administration, to the improvement of the army, and at the same time to the muses. It was at this time that he wrote his "Mémoires de Brandebourg," his poem "L'Art de la Guerre," and other works in prose and verse. He encouraged agriculture, the arts, manufactures, and commerce; reformed the laws, increased the revenues of the state, perfected the organization of his army, which was increased to 160,000 men, and thus improved the condition of the state. Secret information of an

alliance between Austria, Russia, and Saxony, gave him reason to fear an attack and the loss of Silesia. He therefore hastened to anticipate his enemies by the invasion of Saxony in August 1756, with which the seven years' war, or third Silesian war, commenced. The peace of Hubertsburg, which took place in February 1763, of which those of Breslau and Dresden were the basis, terminated this war without any foreign interference, on the principle that the contracting parties should remain *in statu quo*. Frederic came out of the seven years' war with a reputation which promised him in the future a decisive interest in the affairs of Germany and Europe. His next care was the relief of his kingdom, which was drained and exhausted by the contest. He opened his magazines to furnish his subjects corn for food and for sowing. To the peasants he distributed horses for ploughing, rebuilt at his own expense the houses destroyed by fire, established new settlements, created manufactures, and laid out canals. Silesia was excused from all taxes for six months, the Neumark and Pomerania for two years; and in 1764 he founded the bank of Berlin, with a capital of 8,000,000 Prussian dollars. Several good institutions were established during this interval of peace, but the new code of laws was completed and carried into operation under his successor. A treaty was concluded with Russia in March 1764, in consequence of which Frederic supported the election of the new king of Poland, Stanislaus Poniatowski, and the cause of the oppressed dissidents in Poland. For the purpose of connecting Prussia with Pomerania and the Mark, and of enlarging and consolidating his territories, Frederic consented to the first partition of Poland, which was first proposed at St. Petersburg, and concluded on the 5th of August, 1772. Frederic received the whole of Polish Prussia which had been ceded to Poland by the Teutonic order in 1466, with the part of Great Poland to the river Netz, excepting Dantzic and Thorn. From this time the kingdom of Prussia was divided into East and West Prussia. The plans of the emperor Joseph II., who visited him in Silesia in 1769, and whose visit he returned in Moravia in 1770, could not escape his vigilance. He therefore declared against the possession of a large part of Bavaria by Austria in 1778, after the death of Maximilian Joseph, elector of Bavaria, without issue. Charles Theodore, elector of the Palatinate, inherited as the next heir, and had consented to a cession; but the duke of Deux-Ponts, presumptive heir of the Bavarian Palatinate, and the elector of Saxony, who had also claims to the inheritance of Bavaria, refused to acknowledge this cession. Austria was not to be diverted from her designs by negotiations, and Saxony therefore formed an alliance with Prussia, and Frederic invaded Bohemia with two armies in July 1778. The emperor Joseph kept his position in a strongly fortified camp behind the Elbe, near Iaromirz, and could not be induced to give battle, and it was the wish of the aged empress Maria Theresa that a peace should take place. This war of the Bavarian succession was terminated without a battle by the peace of Teschen, which took place in May 1779. Austria consented to the union of the principalities of Franconia with Prussia, and renounced the feudal claims of Bohemia to those countries; and in the evening of his active life Frederic concluded, in connexion with Saxony and Hanover, the confederation of the German princes, on the 2nd

of July, 1785. An incurable dropsy hastened the death of this great king, and he died at Sans-Souci in August 1786, in the seventy-fifth year of his life and the forty-seventh of his reign, and left to his nephew Frederic William III. a kingdom increased by 29,000 square miles, more than 70,000,000 Prussian dollars in the treasury, an army of 200,000 men, great credit with all the European powers, and a state distinguished for population, industry, wealth, and science.

Improved by severe experience before he ascended the throne, animated by the example of his father, and possessed of rare talents ripened in the solitude of Rheinsburg, Frederic seized the helm of government and shook the whole political system of Europe, when he drew his sword in defence of his rights as a member of the empire, and of the rights of his house against the encroachments and the tyranny of the emperors, when he conceived and established in accordance with the wants of his time, the confederation of princes—the master work of his policy. One of his great merits is, that in the most difficult circumstances he contracted no public debts, but, on the contrary, although he distributed a considerable part of his revenues in different ways among his subjects, he had a richer treasury than any monarch in Europe ever possessed. His contempt for ecclesiastical establishments, which was considered by his contemporaries as a contempt of religion, has been censured. But his writings show that his heart was often open to the highest sentiments of piety. Entirely unacquainted with the literature and mental cultivation of Germany, he underrated it and contributed nothing to its improvement. It must, however, be confessed that the German muse was not very attractive at the time when Frederic devoted himself to French literature, and when a higher spirit was infused into it, the king, crowded with occupations, was too strongly fixed in his tastes and studies to be affected by it. A passage in his writings shows that he anticipated a brighter day for German literature without the hope of seeing it himself. Frederic's complete works, relating chiefly to history, politics, military science, philosophy, and the belles-lettres, and his poetical and miscellaneous works, are to be found in three collections—"Œuvres Posthumes de Frédéric II.," "Supplément aux Œuvres Posthumes de Frédéric le Grand," and "Œuvres de Frédéric II., publiées du Vivant de l'Auteur." His "Antimachiavel" shows how he prepared himself for the throne; and his "Essay on the Forms of Government and on the Duties of a Ruler," which he wrote after forty years' reign, is an excellent manual for a sovereign. The government of Frederic was an autocracy, and its consequences showed themselves most disadvantageously in the civil administration, which continually became more a machine. Sufficient to himself, Frederic had no council—his talents, his army, and his treasure, were his sole means of government. The consequence was, that the separation between the citizens and the military rose to an unexampled height in the Prussian monarchy. But it must be acknowledged that Frederic was popular in the noblest sense of the word—that he was the man of the nation. He lived, indeed, in the midst of his people. Each of his subjects was proud of him, and addressed him without fear; for the king considered himself as only the first officer of the state.

FREDERIC V., king of Denmark, was born in 1723, and succeeded his father Christian VI. in 1746. He preserved his dominions in peace, and promoted commerce and manufactures, encouraged agriculture and the working of mines, and much increased the wealth of his people and his own revenues. He was a liberal patron of the arts and sciences; instituted societies for the improvement of painting, sculpture, and architecture; sent a mission of learned men into the Levant, for the purpose of making discoveries in natural history and antiquities, and founded places of instruction for the Laplanders. He died January 12th, 1766. He was twice married, first to Louisa, daughter of George II., and secondly to Juliana Maria, daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel.

FREEMAN, WILLIAM PEERE WILLIAMS, a distinguished naval officer, who was born in 1742. He was educated at Eton school, from which he was removed at the age of fifteen, and immediately entered the naval service. In 1771 he was raised to the rank of captain, and served with great distinction for several years. In April 1794 he attained the rank of rear-admiral, that of vice-admiral in June 1795, and that of admiral in January 1801. When his present majesty ascended the throne he raised Admiral Freeman to the station of admiral of the fleet, at the same time sending him a splendid baton as an ensign of command. His death took place on the 18th of February, 1832.

FRIEND, JOHN, a learned physician, who was born at Croton in Northamptonshire in 1675. He was educated first at Westminster School, and afterwards at Christ Church College, Oxford. He soon distinguished himself by his classical and medical knowledge, and in 1703 he published a treatise on disorders peculiar to females, which raised him to eminence as a physician and physiologist. In 1722 he became a member of parliament, and immediately ranged himself among the opponents of Sir Robert Walpole, then prime-minister. On the impeachment of Bishop Atterbury he gave so much offence by the warmth with which he advocated his cause, that during a suspension of the habeas corpus act he was arrested on suspicion of treasonable designs and committed to the Tower, but he was afterwards relieved. Dr. Friend died in 1728.

FRESNOY, CHARLES ALPHONSO DU, an eminent painter and poet, who was born in 1611. He was intended by his family for the legal profession, and was for a time discarded by them in consequence of his determination to follow the bent of his genius, which led him to put himself under the tuition of Vouet and Perrier, who instructed him in the rudiments of his favourite art. In 1634 he accompanied his friend Mignard to Italy, and was at this period of his life mainly indebted to his liberality for support. He returned to France in 1656, having during his stay in Italy completed his well-known poem, "De Arte Graphica," which did not however appear till three years after his decease, when his friend De Piles published it in 1668, with his own annotations. This work has been three times translated into English, first by Dryden in 1694, then by Graham, and lastly by Mason in 1782; to the latter edition are attached some notes from the pen of Sir Joshua Reynolds. Du Fresnoy's pictures do not exceed fifty in number. Titian and the Caracci appear to have been his principal models; the tints of the one and the design



of the others being the manifest objects of his study and imitation. They are much admired, and though they were of but little profit to the painter, are now of considerable value. He died in 1665 of a pulmonary complaint.

**FROBEN, JOHN FROBENIUS**, a learned printer, born at Hammelburg, in Franconia, in 1460. After having completed his studies he went to Basle and became the corrector of Amerbach's press until 1491, when he established a press of his own. His impressions, remarkable for their correctness, were principally of theological works, particularly the fathers. His Greek type is not handsome, his Roman is round and clear without being pleasing, his title-pages are generally crowded, but the margins are in many of them decorated with designs from Holbein. He also printed the second edition of the New Testament of Erasmus in 1519 on parchment. Indeed he was an intimate friend of Erasmus, who lodged in his house and had all his works printed at Froben's press. He died in 1527. His sons Jerome and John, and his grandsons Ambrosius and Aurelius, continued his business.

**FROBISHER, SIR MARTIN**, a celebrated English navigator, who was born near Doncaster in Yorkshire, and was the first Englishman that attempted to find out a north-west passage to China. He made offers to several English merchants, but, meeting with no encouragement from them, he applied at length to Queen Elizabeth's courtiers, and under their influence and protection he engaged a sufficient number of adventurers, and collected a considerable sum of money. The ships he provided were only three, and with these he sailed from Deptford in June 1576.

Bending their course northward, they came on the 24th within sight of one of the islands of Shetland, and on the 11th of July discovered Freesland, which was covered with snow. They could not land on account of the ice: the east point of this island, however, they named "Queen Elizabeth's Foreland." Shortly after he entered into a strait which he called "Frobisher's, or Frobisher's Strait;" and then, sailing to Gabriel's island, they came to a sound, which they named Prior's Sound, and anchored in a sandy bay. Here he went on shore and had some communication with the natives, but he was so unfortunate as to have five of his men and a boat taken by the inhabitants. Having endeavoured in vain to recover his men, he again set sail for England, and arrived safe at Harwich.

The following spring he was sent out again, but his commission only empowered him to search for gold (of which a considerable quantity had been found on a previous voyage), and to leave the further discovery of a north-west passage till another time. Having therefore found a considerable quantity, he took a lading of it, intending the first opportunity to return home. He arrived in England about the end of September, and was most graciously received by the queen, and the hopes of a north west passage to China were considerably increased by this second voyage. Her majesty then appointed commissioners to examine into the matter, who stated their opinion of the great value of the undertaking, and the expediency of further carrying on the discovery of the north-west passage. Upon this preparations were made to make further discoveries. Besides three ships as before, twelve others were fitted out for this voyage. They assembled at Harwich and immediately put to sea. They met with many storms and difficulties in

this voyage, which retarded them so much that the season was too far advanced to undertake discoveries; so that, after getting as much ore as they could, they sailed for England, where they arrived after a stormy and dangerous voyage. We find no account of how Captain Frobisher employed himself from this time to 1585, when he commanded in Sir Francis Drake's expedition to the West Indies. In 1588 he bravely exerted himself against the Spanish Armada, commanding then the *Triumph*, one of the three largest ships in that service, and which had on board the greatest number of men of any in the English fleet. July 26th in that year, he received the honour of knighthood from the hand of the lord high admiral at sea, on board his own ship; and when afterwards the queen thought it necessary to keep a fleet on the Spanish coast, he was employed in that service, particularly in 1590, when he commanded one squadron as Sir John Hawkins did another. In 1594 he was sent with four men-of-war to assist Henry the Fourth of France against a body of Leaguers and Spaniards then in possession of Bretagne, who had fortified themselves very strongly at Croyzon near Brest; but in an assault upon that fort he was wounded, and died soon after he had brought the fleet safely back to Plymouth.

*Martin Frobisher*

**FROISSART, JOHN**, a French poet and historian, who was born in 1337 at Valenciennes, where his father appears to have been a painter of armouries. He received a liberal education, being destined for the church; but his inclination for poetry soon appeared, and was accompanied by a great fondness for feasts and gallantry; so that in his life and adventures, as well as in his writings, he gives us a true picture of the gay and thoughtless character of his countrymen at that time. At the age of twenty, encouraged by his master, Messire Robert de Namur, he began to write a history of the wars of his time, which occupation, as he took several journeys to examine himself the theatre of the events he was about to relate, served in some measure to cure him of a passion he had conceived for a lady, young and charming, but far above his rank, with whom he had become intimate in consequence of reading poetry and romances with her. The marriage of this lady soon after made him so unhappy that he came to England, where he was received with great favour, Philippa of Hainault, wife of Edward III., declaring herself his patroness. She afforded him the means of returning to France, where he lived near the object of his passion. Soon after, however, he returned to the court of England, which was always open to the gay poet and narrator of chivalric deeds. After travelling through Scotland, he accompanied the Black Prince to Aquitaine and Bourdeaux, and even wished to follow him in his campaign in Spain against Henry of Trastamare. He afterwards went with the duke of Clarence to Italy, when this prince married the daughter of Galeazzo Visconti, and directed the entertainment which Amadeus VI. of Savoy gave in honour of his master.

After the death of his protectress Philippa, Froissart gave up all connexion with England, and after many adventures as a diplomatist and soldier (for

whose duties, as he says himself, he was very little fitted), he became household chaplain to Wenceslaus, duke of Brabant, who was himself a poet, and of whose verses, united with some of his own, he formed a sort of romance, called "*Meliador*." On the death of Wenceslaus, he entered the service of Guy, count of Blois, who induced him to continue his chronicles; on which account he took a journey to the court of Count Gaston Phœbus, count of Foix, that he might hear from the mouth of the knights of Bearne and Gascony, at that court, an account of their deeds. On his way he became acquainted with Messire Espaing du Lion, a good knight, who had served in all the wars, and who communicated to him all his information with so much openness and naïveté, that the part of Froissart's chronicles founded on these accounts is one of the best portions of his works in respect to tone and style. After he had gone through many adventures, he returned to England during the reign of Richard II., a son of the Black Prince, and after the dethronement of this monarch he went to Flanders, where he died in 1401. His historical writings, which reach down to 1400, are strongly marked with the characteristic features of his active life, and they are valuable documents, exhibiting the character and manners of his age. Of all the copies of his historical works, which are found in different libraries, the best and most perfect is that at Breslau, which is prized so highly, that when this city surrendered to the French in 1806 it was expressly stipulated in the articles of capitulation that this manuscript should remain in the city. The English translation by Johnes is well written. Froissart's poems are also preserved in manuscript in the royal library at Paris.

**FRONDSBERG, GEORGE**, a celebrated general of the imperial troops, who was born in 1475, and formed his great military talents in the wars of the emperor Maximilian I., against the Swiss. As early as 1504 he was considered one of the bravest knights in the imperial army, and in 1512 he was at the head of the emperor's troops in Italy. He served with equal fame as a general of Maximilian I. and Charles V., and distinguished himself in the battle of Pavia. In 1526 he raised, at his own expense, by pledging his estates, a body of 12,000 men, with which he strengthened the army of Charles of Bourbon, who thus was enabled to march to Rome, and take the city by storm. He afterwards served in the Netherlands under Philibert of Orange, in the war against France, and was the author of several improvements in the military system. Frondsberg was a very strong man, and his deeds of personal prowess were celebrated in his time. At the diet of Worms, which was held in 1521, where Luther appeared to defend himself before Charles V., the calm countenance of the accused, in the midst of enemies, made such an impression on the old general that, tapping him kindly on the shoulder, he said, "My good monk, my good monk, you are about to encounter what neither I, nor any general, in our hardest battles, have ever encountered. If you are sincere, and sure of your cause, go on in God's name, and fear nothing. God will not forsake you." He died at Mindelheim in 1528.

**FRONTINUS, SEXTUS JULIUS**, a Roman of patrician descent, who flourished in the second half of the first century after Christ. He was thrice consul, and commanded with reputation in Britain under Vespasian, and he was appointed by Nerva to

superintend the aqueducts, on which he also wrote *Frontinus* died about A.D. 106. He also stood high in the estimation of his contemporaries as a jurist. His four books "*De Stratagematibus*" and his work "*De Aquæductibus Urbis Romæ*" are well known.

**FRONTO, MARCUS CORNELIUS**, an orator and teacher of eloquence at Rome. He was a native of Crete, and received his education at Cirta, a Roman colony in Numidia. He lived under the emperors Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus, both of whom he instructed in oratory, and the former in ethics. To express his gratitude, Marcus Aurelius erected a column in honour of him, and in his *Meditations* also makes honourable mention of the instructions he received from him. Till lately we had none of his works, except some fragments of a grammatical character which are found in the collection of Putsch. All the rest were supposed to have been lost, till in 1815 Angelo Maio, librarian of the Ambrose library at Milan, found several of his works, and first published them. These were, a book of letters in Latin to the emperor Antoninus Pius; two books of letters to the emperor Lucius Verus; letters to his friends; two books of instructions in eloquence, addressed to Marcus Antoninus; some fragments of orations; a long letter of condolence to Marcus Aurelius, on the occasion of his defeat in the Parthian war; two humorous pieces, &c. The first edition of these works, which appeared at Milan in 1815, and is by no means satisfactory, was followed by an impression at Frankfurt in 1816, and by a critical edition by Niebuhr in 1816, with illustrations by Buttman and Heindorf.

**FRUGONI, CARLO INNOCENZO**, a celebrated and prolific poet, who was born at Genoa in 1692, and was obliged to renounce his patrimonial inheritance in favour of his two elder brothers, and to embrace the ecclesiastical profession. He entered in 1707 the congregation of the brothers of Somasquo. The quickness of his genius and the vivacity of his imagination enabled him to make rapid progress in the sciences and in belles-lettres; and when in 1716 he began to teach rhetoric at Brescia, he had already attained the reputation of an elegant writer, in prose and verse, both in the Latin and Italian languages. He there founded an Arcadian colony, as it was called, in which he bore the name of *Comante Eginetico*. But it was in Rome that his genius, excited by the grandeur of surrounding objects, and by the example of the poets assembled there, first fully developed itself. From 1719 he instructed (first at Genoa and afterwards at Bologna) the young ecclesiastics of his order. In Modena he caught the smallpox, and, during his convalescence, finished the Italian translation of the "*Rhadamiste*" of Crébillon. By the patronage of Cardinal Bentivoglio, he found an honourable retreat at the court of Parma, but was here obliged to tax his muse for occasional poems for banquets and other occasions. At the marriage of Duke Antonio Farnese, Frugoni made an entire collection of his poems, and at the same time he wrote the "*Memoirs of the House of Farnese*." They appeared in 1729, and the title of royal historian was his recompense.

His monastic vows now became burdensome to him, and after much solicitation he was freed from them by Benedict XIV. His great canzone, on the taking of Oran by the Spanish troops under the command of Count Montemar, and other poems which he addressed at the same time to Philip V.



and the queen of Spain, met with great success. The war which had broken out in Italy between Spain and Austria furnished him with the subject of many excellent poems, but often placed him in difficult situations. He had recourse to his talent for burlesque and satiric poetry. He composed a number of poems of this kind; among others the tenth canto of that singular poem, "Bertoldo, Bertoldino e Cacasenno," upon which twenty poets laboured. After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle he returned again to the court of Parma, and gave himself up more freely to his inclination for poetry. He enriched the Italian theatre with the translation of several French operas, but he had to struggle against the attacks of criticism. He thus lived until 1768 a life of continual change. Few Italian poets have obtained so great a reputation during their life, or have been equally celebrated after their death. Frugoni's poems are sometimes bombastic, but the greater part of them are rich in excellent thoughts and truly beautiful images.

FRY, JOHN, a bookseller, who resided for many years in the city of Bristol, and whose perfect acquaintance with early English literature entitled him to a high rank among the bibliographers of his day. In 1814 he published a work entitled "Bibliographical Memoranda." He also published "A Selection from the Poetical Works of Thomas Carew, with a Life of the Author," and the "Legends of Mary Queen of Scots, and other Ancient Poems, from the MSS. of the sixteenth century." Mr. Fry died on the 28th of June, 1822, in the thirtieth year of his age.

FUENTES, DON PEDRO HENRIQUEZ D' AZEVEDO, COUNT OF, a distinguished general and a statesman, who was born at Valladolid in 1560. He served his first campaign in Portugal under the duke of Alva, and in 1580, when the duke subjected that kingdom to Philip II., the courage and prudence of Fuentes gained the confidence of the general, who gave him a company of lancers. He gained equal distinction in the campaigns in the Low Countries under the great Alexander Farnese, and he was afterwards sent on important embassies to different courts. In the reign of Philip III., he was made governor of Milan, and rendered himself formidable to the Italian princes and republics by causing them to feel the superiority of the Spanish power. In 1603 he erected a fortress on a rock at the influx of the Adda into lake Como, on the borders of the Valteline, called by his name, which became an object of great jealousy to the Grisons.

In the war with France in 1635, so unfortunate for Spain, Fuentes again appeared upon the stage. Spain wished to take advantage of the death of Louis XIII., and the minority of his successor, and in 1643 sent Fuentes, then at the age of eighty-two, with an army into Champagne. He laid siege to Rocroy; but the young and brave duke d'Enghien, afterwards the great Condé, attacked the besiegers, with inferior forces, and fell, with his cavalry, upon the Spanish infantry, so renowned from the time of Charles V., and till then considered invincible, and destroyed nearly the whole army. Fuentes, severely afflicted with the gout, caused himself to be carried in a chair into the midst of the fight, and there fell on the 19th of May, 1643.

FUGER, FREDERIC HENRY, a celebrated director of the imperial picture-gallery in the Belvedere

at Vienna, was born at Heilbronn in 1751, where his father was a clergyman. He was extremely fond of drawing, even while at school, and at the age of eleven he painted miniatures without assistance; and the sight of Audran's Battle of Alexander, after Lebrun, the lives of great artists, and his passion for historical reading, determined him to paint historical subjects. In 1774 he went to Vienna, and was sent as a pensioner to Rome by the empress Maria Theresa. After a diligent study of seven years in that place, he went in 1782 to Naples, where the imperial ambassador, Count Von Lamberg, received him for two years into his house, during which time he had an opportunity of showing to the world his extraordinary talents by three large fresco paintings in the hall of the German library of the queen, at Caserta (although he had never attempted this style before), and by an excellent likeness of the queen. He was in 1784 appointed vice-director of the school of painting and sculpture at Vienna. One of the last and most beautiful of Fuger's works is his John in the Wilderness, painted for the imperial chapel in 1804, for which he received 1000 ducats. Fuger died at Vienna in November 1818.

FUGGER FAMILY.—The founder of this family was John Fugger, a weaver in the village of Graben or Goggingen, not far from Augsburg. His eldest son, John, likewise a weaver, obtained by marriage the rights of a citizen of Augsburg, and carried on a linen trade in that city, then an important commercial place. He was one of the twelve weavers who sat in the council. He died in 1409. His eldest son, Andrew, acquired such great wealth that he was called the rich Fugger. His line became extinct in 1583. John's second son, James, was the first Fugger who owned a house in Augsburg, and he was also a weaver, but carried on a very extensive commerce. Three of his sons, Ulrich, George, and James, extended their business, and laid the foundation for the greatness of their family. They married ladies of noble families, and were raised to the rank of nobles by the emperor Maximilian. The Fuggers rendered great services to the house of Austria, and Maximilian, who was often in want of money, always found them ready to assist him. For 70,000 gold florins he pledged to them the county of Kirchberg and the lordship of Weissenhorn for ten years, and, on eight weeks' notice, they raised 170,000 ducats for the pope Julius II., who, in connexion with the kings of France and Spain, was then assisting the emperor Maximilian to carry on war against Venice. James attended to mining. He farmed the mines of Schwatz in the Tyrol, and became immensely rich. He built the magnificent castle of Fuggerau in the Tyrol, and died in 1503, and so high did he rank that the emperor Maximilian attended his funeral in person.

The Fuggers continued to work these mines and others in Hungary, Carniola, and Carinthia, and thus obtained great riches. Ulrich Fugger's sons had died without heirs; James had left no children, and thus all the wealth and dignities of the whole family had fallen to George, who had two sons, Raimond and Antony. When the emperor Charles V. held the memorable diet of Augsburg in 1530 he lived for a year and a day in Antony Fugger's splendid house near the wine market. Antony had free access to the proud Spaniard, since his family often supplied the deficiencies of the imperial coffers, and the emperor relied much upon their assistance, particularly at

the time of his expedition to Tunis in 1535. The emperor raised him and his brother Raimond to the dignity of counts and bannerets. He also invested them with the estates of Kirchberg and Weissenhorn, which had been mortgaged to them, granted them a seat among the counts at the imperial diet, and letters giving them princely privileges.

Hardly five years after he gave them the right of striking gold and silver coins, which they exercised five times. Antony left at his death 6,000,000 gold crowns, besides jewels and other valuable property, and possessions in all parts of Europe and both Indies. It was of him that the emperor Charles, when viewing the royal treasure at Paris, exclaimed, "There is at Augsburg a linen weaver who could pay as much as this with his own gold." "This noble family," says the "Mirror of Honour," "contained in five branches forty-seven counts and countesses, and, including the other members, young and old, about as many persons as the year has days." Even while counts, they continued their commerce; and their wealth became such, that in ninety-four years they bought real estates to the amount of 941,000 florins, and in 1762 owned two counties, six lordships, and fifty-seven other estates, besides their houses and lands in and around Augsburg. The first and highest places of the empire were held by them, and several princely families thought themselves honoured by their alliance. They had collections of rich treasures of art and rare books. Painters and musicians were supported, and the arts and sciences were liberally patronised by them. Their houses and their gardens exhibited the masterpieces of the architecture and taste of those times, and they entertained their guests with regal magnificence. When Charles V., after his campaign to Tunis, paid a visit to Count Antony, the latter kindled a fire of cinnamon wood in his hall with the emperor's bond, given him for an immense sum.

While we record the industry, the prudence, the honours, and the influence of the Fugger family, we must not forget their benevolence, their charity, and their zeal to do good, and to relieve the distressed and needy. We cannot enumerate all the hospitals, schools, and charitable institutions of every kind, which they founded. At the reformation the family took an active part in favour of the Catholic religion, and contributed much to its support. The family was divided into two lines, that of Raimond and that of Antony. Each one has been subdivided into several branches, but they all style themselves Counts of Kirchberg and Weissenhorn.

FULLER, ANDREW, a dissenting minister, who was born in 1754, and, having completed his education, he was invited to become the pastor of a congregation at Soham, where he settled for several years. He afterwards removed to Kettering, and while there wrote and published his celebrated "Treatise on Faith." He was also the author of several other theological works of merit. Mr. Fuller died in 1815.

FULLER, THOMAS, an eminent historian and divine of the church of England, who lived in the seventeenth century. He was born at Aldwinkle in Northamptonshire, of which parish his father was minister, and was sent to Queen's College, Cambridge, and greatly signalized himself by his application to study. He removed to Sidney College in the same university; and being chosen minister of St. Bennet's parish, Cambridge, he became very popular as a pul-

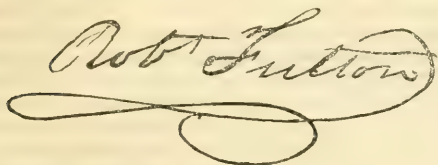
pit orator. In 1631 he obtained a fellowship at Sidney, and was collated to a prebend in the cathedral of Salisbury. The same year he published a poem entitled "David's Hainous Sin, Heartie Repentance, and Heavie Punishment," which was his first production. His "History of the Holy War" first appeared in 1640, soon after the publication of which he removed to London, and was chosen lecturer at the Savoy church in the Strand. He was a member of the convocation which met in 1640, and was one of the select committee appointed to draw up new canons for the better government of the church.

In 1643 he went to Oxford, and joined the king, became chaplain to Sir Ralph Hopton, and employed his leisure in making collections relative to English history and antiquities. In 1650 he published "A Pisgah Sight of Palestine and the Confinies thereof, with the History of the Old and New Testament acted thereon," with maps and views; and in 1650 appeared his "Abel Redivivus," consisting of lives of religious reformers, martyrs, divines, &c. In 1656 he published the "Church History of Britain, from the Birth of Jesus Christ to the year 1648;" to which was subjoined the History of the University of Cambridge since the Conquest, and the History of Waltham Abbey. In 1658 the living of Cranford in Middlesex was bestowed on him, and he removed thither, and at the Restoration was reinstated in his prebend of Salisbury. His death took place in August 1661. The year after his death was published his principal literary work, the "Worthies of England"—a production valuable alike for the solid information it affords relative to the provincial history of the country, and for the profusion of biographical anecdote and acute observation on men and manners. The great fault of this, as well as of the former compositions of Doctor Fuller, is an elaborate display of quaint conceit, owing, perhaps, more to the natural disposition of the author than to the taste of the age in which he wrote, when however that species of wit was much admired.

FULTON, ROBERT, an eminent American, who was born in 1767. He was originally intended for a jeweller, which business he relinquished to become a painter, and came to England to study under his countryman West, with whom he continued for several years. He afterwards went into Devonshire, where he became acquainted with a good practical mechanic of the name of Rumsey, who induced him to adopt the profession of a civil engineer. While in England he published a treatise "On the Improvement of Inland Navigation," in which he proposed to supersede the use of locks on navigable canals. In 1800 Mr. Fulton, in concert with Joel Barlow, introduced panoramas into Paris, for which he obtained a patent, and while in France formed a plan of submarine navigation, which was not however adopted. He then returned to his native country and employed himself in the improvement of steam-navigation, of which he claimed the invention; and it is said that vexation at being denied the credit of the discovery, and being prevented from deriving the whole benefit of it, preyed on his mind and hastened his death, which took place in February 1815. In person Mr. Fulton was about six feet high, slender but well proportioned, with large dark eyes and a projecting brow. His manners were easy and unaffected. His temper was mild and his disposition lively. He was fond of society. He expressed him-



self with energy, fluency, and correctness; and as he owed more to experience and reflection than to books, his sentiments were often interesting from their originality. In all his domestic and social relations he was zealous, kind, generous, liberal, and affectionate. He knew of no use for money but as it was subservient to charity, hospitality, and the sciences. But what was most conspicuous in his character was his calm constancy, his industry, and that indefatigable patience and perseverance which always enabled him to overcome difficulties.



FUNES, GREGORIO, a patriot of La Plata, who is extensively known by his "Ensayo de la Historia Civil del Paraguay, Buenos Ayres, y Tucuman," published at Buenos Ayres in 1817. Doctor Funes was then dean of the cathedral church of Cordova, and had been actively engaged in the cause of the revolution from its commencement. He became member of a junta assembled at Cordova, which, under the instigation of Liniers, resisted the progress of the revolution, notwithstanding the opposition of the dean to the views of a majority of his colleagues. In 1810 he was sent as a deputy from Cordova to the congress at Buenos Ayres; and on various occasions between that and the time of his death appeared prominent in the political affairs of his country. His brother, Anthonio Funes, has acted a still more distinguished part, having lost a large fortune and two promising sons in the contest, and signalized himself as governor of Cordova. Doctor Funes appeared as chairman of the committee of congress on constitutional affairs, which in June 1826 presented their celebrated report, recommending the adoption of the central form of government for the republic. This report is elaborate and specious, and exhibits a plausible if not a conclusive view of that side of the question which it advocates. Doctor Funes died in Buenos Ayres, at a very advanced age, on the 11th of January, 1829. His "Essay on the History of Paraguay, Buenos Ayres, and Tucuman," is a valuable work, compiled from the best materials, including many unpublished manuscripts, and adds greatly to our stock of information upon the subject of which it treats.

FUNK, GODFREY BENEDICT.—This learned individual was born at Hartenstein, in the county of Schönburg, in 1734; and his education till his thirteenth year was conducted in his father's house. He was destined for the church; but the responsibilities of the profession appeared to him too great, and in 1755 he began the study of the law at Leipsic by the advice of Cramer; but in the following year Cramer, then court minister at Copenhagen, invited him into his house as a tutor to his children. Funk remained with him thirteen years, during which period he became intimately acquainted with some of the most distinguished men of the day, among whom was Klopstock. In 1769 he was appointed teacher at the royal school in Magdeburg, of which he became rector in 1772, and retained this office

forty years. Funk was one of the best of teachers, taking the word in its widest extent; and he devoted himself so entirely to his pupils that he declined the honour of the counsellorship of the consistory offered him by Frederic the Great, from fear that it would interfere with his studies. He died in June 1814. His pupils erected a monument to his memory, and his bust was placed in the cathedral. Funk published several school books, which are very popular in Germany.

FURLONG, THOMAS.—This eminent Irish poet was born in the county of Wexford, and was educated for the commercial profession. During his leisure hours he cultivated polite literature with the most indefatigable industry, and long before the expiration of his apprenticeship he had become a contributor to various periodical publications in London and Dublin. His devotion to poetry did not escape the censure of some of his friends; they rebuked the young bard; but he was not to be deterred from his favourite pursuit, and he wrote a "Vindication of Poetry," in the exordium to which he thus addresses one of these obtrusive friends:—

"Go! dotard, go! and if it suits thy mind,  
Range yonder rocks, and reason with the wind;  
Or, if its motions own another's will,  
Walk to the beach, and bid the waves be still;  
In newer orbits let the planets run,  
Or throw a cloud of darkness o'er the sun!  
A measured movement bid the comets keep,  
Or hush the music of the spheres to sleep!—  
These may obey thee, but the fiery soul  
Of genius owns not, brooks not thy control."

Shortly after he published a didactic poem, entitled the "Misanthrope," and contributed largely to the "New Monthly Magazine." In 1822 he projected the "New Irish Magazine," and in 1825, when the "Morning Register" was started, he was also the author of a number of clever parodies. At length Mr. Furlong commenced the translation of the songs of the celebrated Irish bard, Carolin, and we subjoin a few lines of the original of the far-famed song of "Molly Astore," as translated by Mr. Furlong. It is from the "Irish Minstrelsy":—

"Oh! Mary dear, bright peerless flower,  
Pride of the plains of Nair;  
Behold me droop, through each dull hour,  
In soul-consuming care.  
In friends, in wine, where joy was found,  
No joy I now can see;  
But still where pleasure reigns around,  
I sigh—and think of thee."

Mr. Furlong died early in 1827.

FUSELI, HENRY.—This distinguished Swiss artist was born in 1739, and was intended for the church. In order that he might be duly qualified for the sacred office to which he was destined, his father placed him in the Academical Gymnasium. Here he became a fellow-student in theology with the celebrated Lavater, with whom he formed a friendship that lasted until death, and that was then transferred to Lavater's son with unabated fervour. It was here also that he began to cultivate a knowledge of the English language, in which he soon became so great a proficient as to read Shakspeare with ease, and to translate "Macbeth" into German. He subsequently translated Lady Mary Wortley Montagu's letters into German. About this period an event occurred which proved that the characteristic energy of his mind was already powerfully developing itself. Fuseli and Lavater had heard much of the acts of injustice committed by a ruling magistrate in one of the bailiwicks of Zurich. But although the com-

plaints of his conduct became daily louder, and his guilt more evident, yet it seemed difficult to obtain redress, as the burgomaster of Zurich was his father-in-law. Fuseli and his friend first addressed an anonymous letter to the unjust magistrate, containing a list of his offences, and threatening a public accusation unless he gave immediate satisfaction to those whom he had plundered. No notice having been taken of this letter, the two friends made their complaint public in a pamphlet entitled "The Unjust Magistrate, or the Complaint of a Patriot," which was printed and introduced into the houses of the principal members of the government. The business was at length taken up by the council at Zurich, a rigorous inquiry was instituted, and the authors of the complaint were called upon to make themselves known. Lavater and Fuseli immediately stepped forward and boldly avowed what they had written. The magistrate, however, did not await the issue of the enquiry, but absconded.

Accompanied by his friend Lavater, Fuseli afterwards repaired to Vienna, and then to Berlin, where they both placed themselves under the instructions of the learned professor Sulzer, the author of a celebrated "Lexicon of the Fine Arts." The ready and apprehensive talent which Fuseli discovered, and the intimate acquaintance that he had acquired with the English language, induced Sulzer to select him as a person admirably qualified for the prosecution of a design which he and other learned men had formed of opening a channel of communication between the literati of Germany and that of England. Added to his peculiar fitness for the undertaking, young Fuseli, who, constant to his early attachment, derived from his pencil all the amusement of his leisure, had made several drawings—among the rest *Macbeth*, and *Lear and Cordelia*—for Sir Robert Smith, the English ambassador at the Prussian court; who, pleased with his genius, treated him with marked kindness, and strongly recommended him to visit England.

Mr. Fuseli was well received in this country, and among the men of genius and talents to whom he was introduced upon his arrival in London was Sir Joshua Reynolds. On showing several of his drawings to Sir Joshua, that profound judge of the art enquired how long he had been returned from Italy, and expressed great surprise at hearing that he had never before been out of Switzerland. The president would occasionally beg from him some of his little sketches, and was so much struck at the conception and power displayed in these efforts, that at last he could not refrain from saying, "Young man, were I the author of those drawings, and were offered ten thousand a year not to practise as an artist, I would reject the proposal with contempt." This unequivocal opinion, proceeding from such a quarter, at a moment when Fuseli was balancing with respect to his future career, decided it. He had been offered a living if he would take orders, but he now determined to devote his whole life to painting.

The state of the arts in England, at the period to which we are now adverting, was such that no young historical painter could enjoy the means of beneficial study. Fully aware of the necessity of having recourse to the fountains of excellence in the arduous profession which he had undertaken, Mr. Fuseli resolved to go to Italy. Accordingly in the year 1770, accompanied by his friend Armstrong, he embarked

for Leghorn. The vessel was however driven ashore at Genoa, and thence the travellers proceeded to Rome.

While in Italy Mr. Fuseli of course became acquainted with all the Englishmen of rank and talent who visited that country; among the rest with Lord Rivers, who was his warm friend through life. Mr. Fuseli, after a residence abroad of above eight years, again turned his thoughts to England, whither the invitations of men well known for their love of the arts forcibly attracted him. He left Italy in 1778. He first went to Zurich, where he remained for six months with his family, and thence proceeded to England in the year 1779. On his arrival he found himself without a rival as a connoisseur in art, and he soon distinguished himself by his own productions. It appears by the list of pictures sent by Mr. Fuseli to the exhibitions of the Royal Academy that several of his works appeared in the exhibitions of the years 1780 and 1781. But the first picture which brought him into great public notice was the *Nightmare*, which was exhibited in 1782. The extraordinary and peculiar genius which it evinced was universally felt, and perhaps no single picture ever made a greater impression in this country. A very fine mezzotinto engraving of it was scraped by John Raphael Smith, and so popular did the print become, that although Mr. Fuseli received only twenty guineas for the picture, the publisher made five hundred by his speculation.

In 1799 Mr. Fuseli was appointed professor of painting to the Royal Academy. He immediately began the composition of three lectures, his professional avocations not permitting him to prepare more at that time; which lectures—the first on ancient art, the second on modern art, and the third on invention—were delivered with great effect at Somerset House in March 1801, and were published in the course of the same year, with a dedication to William Lock, Esq., of Norbury Park, Surrey. He held this office until the year 1804, when Mr. Fuseli, on the death of Mr. Wilton, was appointed keeper of the Royal Academy, and there being a standing order of the institution that no member should enjoy two offices in it at the same time, he resigned the professorship.

During his long life Mr. Fuseli generally enjoyed excellent health. His only complaint was an occasional tendency to water in the chest, which he always removed by the use of digitalis. "I have been a very happy man," he was accustomed to say, "for I have been always well, and always employed in doing what I liked." At the time of his death he was on a visit to the countess of Guildford at Putney Hill. On the Sunday preceeding the fatal event, he was engaged to dine with his early, admired, and admiring friend, Mr. Rogers the poet, to meet Sir Thomas Lawrence and his attached friend and half-pupil Mr. W. Young Otley; but, having taken a short walk in the garden at Putney Hill, and feeling himself a little indisposed, Lady Guildford persuaded him to send an apology, which he rather reluctantly did. His illness, if it might be so called, for he had no particular disorder, lasted only five days. He was attended by Sir Alexander Crichton and Dr. Holland, but nature was evidently giving way, and all medical skill proved unavailing. To the last he retained the perfect possession of his faculties, and his mind was as vigorous and alert as at any former period of his life. On Mr. Knowles, who had been



his daily visitor from the commencement of his indisposition, calling to see him the evening previous to his decease, Mr. Fuseli said to him, "My friend, I am going to that bourne whence no traveller returns." It being the period of the year at which the annual exhibition of the Royal Academy is always in active preparation, Sir Thomas Lawrence was at the time peculiarly engaged at Somerset House, but he nevertheless contrived to pay those kind attentions to his dying friend, the value of which at such a moment it is impossible adequately to appreciate. Mr. Fuseli expired without pain on the 16th of April, 1825.

Of Mr. Fuseli's knowledge of the history and principles of his art, and of the energetic and comprehensive manner in which he was accustomed to communicate that knowledge to the students of the Royal Academy, they only can adequately judge who were so fortunate as to be his auditors; but the following introduction to his last series of lectures may convey to others some idea of the extent of his learning, and of the power of his English style of composition.

Mr. Fuseli commences by observing that "It cannot be considered as superfluous or assuming to present the reader with a succinct characteristic sketch of the principal technic instruction, ancient and modern, which we possess; I say a sketch, for an elaborate and methodical survey, or a plan well digested and strictly followed, would demand a volume. These observations, less written for the man of letters and cultivated taste than for the student who wishes to inform himself of the history and progress of his art, are to direct him to the sources from which my principles are deduced, to enable him, by comparing my authors with myself, to judge how far the theory which I deliver may be depended upon as genuine, or ought to be rejected as erroneous or false. The works or fragments of works which we possess are either purely elementary, critically historical, biographic, or mixed up of all three. On the books purely elementary, the van of which is led by Leonardo da Vinci and Albert Durer, and the rear by Gherard Lairese, as the principles which they detail must be supposed to be already in the student's possession, or are occasionally interwoven with the topics of the lectures, I shall not expatiate, but immediately proceed to the historically critical writers, who consist of all the ancients yet remaining, Pausanias excepted.

"We may thank destiny that in the general wreck of ancient art a sufficient number of entire and mutilated monuments have escaped the savage rage of barbarous conquest, and the still more savage hand of superstition, not only to prove that the principles which we deliver formed the body of ancient art, but to furnish us with their standard of style. For if we had nothing to rely on to prove its existence than the historic and critical information left us, such is the chaos of assertion and contradiction, such the chronologic confusion and dissonance of dates, that nothing short of a miracle could guide us through the labyrinth, and the whole would assume a fabulous aspect. Add to this the occupation and character of the writers, not one of them a professional man. For the rules of Parrhasius, the volumes of Pamphilus, Apelles, Metrodorus, all irrecoverably lost, we must rely on the hasty compilations of a warrior, or the incidental remarks of an orator, Pliny and Quintilian.

Pliny, authoritative in his verdicts, a Roman in decision, was rather desirous of knowing much than of knowing well; the other, though, as appears, a man of exquisite taste, was too much occupied by his own art to allow ours more than a rapid glance. In Pliny it is necessary, and for an artist not very difficult, to distinguish when he speaks from himself, and when he delivers an extract, however short; whenever he does the first, he is seldom able to separate the kernel from the husk; he is credulous, irrelevant, ludicrous. The Jupiter of Phidias, the Doryphorus of Polyclethus, the Aphrodite of Praxiteles, the Demos of Parrhasius, the Venus of Apelles, provoke his admiration in no greater degree than the cord drawn over the horns and muzzle of the bull in the group of Amphion, Zetus, and Antiopa; the spires and winding of the serpent in that of the Laocoon; the effect of the foam from the sponge of Protagenes, the partridge in his Jalyus, the grapes that imposed on the birds, and the curtain which deceived Zeuxis. Such is Pliny when he speaks from himself, or perhaps from the hints of some dilettante; but when he delivers an extract, his information is not only essential and important, but expressed by the most appropriate words. Such is his account of the glazing method of Apelles, in which, as Reynolds has observed, he speaks the language of an artist; such is what he says of the matter in which Protagenes embodied his colours, though it may require the practice of an artist to penetrate his meaning. No sculptor could describe better in many words than he does in one, the manœuvre by which Nicias gave the decided line of correctness to the models of Praxiteles; the word *circumbitio*, shaping, rounding the moist clay with the finger, is evidently a term of art. Thus when he describes the method of Pausias, who, in painting a sacrifice, foreshortened the bull, and threw his shade on part of the surrounding crowd, he throws before us the depth of the scenery and its forcible chiaro-scuro; nor is he less happy, at least in my opinion, when he translates the deep aphorism by which Eupompus directed Lysippus to recur to nature, and animate the rigid form with the air of life.

"In his dates he seldom errs, and sometimes adjusts or corrects the errors of Greek chronology, though not with equal attention; for, whilst he exposes the impropriety of ascribing to Polyclethus a statue of Hephestion, the friend of Alexander, who lived a century after him, he thinks it worth his while to repeat that Erynnæ, the contemporary of Sappho, who lived nearly as many years before him, celebrated in her poems a work of his friend and fellow-scholar, Myron of Eleutherae. His text is at the same time so deplorably mutilated that it often defies conjecture and interpretation. Still, from what is genuine, it must be confessed that he condenses in a few chapters the contents of volumes, and fills the whole atmosphere of art. Whatever he tells, whether the most puerile legend or the best attested fact, he tells with dignity.

"Of Quintilian, whose information is all relative to style, the tenth chapter of the twelfth book, passage on expression in the eleventh, and scattered fragments of observations analogous to the process of his own art, is all that we possess; but what he says, though comparatively small in bulk with what we have of Pliny, leaves us to wish for more. His review of the revolutions of style in painting, from



Polygnotus to Apelles, and in sculpture from Phidias to Lysippus, is succinct and rapid; but though so rapid and succinct, every word is poised by characteristic precision, and can only be the result of long and judicious enquiry, and, perhaps, even minute examination. His theory and taste savour neither of the antiquary nor the mere dilettante; he neither dwells on the infancy of art with doting fondness, nor melts its essential and solid principles in the crucibles of merely curious or voluptuous execution.

"Still less in volume, and still less intentional, are the short but important observations on the principles of art and the epochs of style scattered over nearly all the works of Cicero, but chiefly his "Orator and Rhetoric Institutions." Some of his introductions to these books might furnish the classic scenery of Poussin with figures; and though he seems to have had as little native taste for painting and sculpture, and even less than he had taste for poetry, he had a conception of nature; and, with his usual acumen, comparing the principles of one art with those of another, frequently scattered useful hints, or made pertinent observations. For many of these he might probably be indebted to Hortensius, with whom, though his rival in eloquence, he lived on terms of familiarity, and who was a man of declared taste, and one of the first collectors of the time.

"Pausanias, the Cappadocian, was certainly no critic, and his credulity is at least equal to his curiosity; he is often little more than a nomenclator, and the indiscriminate chronicler of legitimate tradition and legendary trash; but the minute and scrupulous diligence with which he examined what fell under his own eye, amply makes up for what he may want of method or of judgment. His description of the pictures of Polygnotus at Delphi, and of the Jupiter of Phidias at Olympia, are perhaps superior to all that might have been given by men of more assuming powers—mines of information, and inestimable legacies to our arts. The Heroics of the elder, and the Eicones, or Picture Galleries, of the elder and younger Philostratus, though, perhaps, not expressly written for the artist, and rather to amuse than to instruct, cannot be sufficiently consulted by the epic or dramatic artist. The Heroics furnish the standard of form and habits for the Grecian and Troic warriors, from Protesilaus to Paris and Euphorbus; and he who wishes to acquaint himself with the limits the ancients prescribed to invention, and the latitude they allowed to expression, will find no better guide than an attentive survey of the subjects displayed in their galleries."

FUX, JOHN JOSEPH, a celebrated contrapuntist and composer of sacred and theatrical music during the reigns of the emperors Leopold I., Joseph I., and Charles VI. He was born in Stiria about the year 1660. Charles VI. esteemed him so much as to cause him when an old man to be carried on a litter from Vienna to Prague in 1723 to superintend an opera at the coronation festival. Fux had great influence on the musical taste of his time by his compositions; and his sacred music is still esteemed, particularly a *missa canonica*, which was published in Leipsic.

FYT, JOHN, a Dutch painter, born at Antwerp in 1625. His subjects were chiefly game, beasts, birds, fruits, flowers, and bass-reliefs. He painted much with Rubens, James Jordaens, and Willebort; and his pencil was so prolific that almost every im-

portant collection of paintings has some of his productions. His drawing is highly natural, and yet elegant; his colouring, glowing and vigorous; the colours, especially in the light, laid on richly. He was also distinguished for skill in the art of etching. He published in 1642 two series of representations of animals. The time of his death is not accurately known.

GABLER, JOHN PHILIP, a classical scholar, who was born in 1753, at Frankfort on the Maine, where his father was actuary. After having become acquainted with the ancient languages and classical literature, with Wolf's philosophy and Baumgarten's theology, he entered the university of Jena in 1772. In 1783 he was made professor of philosophy in the gymnasium at Dortmund, and two years after he received a professorship in Altdorf. In 1804 he was appointed professor of theology at Jena, where in 1812, after the death of Griesbach, he came into the office of first theological lecturer, and died in February 1826. In his writings, which are principally devoted to the criticism and explanation of the New Testament, he showed himself an acute reasoner and a profound scholar, free from prejudice, every where following his convictions; as, for instance, in his "System of Hermeneutics of the New Testament." The "Theological Journal," which he published originally with Hanlein, Ammon, and Paul, but subsequently alone, contained, from 1796 to 1811, a series of valuable essays of the most distinguished writers in the theological department. His programmas and dissertations are mostly of an earlier period.

GABRIELLI, CATHERINE, a very eminent Italian vocalist, who was born at Rome in 1730. She was a pupil of Porpora and Metastasio, and was famed for her astonishing musical powers. Of this extraordinary woman, Brydone thus speaks in his "Tour through Sicily and Malta;" and as it is the only account that has been preserved of her vocal powers when in their zenith, we gladly avail ourselves of a few details:—"The first woman is Gabrielli, who is certainly the greatest singer in the world; and those that sing on the same theatre with her must be capital, otherwise they never can be attended to. This indeed has been the fate of all the performers, except Pacherotti, and he too gave himself up for lost on hearing her performance. It happened to be an air of execution exactly adapted to her voice, in which she exerted herself in so astonishing a manner, that before it was half done poor Pacherotti burst out a-crying, and ran in behind the scenes, lamenting that he had dared to appear on the same stage with so wonderful a singer, where his small talents must not only be lost, but where he must ever be accused of presumption, which he hoped was foreign to his character. It was with some difficulty they could prevail on him to appear again; but from an applause well merited, both from his talents and his modesty, he soon began to pluck up a little courage; and in the singing of a tender air addressed to Gabrielli in the character of a lover, even she herself, as well as the audience, is said to have been moved. The performance of Gabrielli is so generally known and admired, that it is needless to say any thing to you on that subject. Her wonderful execution and volubility of voice have long been the admiration of Italy, and has even obliged them to invent a new term to express it; and would she exert herself as much to please as to astonish, she might almost perform the wonders that have been ascribed to Orpheus and Ti-



motheus; but it happens, luckily perhaps for the repose of mankind, that her caprice is, if possible, even greater than her talents, and has made her still more contemptible than these have made her celebrated. By this means her character has often proved a sufficient antidote both to the charms of her voice and those of her person, which are indeed almost equally powerful; but if these had been united to the qualities of a modest and an amiable mind, she must have made dreadful havoc in the world. However, with all her faults she is certainly the most dangerous siren of modern times, and has made more conquests I suppose than any one woman breathing. It is but justice to add, that, contrary to the generality of her profession, she is by no means selfish or mercenary, but on the contrary has given many singular proofs of generosity or disinterestedness. She is very rich from the bounty, as is supposed, of the last emperor, who was fond of having her at Vienna; but she was at last banished that city, as she has likewise been most of those in Italy, from the broils and squabbles that her intriguing spirit, perhaps still more than her beauty, had excited.

"There are a great many anecdotes concerning her that would not make an unentertaining volume. Although she is considerably upwards of thirty, on the stage she scarcely appears to be eighteen; and this art of appearing young is none of the most contemptible she possesses. When she is in good humour and really chooses to exert herself, there is nothing in music I have ever heard to be compared to her performance, for she sings to the heart as well as to the fancy when she pleases, and she then commands every passion with unbounded sway. But she is seldom capable of exercising these wonderful powers; and her caprice and her talents exerting themselves by turns, have given her all her life the singular fate of becoming alternately an object of admiration and contempt. Her powers in acting and reciting are scarcely inferior to those of her singing; sometimes a few words in the recitative, with a simple accompaniment only, produce an effect that I have never been sensible of from any other performer, and inclines me to believe what Rousseau advances on this branch of music, which with us is so much despised. She owes much of her merit to the instruction she received from Metastasio, particularly in acting and reciting; and he allows that she does more justice to his operas than any other actress that ever attempted them. Her caprice is so fixed and stubborn that neither interest, nor flattery, nor threats, nor punishments, have the least power over it; and it appears that treating her with respect or contempt has an equal tendency to increase it. It is seldom that she condescends to exert these wonderful talents; but most particularly if she imagines that such an exertion is expected. And instead of singing her airs as other actresses do, for the most part she only hums them over, *a mezza voce*; and no art whatever is capable of making her sing when she does not choose it. The viceroy, who is fond of music, has tried every method with her to no purpose. Some time ago he gave a great dinner to the principal nobility of Palermo, and sent an invitation to Gabrielli to be of the party. Every other person arrived at the hour of invitation. The viceroy ordered dinner to be put back, and sent to let her know that the company waited her. The messenger found her reading in bed. She said she was sorry for having made the

company wait, and begged he would make her apology, but that really she had entirely forgot her engagement. The viceroy would have forgiven this piece of insolence, but when the company came to the opera, Gabrielli repeated her part with the most perfect negligence and indifference, and sung all her airs in what they call *sotto voce*, that is, so low that they can scarcely be heard. The viceroy was offended; but as he is a good-tempered man he was loth to make use of authority: but at last, by a perseverance in this insolent stubbornness, she obliged him to threaten her with punishment in case she any longer refused to sing. On this she grew more obstinate than ever, declaring that force and authority should never succeed with her,—that he might make her cry, but that he never could make her sing. The viceroy then sent her to prison, where she remained twelve days; during which time she gave magnificent entertainments every day, paid the debts of all the poor prisoners, and distributed large sums in charity. The viceroy was obliged to give up struggling with her, and she was at last set at liberty amidst the acclamations of the poor. Luckily for us, she is at present in good humour, and sometimes exerts herself to the utmost of her power. She says she has several times been on terms with the managers of our opera, but thinks she shall never be able to pluck up resolution enough to go to England. What do you think is her reason? It is by no means a bad one. She says she cannot command her caprice, but for the most part that it commands her; and that there she could have no opportunity of indulging it. 'For,' says she, 'were I to take it into my head not to sing, I am told the people there would certainly mob me, and perhaps break my bones; now I like to sleep in a sound skin, although it should even be in a prison.' She alleges too, that it is not always caprice that prevents her from singing, but that it often depends upon physical causes. And this indeed I can readily believe; for that wonderful flexibility of voice that runs with such rapidity and neatness through the most minute divisions, and produces almost instantaneously so great a variety of modulation, must surely depend on the very nicest tones of the fibres. And if these are in the smallest degree relaxed, or their elasticity diminished, how is it possible that their contractions and expansions can so readily obey the will as to produce these effects? The opening of the glottis which forms the voice is extremely small, and in every variety of tone its diameter must suffer a sensible change, for the same diameter must ever produce the same tone. So wonderfully minute are its contractions and dilations, that Dr. Keil I think computes that in some voices its opening, not more than the tenth of an inch, is divided into upwards of 1200 parts, the different sound of every one of which is perceptible to an exact ear. Now what a nice tension of fibres must this require! I should imagine even the most minute change in the air must cause a sensible difference, and that in our foggy climate the fibres would be in danger of losing this wonderful sensibility, or at least that they would very often be put out of tune. It is not the same case with an ordinary voice, where the variety of divisions run through, and the volubility with which they are executed, bear no proportion to those of a Gabrielli."

Gabrielli, nevertheless, came to England in the season of 1775-1776, and Dr. Burney, amongst other more minute particulars, speaks of her as follows:



"Caterina Gabrielli was called early in life La Cuachetina, being the daughter of a cardinal's cook at Rome. She had however no indications of low birth in her countenance or deportment, which had all the grace and dignity of a Roman matron. Her reputation was so great before her arrival in England, for singing and caprice, that the public expecting perhaps too much of both, was unwilling to allow her due praise in her performance, and too liberal in ascribing every thing she said to pride and insolence. It having been reported that she often feigned sickness, and sung ill when she was able to sing well, few were willing to allow she *could* be sick, or that she ever sung her best while she was here. Her voice, though of an exquisite quality, was not very powerful. As an actress, though of low stature, there were such grace and dignity in her gestures and deportment as caught every unprejudiced eye; indeed she filled the stage and occupied the attention of the spectators so much that they could look at nothing else while she was in view. Her freaks and *espègle-ries*, which had fixed her reputation, seem to have been very much subdued before her arrival in England. In conversation she seemed the most intelligent and best bred virtuosa with whom I had ever conversed, not only on the subject of music, but on every subject concerning which a well-educated female, who had seen the world, might reasonably be expected to have obtained information. She had been three years in Russia previous to her arrival in England, during which time no peculiarities of individual characters, national manners, or court etiquette, had escaped her observation. In youth her beauty and caprice had occasioned a universal delirium among her young countrymen, and there were still remains of both sufficiently powerful, while she was in England, to render credible their former influence."

The period of Gabrielli's death is uncertain; but she retained her vocal powers to extreme old age.

GADSDEN, CHRISTOPHER, lieutenant-governor of South Carolina, was born in the year 1724. In 1765 he was chosen one of the delegates from his colony to the congress which was convened at New York in October of that year, for the purpose of petitioning against the stamp act, and he was perhaps the first man in South Carolina who foresaw and foretold the views of the British government; and when the obnoxious act was repealed he did not, like most of his fellow-citizens, permit himself to be deceived by this measure, but continued to urge the impossibility of a reconciliation. In 1774 he was again chosen a member of congress, and received the thanks of the legislature of the province for his services, on his return two years afterwards. In 1780, some months subsequently to the capitulation of Charleston, during the whole of the siege of which he remained within the lines, he was taken out of his bed and transported to St. Augustine in a guardship, together with most of the civil and military officers, in violation of the rights of prisoners on parole. At St. Augustine he bore a rigorous confinement in the castle rather than accept the parole that was there offered to him, or, in his own words, enter into a new contract with men who had once deceived him. In 1782 he was elected governor of the state, but declined the office on the ground of being incapacitated by his age and infirmities from discharging its duties with the vigour which the

times required. He remained however in the assembly and council, where he strenuously opposed the law for confiscating the estates of the adherents of England, although he himself had suffered great losses of property amid the disturbances of the times. He died in September 1805 in the eighty-second year of his age.

GAGE, THOMAS, an officer of distinction in the British army, who was sent from this country to America as a lieutenant under General Braddock. He was present in the battle in which that general received his mortal wound, and, assisted by another officer, carried him from the field. In 1758 he held a colonel's commission, and was appointed governor of Montreal in 1760, and in 1763 succeeded General Amherst as commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. In 1774 he succeeded Hutchinson as governor of Massachusetts, and being furnished with several regiments to support his measures, soon began the course of illegal and oppressive acts which drew on the war of the revolution. In 1775 the provincial congress of Massachusetts declared him an enemy to the colony and released the inhabitants from all obligation to obey him. Not long after he returned to England, where he died in 1787.

GAGER, WILLIAM, a dramatic writer of the sixteenth century, who was the author of two Latin tragedies entitled "*Ulysses Redux*" and "*Meleager*," and a comedy called "*Rivales*." He also wrote a work against Dr. Reynolds respecting the lawfulness of theatrical amusements.

GAGERN, HANS CHRISTOPHER ERNST, BARON OF.—This distinguished political writer, orator, and statesman, was born in 1766. He went after the peace at Luneville to Paris, where he was one of the negotiators most distinguished by Talleyrand. He afterwards quitted the service, and went to Vienna. About this time he wrote a work distinguished for spirit and information, which appeared without his name—the "*Results of the History of Manners*." At Vienna in 1812 appeared the first volume in quarto of the "*National History of the Germans*"—a work that excited great attention. The second, improved edition, in octavo, appeared at Frankfurt on the Maine in 1823; and the second volume, extending to the dominion of the Franks, in 1826. In 1814 and 1815 he was employed in very important services by the house of Orange, and in 1815 he went to Paris to the congress, effected the augmentation of the new kingdom of the Netherlands, insisted in vain on the restoration of Alsace to Germany, and contributed to the restitution of the works of art to their former owners. He appeared, till 1818, in the meetings of the diet of German confederation, where he displayed much talent, independence, patriotism, and zeal for the welfare of Germany. He then went into retirement, and did not, during the remainder of his life, again enter the political world.

GAIL, JEAN BAPTISTE, a distinguished Greek scholar, who was born at Paris in 1755, and was made professor of the Greek language in the Collège de France in 1792. At that time appeared the first edition of his "*Idyls of Theocritus*." In 1809 he was received into the third class of the National Institute, and in 1814 Louis XVIII. conferred upon him the cross of the legion of honour, and appointed him in November of the same year superintendent of the Greek and Latin manuscripts in the royal library.



For several years he lectured publicly upon the Greek language and literature. His bold attacks upon facts generally admitted (particularly in his "*Recherches Historiques et Militaires sur la Géographie comparée par Epoque*," where he wished to strike from the charts the two ancient cities Delphi and Olympia, and give an entirely new view of the battles of Mantinea, Platea, and Marathon) exposed him to the censure of his colleagues. Three collections of Gail's editions of Greek writers, with Latin and French translations, have appeared. Among them are Thucydides, Xenophon, the three pastoral poets, several works of the Attic orators, of Lucian, some dialogues of Plato, Anacreon, &c.

GAINSBOROUGH, THOMAS, an English painter of great talent, who was born in 1727 at Sudbury in Suffolk. At the age of twelve he came to London, where he was placed under the care of Gravelot, and afterwards of Mr. Hayman, with whom however he remained but a short time. After quitting this master he resided in Hatton Garden, and practised painting of portraits. During his residence in London he married and then retired to Ipswich, and from thence to Bath, where he settled about 1758. In 1761, for the first time, he sent some of his works to the exhibition in London. About 1774 he quitted Bath, and settled in London in a part of the duke of Schomberg's house in Pall Mall. In this situation, possessed of ample fame, and in the acquisition of a plentiful fortune, he was disturbed by a complaint in his neck, which was not much noticed upon the first attack, nor was it apprehended to be more than a swelling in the glands of the throat, which it was expected would subside in a short time; but it was soon discovered to be a cancer, which baffled the skill of the first medical professors. Finding the danger of his situation, he settled his affairs, and composed himself to meet the fatal moment, and expired Aug. 2, 1788. He was buried, according to his own request, in Kew churchyard.

The style of this talented artist was very remarkable, and Sir Joshua Reynolds, in speaking of Gainsborough, says that his portraits were often little more than what generally attends a dead colour as to finishing or determining the form of the features; "but, as he was always attentive to the general effect, or whole together, I have often imagined (says he) that this unfinished manner contributed even to that striking resemblance for which his portraits are so remarkable. At the same time it must be acknowledged that there is one evil attending this mode,—that if the portrait were seen previously to any knowledge of the original, different persons would form different ideas; and all would be disappointed at not finding the original correspond with their own conceptions, under the great latitude which indistinctness gives to the imagination to assume almost what character or form it pleases."

In a lecture which Sir Joshua delivered at the Royal Academy soon after Gainsborough's death, he said of him, "that if ever this nation should produce genius sufficient to acquire to us the honourable distinction of an English school, the name of Gainsborough will be transmitted to posterity in the history of the art among the first of that rising name."—"Whether he most excelled in portraits, landscapes, or fancy pictures, it is difficult to determine: whether his portraits were most admirable for exact truth of resemblance, or his landscapes for a por-

trait-like representation of nature, such as we see in the works of Rubens, Rysdael, or others of these schools. In his fancy pictures, when he had fixed upon his object of imitation, whether it was the mean and vulgar form of a wood-cutter, or a child of an interesting character, as he did not attempt to raise the one, so neither did he lose any of the natural grace and elegance of the other; such a grace and such an elegance as are more frequently found in cottages than in courts. This excellence was his own, the result of his particular observation and taste. For this he was certainly not indebted to any school; for his grace was not academical, or antique, but selected by himself from the great school of nature; where there are yet a thousand modes of grace unselected, but which lie open in the multiplied scenes and figures of life, to be brought out by skilful and faithful observers. Upon the whole we may justly say, that whatever he attempted he carried to a high degree of excellence. It is to the credit of his good sense and judgment that he never did attempt that style of historical painting for which his previous studies had made no preparation."

GALBA, SERGIUS, or SERVIUS SULPICIUS, the successor of Nero, who was allied to the ancient and celebrated family of the Sulpicii. He was made pretor before he had reached the lawful age, then governor of Aquitania, and a year after consul. Caligula appointed him general in Germany, and he soon repulsed the Germans who had invaded Gaul, and restored the ancient military discipline. After the death of Caligula, he caused his troops to swear allegiance to Claudius, who received him, for this service, among his most confidential friends, and sent him as proconsul to Africa, where great confusion prevailed. In two years Galba restored order, obtained the honours of a triumph, and was received among the priests of Augustus. He lived afterwards in retirement till the middle of Nero's reign, that he might avoid exciting suspicion. Nero appointed him governor of Hispania Tarraconensis, but soon after became so exasperated against him that he ordered him to be secretly assassinated. Galba then revolted against the emperor, but became involved in great difficulties, when news arrived of the death of Nero; and he himself was chosen emperor by the pretorian cohorts in Rome. He went directly to Rome, and caused several insurgents to be executed, and by this act, as well as by his indulgence to his friends, whom he suffered to rule him absolutely, and by his excessive avarice, he excited universal displeasure. Scarcely had he entered upon his second consulship, when the legions in Upper Germany revolted against him, and this induced him to choose a colleague in the government, under the name of an adopted son. Instead of Otho, who was favoured by the soldiery, he selected Piso Licinianus, who was hated by them on account of his rigid virtue. Otho, offended by his neglect, resolved to get possession of the throne by force of arms. The pretorian cohorts first declared themselves in his favour, and Galba, attempting in vain to restore order, was attacked and slain when he had reigned only three months.

GALE, THEOPHILUS, a learned nonconformist divine, who was born in 1628, and was educated at Oxford. He took the degree of M.A. in 1652, and is well known for the number of his theological



writings; one of which, entitled "The Anatomy of Infidelity," is a well-written work for the period in which it was composed. Dr. Gale died in 1678.

GALE, THOMAS, a learned antiquary, who was born in 1636 at Scruton in Yorkshire. He was educated at Westminster school, and afterwards went to Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1672 he was appointed head master of St. Paul's school, and in 1677 he was elected a member of the Royal Society, of which he became a very useful member; was frequently of the council, and presented them with many antiquities, particularly an ancient Roman urn, found near Peckham in Surrey; and in 1685, the society having resolved to have honorary secretaries, Dr. Gale was chosen with Sir John Hoskyns into that office, when they appointed the celebrated Halley for their clerk-assistant, or under secretary, who had been a distinguished scholar of Dr. Gale's at St. Paul's school. Dr. Gale continued at the head of this school with the greatest reputation for twenty-five years, when he was promoted to the deanery of York. This preferment he did not live to enjoy many years. On his admission, finding the dean's right to be a canon-residentiary called in question, he was at the expense of procuring letters patent in 1699 to annex it to the deanery, which put the matter out of all dispute. During the remainder of his life, which was spent at York, he preserved an hospitality suitable to his station; and his good government of that church is mentioned with honour. Nor has the care which he took to repair and adorn that edifice passed without a just tribute of praise. Having possessed this dignity little more than four years and a half, he died in 1702, in the deanery-house, and was interred in the middle of the choir of his cathedral. Dr. Gale was the author of several very learned and valuable works.

GALEN, CLAUDIUS, a Greek physician, who was born A. D. 131, at Pergamus, in Asia Minor. His father Nicon, an able architect and mathematician, gave him a careful education, and destined him to the study of medicine. After having enjoyed the instructions of several celebrated physicians, Galen visited Lycia, Palestine, and Alexandria, then the capital of the literary world. A sedition induced him, when in the thirty-fourth year of his age, to go to Rome, where he acquired great celebrity by his successful cures and by his skill in prognostics. He also drew upon himself the envy of the other physicians to such a degree that he was obliged to give up the delivery of his anatomical lectures, and finally to go to Greece, just as a contagious disease broke out in Rome. He travelled through various countries to investigate the most remarkable productions of nature and different medicines, and then accepted an invitation to visit Aquileia by the emperors Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus. Galen had great merit as a physician and philosopher, especially by completing the empirical pathology, and laying the foundation for a just theory of sensation and the peculiar animal functions of the body. His writings give evidence of deep reflection, as well as a historical knowledge of the old Greek systems of philosophy, and extend to every department of medicine. Numerous as those extant are, we have now only a part of his productions, for many were burnt when his house in Rome was consumed. According to Fabricius, we have about eighty genuine writings of Galen. The oldest and most complete edition, in

Greek only, is the Aldine, which was published in 1525, which was followed by the Greek edition of Basle in 1538, folio, and the Græco-Latin one, by Chartier, with the works of Hippocrates added, Paris, 1679. Other editions have subsequently appeared.

GALEN, CHRISTOPHER BERNHARD VAN.—This warlike bishop of Munster was descended from an ancient family of Westphalia, and entered the military service, which he afterwards left for the church. In 1660 he was chosen prince-bishop of Munster, but was obliged to besiege the city on account of the opposition of the citizens. He conquered it in 1661, and built a citadel to secure his power. In 1664 he was appointed one of the leaders of the imperial army against the Turks in Hungary, and in the following year he took up arms for England against the Dutch, and gained many advantages over them. Peace was concluded in 1666 by the mediation of Louis XIV., but in 1672 the war broke out anew, in consequence of some territory which Holland withheld from him; and, in alliance with France, he took from the United States several cities and strong holds. The emperor having compelled him to conclude a peace, he united himself with Denmark against Sweden, and made new conquests. He was a man of extraordinary enterprise, one of the greatest generals of his time, an adroit diplomatist in the school of Ferdinand of Bavaria, and, if he had possessed as much power as courage, might have become a second Alexander. He died in 1678, in the seventy-fourth year of his age.

GALIANI, FERDINAND, an Italian abbé, celebrated for his wit and writings, who was born in the year 1728, at Chieti, in the kingdom of Naples, where his father, a nobleman, was assessor of the royal court of justice. He was educated under the care of his uncle, the archbishop of Tarentum, and applied to the study of the law. A humorous collection of verses, on the death of the public executioner, in ridicule of the custom of thus celebrating the death of eminent persons by the Academy Degli Emuli, first made him known as a writer. This was not long after followed by his celebrated work "Trattata della Moneta," which was published in the year 1750. He soon after, by the desire of Pope Benedict XIV., undertook a collection of specimens of the various matter thrown up by Mount Vesuvius, a catalogue of which was published in 1772. This collection he sent to the pope, and on one of the boxes was inscribed, "Holy father, command that these stones be made bread." The pope took the hint and gave him a living of 400 ducats per annum. In 1759 he was appointed secretary to the French embassy, and soon took a leading part among the wits and eminent men of Paris. During his residence in France he composed "Annotations upon Horace," and Dialogues on the Corn Trade, written in opposition to the policy of the free exportation of corn, then recently adopted with a view to encourage agriculture. On his return to Naples, in 1779, he kept up a correspondence with the most distinguished men of France, and their manuscript letters form nine thick volumes. He died, loaded with honours and offices, and possessed of very general esteem, on the 30th of October, 1787. Besides the works already mentioned, he is the author of Treatises on the Innate Propensities or Inclinations of Men, or, the Principles of the Laws of Nature and Nations, de-



duced from the Poems of Horace; on the Duties of Princes to other belligerent Powers; and on the Neapolitan Dialect.

**GALILEO, GALILEI.**—This distinguished philosopher was born in the city of Pisa. He was the son of a Florentine nobleman, and was educated for the medical profession, but a passion for geometry took possession of his mind, and called forth all his powers. Without the aid of a master he studied the writings of Euclid and of Archimedes, and such were his acquirements that he was appointed by the grand duke of Tuscany to the mathematical chair of Pisa in the twenty-fifth year of his age. His opposition to the Aristotelian philosophy gained him many enemies, and at the end of three years he quitted Pisa, and accepted of an invitation to the professorship of mathematics at Padua. Here he continued for eighteen years, adorning the university by his name, and diffusing around him a taste for the physical sciences. With the exception of some contrivances of inferior importance, Galileo had distinguished himself by no discovery till he had reached the forty-fifth year of his age. In the year 1609, the same year in which Kepler published his celebrated commentary on Mars, Galileo paid a visit to Venice, where he heard, in the course of conversation, that a Dutchman of the name of Jansens had constructed, and presented to Prince Maurice, an instrument through which he saw distant objects magnified and rendered more distinct as if they had been brought nearer to the observer. This report was credited by some and disbelieved by others; but in the course of a few days Galileo received a letter from James Badovere at Paris, which placed beyond a doubt the existence of such an instrument. The idea instantly filled his mind as one of the utmost importance to science; and so thoroughly was he acquainted with the properties of lenses, that he not only discovered the principle of its construction, but was able to complete a telescope for his own use.



There is, perhaps, no invention that science has presented to man so extraordinary in its nature, and so boundless in its influence, as that of the telescope. To the uninstructed mind, the power of seeing an object a thousand miles distant as large, and nearly as distinct, as if it were brought within a mile of the

observer, must seem almost miraculous; and to the philosopher, even who thoroughly comprehends the principles upon which it acts, it must ever appear one of the most elegant applications of science. To have been the first astronomer in whose hands such a gift was placed was a preference to which Galileo owed much of his future reputation.

No sooner had he completed his telescope than he applied it to the heavens, and on the 7th of January, 1618, the first day of its use, he saw round Jupiter three bright little stars lying in a line parallel to the ecliptic, two to the east, and one to the west of the planet. Regarding them as ordinary stars, he never thought of estimating their distances. On the following day, when he accidentally directed his telescope to Jupiter, he was surprised to see the three stars to the west of the planet. To produce this effect it was requisite that the motion of Jupiter should be direct, though, according to calculation, it was actually retrograde. In this dilemma he waited with impatience for the evening of the 9th, but, unfortunately, the sky was covered with clouds. On the 10th he saw only two stars to the east, a circumstance which he was no longer able to explain by the motion of Jupiter. He was therefore compelled to ascribe the change to the stars themselves; and upon repeating his observations on the 11th he no longer doubted that he had discovered three planets revolving round Jupiter. On the 13th of January he for the first time saw the fourth satellite.

This discovery, though of the utmost importance in itself, derived an additional value from the light which it threw on the true system of the universe. While the earth was the only planet enlightened by a moon, it might naturally be supposed that it alone was habitable, and was therefore entitled to the pre-eminence of occupying the centre of the system; but the discovery of four moons round a much larger planet deprived this argument of its force, and created a new analogy between the earth and the other planets. When Kepler received the "Sidereal Messenger" (the work in which Galileo announced his discovery in 1610), he perused it with the deepest interest; and while it confirmed and extended his substantial discoveries, it dispelled at the same time some of those harmonic dreams which still hovered among his thoughts. In the "Dissertation" which he published on the discovery of Galileo, he expresses his hope that satellites will be discovered round Saturn and Mars; he conjectures that Jupiter has a motion of rotation about his axis, and states his surprise that, after what had been written on the subject of telescopes by Baptista Porta, they had not been earlier introduced into observatories.

In continuing his observations, Galileo applied his telescope to Venus, and in 1610 he discovered the phases of that planet, which exhibited to him the various forms of the waxing and the waning moon. In his observations on the sun, Galileo discovered his spots, and deduced from them the rotation of the central luminary. On the surface of the moon he discovered her mountains and valleys, and determined the curious fact of her libration, in virtue of which parts of the margin of her disk occasionally appear and disappear.

While Galileo was occupied with these pursuits at Pisa, to which he had been recalled in 1611, his generous patron Cosmo II., grand duke of Tuscany, invited him to Florence, that he might pursue with



uninterrupted leisure his astronomical observations, and carry on his correspondence with the German astronomers. His fame had now resounded through all Europe; the strongholds of prejudice and ignorance were unbarred, and the most obstinate adherents of ancient systems acknowledged the meridian power of the day star of science. Galileo was ambitious of propagating the great truths which he contributed so powerfully to establish. He never doubted that they would be received with gratitude by all—by the philosopher as the consummation of the greatest efforts of human genius; and by the Christian as the most transcendent displays of Almighty power. But he had mistaken the disposition of his species and the character of the age. That same system of the heavens which had been discovered by the humble ecclesiastic Copernicus, which had been patronised by the kindness of a bishop, and published at the expense of a cardinal, and which the pope himself had sanctioned by the warmest reception, was, after the lapse of a hundred years, doomed to the most violent opposition as subversive of the doctrines of the Christian faith. On no former occasion had the human mind exhibited such a fatal relapse into intolerance. The age itself had improved in liberality; the persecuted doctrines themselves had become more deserving of reception; the light of the reformed faith had driven the Catholics from some of their most obnoxious positions; and yet, under all those circumstances, the church of Rome unfurled her banner of persecution against the pride of Italy, against the ornament of his species, and against truths immutable and eternal.

In consequence of complaints laid before the Holy Inquisition, Galileo was summoned to appear at Rome in 1615, to answer for the heretical opinions which he had promulgated. He was charged with "maintaining as true the false doctrine held by many, that the sun was immovable in the centre of the world, and that the earth revolved with a diurnal motion, with having certain disciples to whom he taught the same doctrine, with keeping up a correspondence on the subject with several German mathematicians, with having published letters on the solar spots, in which he explained the same doctrine as true, and with having glossed over, with a false interpretation, the passages of scripture which were urged against it." The consideration of these charges came before a meeting of the Inquisition, which assembled in February 1616, and the court, declaring their disposition to deal gently with the prisoner, pronounced the following decree:—"That Cardinal Bellarmine should enjoin Galileo to renounce entirely the above-recited false opinions; that, on his refusal to do so, he should be commanded by the commissary of the Inquisition to abandon the said doctrine, and to cease to teach and defend it; and that, if he did not obey this command, he should be thrown into prison." On the 26th of February Galileo appeared before Cardinal Bellarmine, and, after receiving from him a gentle admonition, he was commanded by the commissary, in the presence of a notary and witnesses, to desist altogether from his erroneous opinions; and it was declared to be unlawful for him in future to teach them in any way whatever, either orally or in his writings. To these commands Galileo promised obedience, and was dismissed from the Inquisition.

The mildness of this sentence was no doubt partly owing to the influence of the grand duke of Tuscany and other persons of rank and influence at the papal court who took a deep interest in the issue of the trial. Dreading however that so slight a punishment might not have the effect of putting down the obnoxious doctrines, the Inquisition issued a decree denouncing the new opinions as false and contrary to the sacred writings, and prohibiting the sale of every book in which they should be maintained.

Thus liberated from his persecutors, Galileo returned to Florence, where he pursued his studies with his wonted diligence and ardour. The recantation of his astronomical opinions was so formal and unreserved that ordinary prudence should have restrained him from unnecessarily bringing them before the world. No anathema was pronounced against his scientific discoveries, no interdict was laid upon the free exercise of his genius. He was prohibited merely from teaching a doctrine which the church of Rome considered to be injurious to its faith. We might have expected therefore that a philosopher so conspicuous in the eyes of the world would have respected the prejudices, however base, of an institution whose decrees formed part of the law of the land, and which possessed the power of life and death within the limits of its jurisdiction. Galileo however thought otherwise, for before six years had elapsed he began to compose his "Cosmical System, or Dialogues on the Two Greatest Systems of the World, the Ptolemean and the Copernican," the concealed object of which is to establish the opinions which he had promised to abandon. In this work the subject is discussed by three speakers, Sagredo, Salviatus, and Simplicius, a peripatetic philosopher who defends the system of Ptolemy with much skill against the overwhelming arguments of the rival disputants. Galileo hoped to escape notice by this indirect mode of propagating the new system, and he obtained permission to publish his work, which appeared at Florence in 1632.

The Inquisition did not, as might have been expected, immediately summon Galileo to their presence. Nearly a year elapsed before they gave any indication of their design; and, according to their own statement, they did not even take the subject under consideration till they saw that the obnoxious tenets were every day gaining ground in consequence of the publication of the Dialogues. They then submitted the work to a careful examination, and having found it to be a direct violation of the injunction which had been formerly intimated to its author, they again cited him before their tribunal in 1633. The venerable sage, now in his seventieth year, was thus compelled to repair to Rome, and when he arrived he was committed to the apartments of the fiscal of the Inquisition. The unchangeable friendship however of the grand duke of Tuscany obtained a remission of this severity, and Galileo was allowed to reside at the house of the Tuscan ambassador during the two months which the trial occupied. When brought before the Inquisition and examined upon oath he acknowledged that the Dialogues were written by himself, and that he obtained permission to publish them without notifying to the person who gave it that he had been prohibited from holding, defending, or teaching the heretical opinions. He confessed also that the



Dialogues were composed in such a manner that the arguments in favour of the Copernican system, though given as partly false, were yet managed in such a manner that they were more likely to confirm than overturn its doctrines, but that this error, which was not intentional, arose from the natural desire of making an ingenious defence of false propositions and of opinions that had the semblance of probability.

After receiving these confessions and excuses, the Inquisition allowed Galileo a proper time for giving in his defence; but this seems to have consisted solely in bringing forward the certificate of Cardinal Bellarmine, already mentioned, which made no allusion to the promise under which Galileo had come never to defend nor teach in any way whatever the Copernican doctrines. The court held this to be an aggravation of the crime rather than an excuse for it, and proceeded to pronounce a sentence which will be ever memorable in the history of the human mind.

Invoking then the name of our Saviour, they declared, that Galileo had made himself liable to the suspicion of heresy by believing the doctrine contrary to Scripture, that the sun was the centre of the earth's orbit, and did not move from east to west; and by defending, as probable, the opinion that the earth moved, and was not the centre of the world; and that he had thus incurred all the censures and penalties which were enacted by the church against such offences; but that he should be absolved from these penalties, provided he sincerely abjured and cursed all the errors and heresies contained in the formulæ of the church, which should be submitted to him. That so grave and pernicious a crime should not pass altogether unpunished—that he might become more cautious in future, and might be an example to others to abstain from such offences, they decreed that his Dialogues should be prohibited by a formal edict—that he should be condemned to the prison of the Inquisition during pleasure—and that during the three following years he should recite, once a-week, the seven penitentiary psalms.

This sentence was subscribed by seven cardinals; and on the 22nd of June, 1633, Galileo signed an abjuration, humiliating to himself, and degrading to philosophy. At the age of seventy, on his bended knees, and with his right hand resting on the Holy Evangelists, did this patriarch of science avow his present and his past belief in all the dogmas of the Romish church—abandon, as false and heretical, the doctrine of the earth's motion, and of the sun's immobility, and pledge himself to denounce to the Inquisition any other person who was even suspected of heresy.

Though Galileo was now to a certain degree liberated from the power of man, yet the dispensations of Providence began to fall thickly around him. No sooner had he returned to Arcetri than his favourite daughter was seized with a dangerous illness, which soon terminated in her death. He was himself attacked with hernia, palpitation of the heart, loss of appetite, and the most oppressive melancholy; and though he solicited permission to repair to Florence for medical assistance, yet this deed of mercy was denied him. In 1638, however, the pope permitted him to pay a visit to Florence, and his friend, Father Castelli, was allowed to visit him in the company of an officer of the Inquisition. But

this indulgence was soon withdrawn, and at the end of a few months he was remanded to Arcetri. The sight of his right eye had begun to fail in 1636 from an opacity of the cornea; and in 1637 his left eye was attacked with the same complaint, so that in a few months he was affected with total and incurable blindness.

The sorrows with which Galileo was now beset seem to have disarmed the severity of the Inquisition. He was freely permitted to enjoy the society of his friends, who now thronged around him to express their respect and their sympathy. The grand duke of Tuscany was his frequent visitor, and Gassendi, Deodati, and our countryman, Milton, went to Italy for the purpose of visiting him. He entertained his friends with the warmest hospitality; and though simple and abstemious in his diet, yet he was fond of good wine, and seems even in his last days to have paid particular attention to the excellence of his cellar. Although Galileo had nearly lost his hearing as well as his sight, yet his intellectual faculties were unimpaired; and while his mind was occupied in considering the force of percussion, he was seized with fever and palpitation of the heart, which, after two months' illness, terminated his life on the 8th of January, 1642.

GALL, JOHN JOSEPH, a distinguished German physiologist. He was born at Baden in 1758, and early directed his attention to minute dissections of the brain, which ultimately led to his propagating the doctrines of phrenology. One of the most efficacious modes employed by Dr. Gall to determine the functions of the different parts of the brain, was to observe at every opportunity the heads of persons distinguished by any peculiarity of disposition or talent, and to note in what particular region a large development appeared in them all. Having, in the course of his researches, collected in his house a number of persons belonging to the lower ranks, such as porters and hackney-coachmen, his attention was drawn to the fact, that while some individuals were spoken of by their comrades as remarkable for provoking disputes and contentions, there were others, of a pacific disposition, whom they regarded with contempt, and called poltroons. "As the most quarrelsome," says Gall, "found great pleasure in giving me very circumstantial narratives of their exploits, I was anxious to see whether any thing was to be found in the heads of these heroes which distinguished them from those of the poltroons. I ranged the quarrellers on one side, and the peaceable on the other, and examined carefully the heads of both. I found that, in all the quarrellers the head, immediately behind and on a level with the top of the ears, was much broader than in the poltroons. On other occasions, I assembled separately those who were most distinguished for their bravery, and those who were most distinguished for their cowardice. I repeated my researches, and found my first observations confirmed. I therefore began to conjecture that an inclination to contention (*penchant aux rixes*), might really be the result of a particular organ. I endeavoured to find out, on the one hand, men of acknowledged superior bravery, and, on the other, men known to be great cowards. At the combats of wild beasts, at that time exhibited at Vienna, there appeared a first-rate fighter of extreme intrepidity, who often presented himself in the arena to sustain, alone, a fight with a wild boar or a bull, or any fero-



cious animal whatever. I found in him the region of the head just pointed out very broad and rounded (bombee). I took a cast of his head, and likewise of those of some other *braves*, that I might run no risk of forgetting their particular conformations. I examined also the heads of some of my comrades who had been expelled from several universities for continual duel fighting. Among these was one who knew no greater pleasure than that of establishing himself in an alehouse, and mocking the workmen who came thither to drink, and when he saw them disposed to come to blows, putting out the lights, and giving them battle in the dark, chair in hand. He was in appearance, a little and weakly man. He reminded me of another of my comrades, a Swiss, who used to amuse himself at Strasburg by provoking quarrels with men much stronger and bigger than himself. I visited several schools, and had pointed out to me the scholars who were the most quarrelsome, and those who were the most cowardly. I prosecuted the same observations in the families of my acquaintance. In the course of my researches my attention was arrested by a very handsome young woman, who from her childhood had been fond of dressing herself in male attire, and going secretly out of doors to fight with the blackguards in the street. After her marriage she constantly sought occasion to fight with men. When she had guests at dinner, she challenged the strongest of them, after the repast, to wrestle with her. I likewise knew a lady who, although of small stature and delicate constitution, was often judicially summoned because of her custom of striking her domestics of both sexes. When she was on a journey, two drunken waggoners, having lost their way in the inn during the night, entered the chamber where she was sleeping alone; she received them with such vigour with the candlesticks, which she hurled at their heads, and the chairs with which she struck them, that they were forced to betake themselves to flight. In all these persons I found the region in question formed in the manner above described, although the heads were shaped, in other respects, quite differently. These observations emboldened me, and I began thenceforward to speak in my lectures of an organ of courage, as I then called it." Dr. Gall published several works in conjunction with his disciple Dr. Spurzheim, and, after visiting Vienna and London, finally settled at Paris, where he died in 1828.

**GALVANI, LEWIS.**—This ingenious Italian philosopher is best known for his discovery of that branch of electricity called after his name "Galvanism." He was born at Bologna in 1737, and ultimately became lecturer in the university of his native town. He died in 1798.

**GAMA, VASCO DE.**—This celebrated Portuguese navigator was the original discoverer of the route to the East Indies by sea—a discovery of the greatest importance, not only in regard to commerce, but to the civilization and political relations of Europe, and which laid the foundation of the commercial power and wealth of Portugal in the Indian seas. As soon as the pupil of Henry the Navigator, Emanuel the Fortunate, had ascended the throne, he determined to carry into execution the project of sailing to India round the cape of Good Hope, for which great preparations had been already made by his predecessor John II. By his command four vessels manned with marines and sailors were

fitted out, and Gama intrusted with the chief command. Emanuel solemnly delivered to him the flag which he was to take with him, with the cross of the order of Christ (of which Henry the Navigator had been grand-master) embroidered on it. On the 9th of July, 1497, Gama went on board the admiral's ship which bore the name of St. Gabriel. His brother Paul had the command of the second, and Nicolaus Coelho of the third armed ship. The fourth vessel, a barge with provisions, was commanded by Gonzalo Nuñez, and on the 20th of the following November Gama doubled the cape of Good Hope. In the beginning of the year 1498 he reached the eastern coast of Africa, and shortly after he entered the harbour of Mozambique, where his crew were in great danger on account of the hostility of the inhabitants to Christians. In Mombaza he met with similar enmity, but his reception by the king of Melinda was more friendly, as he presented the admiral a Mohanmedan from Guzerat, skilled in navigation and an experienced pilot. Holding his course straight towards the coast of Malabar, Gama arrived in May at Calicut, a city inhabited by Hindoos, where the ruler over the country called the *zamorin* had his residence. Gama on his arrival was favourably received; but the Mohammedan merchants who visited Calicut, prompted by motives of commercial jealousy, found means to disturb this amicable understanding. Gama however restored it by his resolution and prudence; and the *zamorin* afterwards sent the admiral a letter for King Emanuel. Gama took several Indians with him in order to give these people an idea of his native country; and on his way homeward, he again visited the king of Melinda. Nicolaus Coelho, sailing before the other vessels, first reached the harbour of Lisbon, where Gama arrived soon after. His brother Paul, who died on the voyage, he had buried in the island of Terceira; and of one hundred and sixty men, only fifty-five returned with him. After his arrival in the capital, he spent a week in pious exercises in the convent which had been built by the infant Henry. The king sent some of the first officers of his court to salute him, and when Vasco made his solemn entrance into the city, public festivals were celebrated in honour of him, and Emanuel bestowed rewards upon all the companions of the bold navigator. Vasco received for himself and his descendants the title of *don*, and the dignity of *admiral of the Eastern Seas*, with an income of 3000 ducats; he was permitted to add part of the arms of the kingdom to his family coat of arms, and on every voyage to the Indies to employ 200,000 crusados on his own account; and soon after the king bestowed on him the dignity of count of Vidigueira. The result of this expedition promised such great advantages, that all those who had been opposed to voyages of discovery changed their opinion.

Not long after Gama's return, King Emanuel sent a squadron of thirteen sail to the Indies under the command of Pedro Alvarez Cabral; and alliances and commercial treaties were concluded with the Indian princes, and Cabral's squadron, as well as a lesser one under the command of Juan Coelho, returned to Portugal with rich cargoes. The greatest zeal for engaging in the commerce with the Indies was kindled among all classes of the nation, and the harbour of Lisbon was crowded with foreign vessels to obtain the merchandise of the East. In the year



1502 the king again fitted out a squadron consisting of twenty large ships, with which Gama set sail the second time for the Indies. Having forced the hostile king of Quiloa to pay tribute to the crown of Portugal, he took his course towards the Indian coast, where he confirmed the treaty with the kings of Cananor and Cochin, which had been concluded by Cabral. Both kings were enemies of the zamorin, who since Gama's first voyage had treated the Europeans in a hostile manner; forty Portuguese had been killed in Calicut during Cabral's stay in India by the inhabitants, who, incited by the intrigues of the Mohammedans, had taken the factory of the strangers by assault. Gama now resolved to punish the zamorin. He appeared on the coast of Calicut, and paying no regard to the peaceable proposals of the terrified king, made an attack on the ships that lay in the harbour, and ordered the city to be bombarded. His cannon carried terror and destruction into the city, and at the same time he hung up thirty Arabs who had been made prisoners at the yard-arms, and sent their heads, hands, and feet to the king. He then paid a visit with his squadron to his ally the king of Cochin, where he received a deputation from the Christians of St. Thomas, so called, who lived in the neighbourhood and solicited his protection against the Pagans. A bramin of rank, accompanied by two of his relations, presented himself before him, expressing a wish to accompany him to Portugal that he might be instructed in the Christian religion. Some days after this person succeeded in persuading him that the differences between the Portuguese and the zamorin might be settled by his mediation. Gama was the more easily imposed upon, as the bramin surrendered to him his son and nephew as pledges of his sincerity. Committing the command of the squadron to an approved officer, he sailed with the largest of his ships and a caravel to Calicut, hoping to join on the voyage Vincent Sodre, who had escorted the deputies of the Indian Christians home. It soon became evident, however, that the bramin had deceived him; but here also his resolution saved him. He punished the treachery of the bramin, returned to Cochin, and after having established a factory there, sailed with ten ships to Cananor. Here he was attacked by the squadron of the king of Calicut, and after a short engagement Gama put them to flight. Among the rich booty found in the vessels that had fallen into the power of the Portuguese, there was a gold idol weighing more than thirty pounds. Gama then set out on his return to Lisbon, where he arrived with rich cargoes. At his solemn entrance, a vessel of silver containing the tribute of the king of Quiloa, was carried before him, out of which King Emanuel ordered a costly pyx to be made, which he presented to the convent at Belem or Bethlehem, built by him instead of the little chapel that had been erected by Henry the Navigator, in order to render the memory of the great discoverer immortal. Francis de Almeida and the great Albuquerque had gloriously confirmed the power of Portugal in India, when Gama was sent for the third time to the theatre of his renown by Emanuel's successor, John III. He was authorized to assume the administration of the new colonies, which already extended from the Persian gulf to the Moluccas, with the title of viceroy.

In 1524 he left the harbour of Lisbon with fourteen vessels. Immediately after his arrival he visited

several small colonies, using all means in his power for their defence and the preservation of the authority of the Portuguese arms among the natives; but he had scarcely administered his office for the space of three months, when, amidst the victories of his squadrons, he sunk under the infirmities of age, and died in December 1524 at Goa.

GARAT, DOMINIQUE JOSEPH, COUNT, was born in 1760, and while only a private scholar he made himself very advantageously known by a learned eulogy on De l'Hôpital. He then became a member of the constituent assembly, after the dissolution of which he was carried along in the revolutionary torrent. In the year 1792 he was minister of justice; it therefore fell to his lot to announce his sentence to Louis XVI. In the reign of Napoleon he was a member of the senate, but Louis XVIII. gave him no appointment; and when the National Institute, of which he had been a member, was newly organized, he was left out. His nephew, Pierre Jean Garat, was a celebrated singer and one of the most distinguished professors in the musical conservatory in Paris. The voice of Garat was in tone and compass very remarkable, and his facility was admirable. His execution of the music of Gluck was particularly esteemed. He died in March 1823.

GARCILASO, DE LA VEGA, who has frequently been called the prince of Spanish poets, was born at Toledo in the year 1503. His father was comandador mayor of Leon, of the order of Santiago, counsellor of state in the reign of Ferdinand the Catholic, and ambassador at the court of Leo X. According to an account given in the "*Historia de las Guerras Civiles*," the Garcilasos received their surname from their combats with Moorish heroes in the great valley of Granada, called "*La Vega*." Gifted by nature with all the qualities of a poet, Garcilaso soon found his proper sphere: his genius was kindled by the study of the ancients, particularly of the Romans. Boscan had already begun to transplant the versification of the Italians into Spanish poetry. Garcilaso followed his example, and, destroying his earlier attempts, imitated the Italians only; and he succeeded so well that he is still ranked among the best Spanish poets.

In 1529 he was engaged in the expedition against Soliman, and in 1535 in that against Tunis. In the latter he received a wound in his arm, after which he remained some time in Naples. In 1536 he commanded several companies of infantry, and accompanied the army against Marseilles, and upon its retreat the army was detained by a tower garrisoned by Moors, said to be the tower of Muy near Frejus. The emperor gave him orders to take it. Garcilaso, amidst a shower of stones, pressed forward with a halberd in his hand; but scarcely had he placed his foot upon the ladder, when he fell to the ground, dangerously wounded in his head. He was carried to Nice, where he died at the age of thirty-three years. His body was brought to Toledo in 1538 and placed in the tomb of his family. When we consider his early death, and his active and troubled life, we are astonished at the perfection of his poems. Spanish poetry is highly indebted to him; for without his aid Boscan, a foreigner, would never have succeeded in his innovations, more particularly as he had a formidable adversary in Christoval de Castillejo. Boscan was so grateful



for the assistance, that he collected the works of his friend with the greatest care. They consist of eclogues, epistles, odes, songs, sonnets (in which he imitated Petrarch), and some smaller poems.

GARDEN, ALEXANDER, an eminent botanist and zoologist, born in Scotland in 1730 and educated at the university of Edinburgh. He went to America, and settled as a physician at Charleston in South Carolina in 1752, where he engaged in botanical researches, and, becoming dissatisfied with the system of Tournefort, then followed by most naturalists, he opened a correspondence with the celebrated Linnæus in 1755. Soon after he obtained the "*Philosophia Botanica*," the "*Systema Naturæ*," and some other works of the Swedish botanist, which greatly assisted him in his inquiries. His labours were directed to the discovery and verification of new species among the animal and vegetable tribes of North America, in which he was very successful. To his exertions Linnæus was indebted particularly for a knowledge of the insects and fishes of Carolina, among which is the *siren lacertina*, a most curious animal, resembling both a lizard and a fish. After a residence of nearly twenty years in America, Dr. Garden returned to England. He died in April 1791. Dr. Garden published several interesting papers in the "*Philosophical Transactions*." Those devoted to the description of the *gymnotus electricus* possess great merit.

GARDINER, STEPHEN.—This celebrated ecclesiastic was born in 1483 at Bury St. Edmund's, and received his education at Trinity Hall, Cambridge. In 1520 he left the university and attached himself to the Howard family: he then entered the service of Wolsey, and soon ranked high in the favour of his master, and consequently in that of the court. In 1527 he was intrusted with the negotiations at the papal court, respecting the king's divorce from Catherine of Arragon, and although unsuccessful in his mission his exertions were rewarded with the archdeaconries of Norwich and Leicester in succession, and the appointment of secretary of state. His devotion to the king now got the better of his allegiance as a churchman to the pope, and he not only did all in his power to facilitate his designs with respect to the queen, whose divorce he signed, but on Henry's abjuring the supremacy of the pontiff, and declaring himself head of the church, he was supported by Gardiner, who had been created bishop of Winchester a short time previous. The bishop continued to enjoy the court favour till his master, taking a dislike to Queen Catherine Parr, consulted with him on the easiest method of getting rid of her, and acquiesced in a plan the leading feature of which was the exhibition of articles against her on a charge of heresy. The design had proceeded so far that officers were already summoned for the purpose of arresting her, when the queen in a personal interview with her husband had address enough to turn the tables on the bishop, to reestablish herself in the king's favour, and to bring him into disgrace with Henry. With his successor he stood in a still more unfavorable light, his opposition to the doctrines of the reformed church bringing on him the displeasure of the prevailing party, who succeeded in inducing the young monarch to commit him to the Tower with a sentence of deprivation from his diocese. On the accession of Mary however he was not only received

into favour and restored to his see, but elevated to the office of chancellor of England and first minister of state. He now distinguished himself as a principal mover in the executions which took place during this reign, acting occasionally with equal caprice and cruelty. In his private character he appears to much greater advantage, being not only learned himself but a great encourager of learning in others. Though artful, dissembling, ambitious, and proud, he was grateful and constant. He died on the 12th of November, 1555.

GARDINER, JAMES.—There are some events in the life of this brave soldier so extraordinary in their character that nothing but the testimony of a distinguished contemporary would warrant our advertent to many of the circumstances we are about to narrate. "Dr. Doddridge's Life of Colonel James Gardiner" is altogether a most interesting piece of biography; we therefore purpose furnishing an abridgement of its contents, as much as possible retaining the style and character of the original:—Colonel Gardiner was born at Cardigan in Scotland at the beginning of 1688, and at the age of fourteen bore an ensign's commission in a Scottish regiment in the Dutch service, in which he continued till the year 1702, when he received a commission from Queen Anne, and fought in the battle of Ramilies. In this ever-memorable action he received a wound in his mouth by a musket ball, which has often been reported to be the occasion of his conversion. That report however was a mistaken one; but some very remarkable circumstances attended the affair.

Mr. Gardiner was commanded on what seemed almost a desperate service, to dispossess the French of the church-yard at Ramilies, where a considerable number of them were posted to remarkable advantage. They succeeded much better than was expected, and it may well be supposed that Mr. Gardiner, who had before been in several encounters, and had the view of making his fortune to animate the natural intrepidity of his spirit, was glad of such an opportunity of signalizing himself. Accordingly he had planted his colours on an advanced ground, and while he was calling to his men, he received a shot into his mouth; which, without beating out any of his teeth, or touching the fore-part of his tongue, went through his neck, and came out about an inch and a half on the left side of the vertebræ. Not feeling at first the pain of the stroke, he wondered what was become of the ball, and in the wildness of his surprise began to suspect he had swallowed it; but dropping soon after, he traced the passage of it by his finger.

This accident happened about five or six in the evening, on the twenty-third day of May, in the year 1706; and the army pursuing its advantages against the French, without ever regarding the wounded, the young officer lay all night in the field, agitated, as may well be supposed, with a great variety of thoughts. But, expecting to recover, his mind was taken up with contrivances to secure his gold, of which he had a great deal about him; and he had recourse to a very odd expedient, which proved successful. Expecting to be stripped, he first took a handful of that clotted gore, of which he was frequently obliged to clear his mouth, or he would have been choked; and putting it into his left hand, he took out his money, and shutting his hand, and besmearing the back part of it with blood,



he kept it in this position till the blood dried in such a manner that his hand could not easily fall open, though any sudden surprise should happen, in which he might lose the presence of mind which that concealment otherwise would have required.

In the morning the French, who were masters of that spot, though their forces were defeated at some distance, came to plunder the slain; and seeing him to appearance almost expiring, one of them was just applying a sword to his breast, to destroy the little remainder of life; when, in the critical moment upon which all the extraordinary events of such a life as his afterwards proved were suspended, a cordelier, who attended the plunderers, interposed, taking him by his dress for a Frenchman, and said, "Do not kill that poor child." Our young soldier heard all that passed, though he was not able to speak one word; and, opening his eyes, made a sign for something to drink. They gave him a sup of some spirituous liquor, which happened to be at hand; by which he said he found a more sensible refreshment than he could remember from any thing he had tasted either before or since. Then signifying to the friar to lean down his ear to his mouth, he employed the first efforts of his feeble breath in telling him that he was nephew to the governor of Huy, a neutral town in the neighbourhood, and that, if he could take any method of conveying him thither, he did not doubt but his uncle would liberally reward him. He had indeed a friend at Huy, from whom he expected a kind reception, but the relationship was only pretended. On hearing this, they laid him on a sort of handbarrow, and sent him by a file of musketeers towards the place; but the men lost their way, and got into a wood towards the evening, in which they were obliged to continue all night. The poor patient's wound being still undressed, it is not to be wondered that by this time it pained violently. The anguish of it engaged him earnestly to beg that they would either kill him outright, or leave him there to die, without the torture of any further motion; and indeed they were obliged to rest for a considerable time on account of their own weariness. Thus he spent the second night in the open air, without any thing more than a common bandage to stanch the blood. He often mentioned it as a most astonishing providence that he did not bleed to death; which, under God, he ascribed to the remarkable coldness of these two nights.

Judging it quite unsafe to attempt carrying him to Huy, from whence they were now several miles distant, his convoy took him early in the morning to a convent in the neighbourhood, where he was hospitably received, and treated with great kindness and tenderness. But the cure of his wound was committed to an ignorant surgeon, who lived near the house—the best shift that could then be made, at a time when it may easily be supposed persons of ability in their profession had their hands full of employment. The lady abbess, who called him her son, treated him with the affection and care of a mother; and he always declared that every thing which he saw within those walls was conducted with the strictest decency and decorum. He received a great many devout admonitions from the ladies there, and they would fain have persuaded him to acknowledge what they thought so miraculous a deliverance by embracing the Catholic faith, but they could not succeed.

And now (says Dr. Doddridge), I am come to that astonishing part of his story, the account of his conversion. This memorable event happened towards the middle of July, 1719. The major had spent the evening (and, if I mistake not, it was the sabbath) in some gay company, and had an unhappy assignation with a married woman, whom he was to attend exactly at twelve. The company broke up about eleven, and, not judging it convenient to anticipate the time appointed, he went into his chamber to kill the tedious hour, perhaps with some amusing book, or some other way. But it very accidentally happened that he took up a religious book, which was called "The Christian Soldier, or Heaven Taken by Storm," and was written by Mr. Thomas Watson. Guessing by the title of it that he should find some phrases of his own profession spiritualized in a manner which he thought might afford him some diversion, he resolved to dip into it, but he took no serious notice of any thing he read in it; and yet, while this book was in his hand, an impression was made upon his mind which drew after it a train of the most important and happy consequences.

There is indeed a possibility that while he was sitting in this attitude, and reading, he might suddenly have fallen asleep and only dream of what he apprehended he saw. But nothing can be more certain than that he judged himself to have been as broad awake during the whole time as he ever was in any part of his life; and he mentioned it several times afterwards, as what undoubtedly passed, not only in his imagination but before his eyes. He thought he saw an unusual blaze of light fall on the book while he was reading, which he at first imagined might happen by some accident in the candle. But, lifting up his eyes, he apprehended, to his extreme amazement, that there was before him, as it were suspended in the air, a visible representation of the Lord Jesus Christ upon the cross, surrounded on all sides with a glory; and was impressed, as if a voice or something equivalent to a voice had come to him, to this effect (for he was not confident as to the very words): "Oh sinner, did I suffer this for thee, and are these the returns?" But whether this were an audible voice, or only a strong impression on his mind equally striking, he did not seem very confident; though, to the best of my remembrance, he rather judged it to be the former. Struck with so amazing a phenomenon as this, there remained hardly any life in him, so that he sunk down in the arm-chair in which he sat, and continued, he knew not exactly how long, insensible.

It may easily be supposed he was in no condition to make any observation upon the time in which he had remained in an insensible state; nor did he, throughout all the remainder of the night, once recollect that criminal and detestable assignation which had before engrossed all his thoughts. He rose in a tumult of passions not to be conceived, and walked to and fro in his chamber, till he was ready to drop down, in unutterable astonishment and agony of heart; appearing to himself the vilest monster in the creation of God, who had all his lifetime been crucifying Christ afresh by his sins, and now saw, as he assuredly believed by a miraculous vision, the horror of what he had done. With this was connected such a view both of the majesty and goodness of God, as caused him to loathe and abhor himself, and to "repent as in dust and ashes." He im-

mediately gave judgment against himself, and was astonished that he had not been immediately struck dead in the midst of his wickedness.

To this he refers in a letter, dated from Douglas, April 1, 1725, communicated to me by his lady, but I know not to whom it was addressed. His words are these: "One thing relating to my conversion, and a remarkable instance of the goodness of God to me, the chief of sinners, I do not remember that I ever told to any other person. It was this: that after the astonishing sight I had of my blessed Lord, the terrible condition in which I was proceeded not so much from the terrors of the law as from a sense of having been so ungrateful a monster to Him whom I thought I saw pierced for my transgressions." I rather insert these words, as they evidently attest the circumstance which may seem most amazing in this affair, and contain so express a declaration of his own apprehension concerning it. In this view it may naturally be supposed that he passed the remainder of the night waking; and he could get but little rest in several that followed. His mind was continually taken up in reflecting on the divine purity and goodness, the singular advantages he had enjoyed and abused, and the many favours of Providence which he had received, particularly in rescuing him from so many imminent dangers of death, which he now saw must have been attended with such dreadful and hopeless destruction. The privileges of his education, which he had so much despised, now lay with an almost insupportable weight on his mind; and the folly of that career of sinful pleasure, which he had so many years been running with desperate eagerness and unworthy delight, now filled him with indignation against himself.

On the twenty-fourth of January, 1729, he was advanced to the rank of lieutenant-colonel under the command of Lord Cadogan, with whose friendship this brave and vigilant officer was also honoured for many years; and he continued in this rank and regiment till the 19th of April, 1743, when he received a colonel's commission over a regiment of dragoons.

I have heard such a multitude of inconsistent reports of the circumstances of Colonel Gardiner's death (says Dr. Doddridge), that I had almost despaired of being able to give any particular satisfaction concerning so interesting a scene. But by a happy accident I have very lately had an opportunity of being exactly informed of the whole by that brave man Mr. John Foster, his faithful servant, whom I had seen with him at my house some years before. He attended him in his last hours, and gave me the narration at large; which he would be ready, if it were requisite, to attest upon oath. On Friday, Sept. 20, 1745, when the whole army was drawn up, the colonel rode through all the ranks of his own regiment, addressing them at once in the most respectful and animating manner, both as soldiers and as Christians. They seemed much affected with the address, and expressed a very ardent desire of attacking the enemy immediately.

He continued all night under arms, wrapped up in his cloak, and generally sheltered under a rick of barley which happened to be in the field. About three in the morning he called his domestic servants to him, of which there were four in waiting. He dismissed three of them with most affectionate chris-

tian advice, and such solemn charges relating to the performance of their duty and the care of their souls, as seemed plainly to intimate that he apprehended it at least very probable he was taking his last farewell of them. There is great reason to believe he spent the little remainder of the time, which could not be much above an hour, in those devout exercises of soul which had so long been habitual to him, and to which so many circumstances did then concur to call him. The army was alarmed by break of day by the noise of the rebels' approach, and the attack was made before sun-rise, yet when it was light enough to discern what passed. As soon as the enemy came within gun-shot they made a furious fire; and it is said that the dragoons, which constituted the left wing, immediately fled. The colonel, at the beginning of the onset, which in the whole lasted but a few minutes, received a wound by a bullet in his left breast, which made him give a sudden spring in his saddle; upon which his servant, who had led the horse, would have persuaded him to retreat; but he said it was only a wound in the flesh, and fought on, though he presently after received a shot in his right thigh. The colonel was for a few moments supported by his men, and particularly by Lieutenant-Colonel Whitney, who was shot through the arm here, and a few months after fell nobly in the battle of Falkirk; and by Lieutenant West, a man of distinguished bravery, as also by about fifteen dragoons, who stood by him to the last. But, after a faint fire, the regiment in general was seized with a panic; and though their colonel and some other gallant officers did what they could to rally them once or twice, they at last took a precipitate flight. And just in the moment when Colonel Gardiner seemed to be making a pause, to deliberate what duty required him to do in such a circumstance, an accident happened which must, I think, in the judgment of every worthy and generous man, be allowed a sufficient apology for exposing his life to so great hazard when his regiment had left him. He saw a party of foot who were then bravely fighting near him, and whom he was ordered to support, had no officer to head them; upon which he said eagerly, in the hearing of the person from whom I had this account, "Those brave fellows would be cut to pieces for want of a commander," or words to that effect, which while he was speaking, he rode up to them, and cried out aloud, "Fire on, my lads, and fear nothing." But just as the words were out of his mouth, a Highlander advanced towards him with a scythe fastened to a long pole, with which he gave him such a deep wound on his right arm, that his sword dropped out of his hand; and at the same time several others coming about him while he was thus dreadfully entangled with that cruel weapon, he was dragged off from his horse. The moment he fell, another Highlander, who was executed about a year after, gave him a stroke either with a broadsword or a Lochabar axe on the hinder part of his head, which was the mortal blow. All that his faithful attendant saw further at this time was that, as his hat was fallen off, he took it in his left hand, and waved it as a signal for him to retreat; and added, what were the last words he ever heard him speak, "Take care of yourself;" upon which the servant retired. Such was the close of a life which had been so zealously devoted to God, and filled up with so many honourable services.



**GARNERIN.**—There were two brothers of this name who distinguished themselves for their aeronautic exhibitions. The elder, Jean Baptiste Olivier, before the revolution held an office in the bureau des fermes, afterwards in one of the bureaux of the national convention, and in the trial against the queen appeared as a witness against her. He was afterwards illuminateur in the palace of the ex-queen Hortensia and in that of Joseph Bonaparte. In September 1815, in company with Robertson, he superintended the experiments made with the parachute. September 21 his daughter Eliza, then at the age of twenty-four years, descended in the presence of the king of Prussia, by means of the parachute, from a height of 1800 fathoms. The younger brother André Jacques, after Blanchard, may be considered as the most experienced aeronaut. He invented the parachute, with which he made the first experiment in Paris in June 1799, and which he afterwards exhibited before the court of St. Petersburg in 1800. This was repeated in London two years afterwards, when he descended in the fields near Kentish Town. He died at Paris in 1823. Lenormand and others have also made experiments with the parachute. His brother claimed the honour of this invention, but he opposed these pretensions in a memoir published in a French journal.

**GARNET, HENRY**, an English Jesuit, who rendered himself notorious by his connexion with the gunpowder plot, for which he was tried and executed May 3, 1606. From circumstances which afterwards transpired he appears to have been very harshly dealt with, as his only acquaintance with the plot originated in the private confessional of his church.

**GARNET, THOMAS.**—This celebrated lecturer on physiology and chemistry was born at Casterton in Westmoreland. He commenced his professional career at the Anderson Institution, Glasgow, and in 1800 removed to London, where he died in 1802.

**GARRICK, DAVID.**—This eminent English actor was born at Hereford in 1716. His grandfather was a French refugee, his father a captain in the army. He was educated at the grammar school of Lichfield, but was more distinguished for his sprightliness than attachment to literature; and he gave an early proof of his dramatic tendency by inducing his schoolfellows to act the "Recruiting Officer," in which he himself took the part of Sergeant Kite, being then only twelve years of age. As the circumstances of his father were narrow he was sent to Lisbon upon the invitation of his uncle, a wine merchant in that capital. His stay at Lisbon was short, and, returning to Lichfield, he was placed under the celebrated Samuel Johnson. A love for the stage had however become firmly rooted in the mind of Garrick, and his grave tutor was induced to accompany him to the metropolis in 1736, where Garrick was afterwards placed under the care of a mathematician, with a view of cultivating his general powers previously to his admission at the Temple. The death of his father however disturbed this arrangement, and having been left a legacy of 1000*l.* by his uncle, he joined his brother, Peter Garrick, in the wine trade. This connexion was soon dissolved, and in 1741 he gave way to his inclination by joining Giffard's company at Ipswich, where under the name of Lyddal he played a great variety of parts with uniform success. At this time the stages

of the metropolis were but indifferently supplied with leading performers, so that when Giffard, who was manager of a theatre in Goodman's Fields, introduced his accomplished recruit there, October 19, 1741, the effect was immediate and decisive. He judiciously chose the part of Richard III., which required not that dignity of person which he did not possess, while it gave him a scope for all the marking of character and changes of passion in which his principal excellence consisted. He at the same time adopted a natural mode of recitation, which was a daring innovation on the part of a new performer before audiences accustomed to the artificial declamation of the school which preceded him. The part of Richard was repeated for many successive nights, and the established theatres were deserted. Their proprietors threatened Giffard with a prosecution as an infringer upon their patents, and Fleetwood drew Garrick over to Drury Lane. By acting at Covent Garden he had reduced Drury Lane to such a state of inferiority that Lacy, the patentee, was glad to admit him a partner upon equal terms in 1747, Lacy assuming the care of the property and general economy, and Garrick the management of the stage. Under these auspices Drury Lane opened in 1747, on which occasion his old and constant friend Dr. Johnson furnished the new manager with a celebrated prologue, one of the few which merit preservation. This period formed an era in the English stage, from which may be dated a comparative revival of Shakspeare, and a reform both in the conduct and license of the drama which is very honourable to the genius of the actor who effected it. In June 1749 Mr. Garrick was married to the celebrated Mademoiselle Violetti, who had arrived in England in 1741, bringing with her a recommendation from the countess of Stahremberg to the countess of Burlington, who received her on obtaining an engagement at the opera as an inmate of Burlington House.

Garrick was, at the time of his marriage with Mademoiselle Violetti, in the zenith of his fame, as an actor; and as patentee and stage-manager, the duties he had to perform were necessarily of a very arduous description. It was in 1754 that Mr. Garrick first resided at Hampton; and, in the following year, purchased, from Humphrey Prinsatt, Esq., the house and grounds, which received those embellishments which have rendered them so long the theme of general admiration, from the elegant taste and under the judicious direction and superintendence of Mrs. Garrick. Nor ought it to be omitted, that by her prudent attention to the internal economy and financial concerns of Drury Lane Theatre, her husband was relieved from a considerable portion of those cares which might otherwise have impeded the display of his genius and acquisitions.

Mr. Garrick had long meditated a journey to the continent, and several disagreeable circumstances, which had occurred during the last year of his theatrical management, had probably contributed to quicken his resolution of leaving, for a time, his native country. His own health and that of Mrs. Garrick were, at that time, not very good: the baths of Padua were celebrated for their healing power in certain disorders, and pronounced efficacious in Mrs. Garrick's case: exercise, amusement, and change of air, were also what he seemed to stand a good deal in need of. To a mind as active and inquisitive as

Garrick's, the knowledge of foreign customs was likely to afford him instruction as well as entertainment. The theatres on the continent, with their multifarious exhibitions, would, he doubted not, furnish him with proper materials to enrich his own dominions on his return home: how far he might have been influenced by these motives it is impossible to say, but it is certain that he set out for Dover, on his way to Calais, leaving the management of Drury Lane in the hands of his partner, Mr. Lacy, and his brother, George Garrick, whom he had appointed his substitute during his absence. In consequence of the accession of a new actor of the name of Powell to the corps dramatique of the theatre, and the extraordinary success with which his debut was attended, the loss of Garrick was productive of no prejudicial effects.

In 1773, Mr. Lacy, the joint-patentee of Drury Lane, paid his debt to nature, and left the entire burden of the management to Garrick, just at a time of life when he was becoming unequal to the task. For three years he did his best to fulfil the duties of his arduous situation, but at length came to the determination of retiring from the stage altogether, both as actor and manager. On the 10th of June, 1776, he made his final bow to the public. To him it was a moment big with regret, with sorrow, and heartfelt gratitude. He was for some time inclined to end his course with the part that he at first set out with; but, upon consideration, he judged that, after the fatigue of so laborious a character as Richard III., it would be out of his power to utter a farewell word to the audience. He therefore chose the part of Don Felix in the comedy of "The Wonder." Public notice was given that the profits of the night were to be assigned to the fund for the relief of those who should be obliged by their infirmities to retire from the stage. He prepared a prologue for the occasion, the last he ever spoke. At the end of the play he took his final leave of the public, whose protection and patronage he had enjoyed so long. On the day after Garrick had made his exit, he ordered the whole receipt of the preceding night to be paid to the fund for distressed actors. He had made a present of two houses in Drury Lane to the managers of that charitable institution, that they might have a convenient place for the meeting of their committees. Those gentlemen, finding that a room in the theatre answered their purposes, expressed their desire to sell the premises, in order to increase their stock, when Garrick became the purchaser of what he had voluntarily bestowed, at the price of 370*l.*; and afterwards, by his will, gave back those very houses to the fund.

Articles of agreement for the sale of his half share of the patent of Drury Lane had been some months before executed between him and Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Mr. Lindley, and Mr. Ford. The deeds for the final conclusion of the business were signed without delay by the contracting parties, and Garrick withdrew to his villa at Hampton, to pass the evening of his days in peace and tranquillity. In that agreeable retreat he began to breathe a freer air, and to enjoy a pleasing respite from the toils and exertions to which the greater part of his previous life had been devoted. He received the visits of the nobility, of the ablest scholars, and the men of genius in every branch of literature. He lived in an elegant style, and, to the luxuries of the table,

added his wit, and the polished manners of one who had been accustomed to mix in the best societies. Soon after the commencement of the play-house season, he and his lady usually came from Hampton to their house in the Adelphi, and were often seen in his box at Drury Lane when any thing of interest was to be performed.

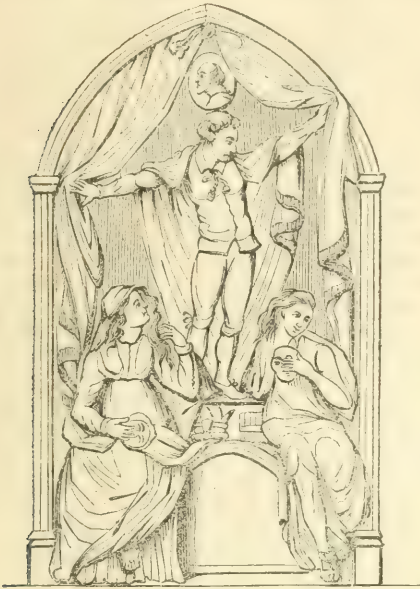
Garrick's employments were of the most amiable and praiseworthy kind, many of them indeed real labours of love and charity; one instance of which occurs in the following letter written at a late period of his life:—"The honest vicar of Egham—whom I am sure you regard, and whom I sincerely love from the best conviction of his worth, a long and intimate acquaintance with him—might be made the happiest man upon earth with a small addition to his present income, and without which I fear that he will be in an uncomfortable situation: he is obliged to undergo more labour and fatigue than he can possibly support another winter; he has not only the severe duty of Egham upon him, but, besides that, he is obliged to ride five or six miles through much water, and often to swim his horse, for the sake of about thirty pounds a-year. This, to a gouty man, and turned of sixty, is a terrible consideration. I entered lately into a very serious conversation with him about his affairs, and he confessed to me that he found a curate was necessary for him. I made him an offer of money for that purpose till something might happen, but he absolutely refused me. I am persuaded that any small preferment, with what he has, would make him look down with pity on the archbishop of Canterbury. 'My good friend Mr. Garrick,' said he, taking me by the hand, and giving his head the usual jerk of affection, 'could I have fifty pounds for a curate, and fifty to keep up my little garden, I feel no ambition or happiness beyond it.'—'And thirty,' said I, 'Beighton, to keep Hannah your housekeeper.'—'Pooh! pooh!' jerking his head again, 'you turn every thing into a joke; let me show you the finest arbor vitæ in the country.'—so away he trotted and forgot his wants in a moment. This is the plain, simple, and affecting truth; and I am certain, that if it were stated by General Fitzwilliams to the most princely disposition in the world, a truly worthy man would be made happy, whose life is ever active in the service of his friends.

"That no imprudent step of mine may be charged upon Mr. Beighton, I must assure you, upon my word and honour, that this is taken without his knowledge or concurrence: I have long felt for him, and wished for an occasion—as you have flattered me that I have sometimes had the power—to raise your feelings too for the honest vicar. My friend is a great dabbler in curiosities, and he has collected some few in his little library and garden; but I defy him to show me a greater rarity than himself, for he is a generous, modest, ingenious, and disinterested clergyman. This is the man for whom, as our Shakspeare says, I have at last 'screwed my courage to the sticking-place'; but if I have exerted it now improperly, at the expense of my modesty and your good opinion, I shall be very unhappy."

He was invited with Mrs. Garrick to spend the Christmas of the year 1779 at Althorp, the seat of Lord Spencer; but his enjoyments were soon interrupted by a violent attack of the disease which occasioned his death. He returned to his house in the Adelphi on the 15th of January, and five days



afterwards departed this life. On the first of the following February, the remains of David Garrick were conveyed with great pomp from his residence in the Adelphi to Westminster Abbey, and deposited in Poet's Corner, near the monument of Shakspeare. A handsome monument was some years afterwards



erected to his memory, not at the expense, as might have been supposed, of Mrs. Garrick, but at that of Mr. Albany Wallis. It stands in the south transept of Westminster Abbey, and has the following inscription:—

"To paint fair Nature, by divine command,  
Her magic pencil in his glowing hand,  
A Shakspeare rose—then, to expand his fame,  
Wide o'er this "breathing world," a Garrick came.  
Though sunk in death the forms the Poet drew,  
The Actor's genius bade them breathe anew:  
Though, like the bard himself, in night they lay,  
Immortal Garrick call'd them back to day:  
And till eternity, with power sublime,  
Shall mark the mortal hour of hoary Time,  
Shakspeare and Garrick, like twin stars, shall shine,  
And earth irradiate with a beam divine." PRATT.

GARTH, SIR SAMUEL, an English poet and physician of considerable eminence, who was admitted into the College of Physicians at London in 1693. He at that time supported and encouraged the erecting of a dispensary for the relief of the sick by giving them advice and medicines. This work of charity having exposed him and many other physicians to the resentment of several members of the same faculty, he ridiculed them with great spirit in a poem called the "Dispensary." Upon the accession of George I. he was knighted and made physician in ordinary to his majesty, and physician general to the army. He had a very extensive practice, but was very moderate in his endeavours to advance his own fortune; his good nature inclining him to make use of the interest he possessed with persons in power for the support and encouragement of men of letters. One of his last works was his translation of the whole fourteenth book, and the story of Cinnus in the fifteenth book, of Ovid's "Metamorphoses." These, together with an English version of the rest, were

published in 1717; and he has prefixed a preface to the whole, in which he points out its principal beauties. He died after a short illness, which he bore with great patience, in January 1719.

GARTHSHORE, MAXWELL, a very skilful physician, who was born at Kirkcudbright in Scotland. He early in life entered the army, but afterwards settled in London about 1763. He acquired considerable practice in the metropolis, and died at the age of eighty in 1812.

GASCOIGNE, SIR WILLIAM, a learned chief justice, who lived during the reign of King Henry IV. He is principally known from having, when he was insulted on the bench by the then prince of Wales, afterwards Henry V., with great coolness committed the young prince to prison; and by this display of firmness laid the foundation of the future glory of that great monarch, who from this event dated his reformation from the licentiousness of his youth. It is not a well-authenticated fact that the prince struck Sir William, as recorded by Shakspeare; but all authors agree that he interrupted the course of justice to screen an unworthy servant. Sir William died in 1413.

GASCOIGNE, GEORGE, an English poet of some eminence, who lived in the early part of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. He was educated at Cambridge, and afterwards removed to Gray's Inn, and commenced student of the law; but, being too volatile for study, he travelled abroad, and for some time served in the army in the Low Countries. He afterwards went to France, where he married. Being at length, says Wood, weary of those vanities, he returned to England, and settled once more in Gray's Inn, where he wrote most of his dramatic and other poems. The latter part of his life he spent in his native village of Walthamstow, where he died in the year 1578. His plays, first printed separately, were afterwards, with several other poems, &c., reprinted in two volumes quarto.

GASSENDI, PETER.—This distinguished French philosopher and mathematician was born in 1592. He received a good education, and at the age of nineteen was made professor of philosophy at Aix. Gassendi afterwards removed to Digne, where he remained till 1653, when in company with Francis Bernier, physician, and Anthony Poller his amanuensis, he returned to Paris. Here he lived in the house of M. Monmor, master of the court of requests, at whose request he had formerly engaged to write the life of Tycho Brahe, and then made several collections with that view; and this request being now renewed, he immediately set about the work, and published it at Paris, with the lives of Copernicus, Purbachius, and Regiomontanus, in 1654. But he neither suffered this nor any other business to prevent him from going on with his astronomical observations, and had no sooner finished the last-mentioned book than he proceeded to complete his system of the heavens. While he was thus employed, too intensely for the feeble state of his health, he suffered from a diseased state of the lungs, which had been relieved by the intermission of his studies; so that he was neither able to enjoy his garden-walks nor the society of his friends with his usual alacrity; and in the autumn of his years his case became desperate. In the first attack he had been relieved by bleeding, which, however, so much enfeebled him that he never recovered his former strength. Yet

this, as the only remedy in his case, was judged necessary by his physicians. He had suffered this depletion for the ninth time, when, perceiving himself to be too much sunk, he proposed to forbear a repetition of the process, thinking himself not able to undergo it; and two of his physicians had yielded to this suit, when a third, obstinately insisting on the contrary, drew his colleagues into his opinion. Gassendi submitted, and the operation was repeated even to the fourth time, at which, holding out his arm for the purpose, he said to Peter his amanuensis who constantly attended him, "It is more eligible by this deprivation of strength to sleep quietly in Christ than to be taken off with more pain by suffocation." Having undergone the operation, he expired about four in the afternoon on Sunday, October 22, 1655, in the sixty-third year of his age.

Gassendi's large and valuable library, together with his astronomical and philosophical apparatus, was purchased by the emperor Ferdinand III., and afterwards deposited, with other choice collections, in the imperial library at Vienna. The best edition of his works contains the philosophy and life of Epicurus; the author's own philosophy; his astronomical works; the lives of Peiresc, Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Purbach, Regiomontanus, John Muller, &c.; a refutation of the "Meditations of Des Cartes;" epistles, and other treatises. Bernier, a celebrated French physician, has given an accurate view of the philosophy of Gassendi in his abridgment of it, published in French at Lyons in 1684, in eight volumes.

**GASTRELL, FRANCIS**, a celebrated bishop of Chester, who was born in 1662, and was made bishop of Chester in 1714. He vindicated the rights of the university of Oxford against the archbishop of Canterbury in the appointment of the warden of Manchester College, and opposed the violent proceedings against Bishop Atterbury in the House of Lords. He died in 1725.

**GATAKER, THOMAS**, a critic and divine, who was born at London in 1574, and studied at St. John's College, Cambridge. He was afterwards chosen preacher of Lincoln's Inn, which he quitted in 1611 for the rectory of Rotherhithe in Surrey. In 1620 he made a tour through the Low Countries, and in 1624 published a work entitled "Transubstantiation Declared by the Confession of the Popish Writers to have no Necessary Foundation in God's Word." In 1642 he was appointed one of the assembly of divines, and was engaged with them in writing annotations upon the Bible. He died in July 1654. Besides the above works, he published "A Dissertation upon the Style of the New Testament;" an edition and translation of the emperor Marcus Antoninus's "Meditations," and many other learned theological works.

**GATTERER, JOHN CRISTOPHER**, a historiographer, who was born at Lichtenau, in 1727, and, devoting himself particularly to historical science, he obtained a place in the gymnasium at Nuremberg, and in 1785 became regular professor of history to Gottingen, and died there in 1799. He made himself master of the whole province of history and its auxiliary branches, geography, genealogy, heraldry, diplomacy, numismatics, and chronology; illustrated its departments by various important works and treatises, and introduced into the study of universal history, and the academic discourses on this subject, the improved method which connects the narrative

according to the order of time synchronically. Ancient history, particularly, was indebted to his industry, deep erudition, and spirit of research, and it is to be regretted that many of his works were left unfinished.

**GAU, CHARLES FRANCIS**, of Cologne, a French architect, who was educated at the Academy of Arts in Paris. He afterwards went to Rome, where he conceived the bold design of travelling into Nubia, of making a continuation of the grand work on Egypt, and finishing by his own single labours the undertaking of the Egyptian institute. He consulted with the celebrated Niebuhr respecting this journey, and a rich traveller offered to accompany him; they separated, however, on their arrival in Egypt. Nevertheless, Gau resolved to proceed, although destitute of means. He followed a caravan from Alexandria on foot, without baggage, and lived on the hospitality of the Arabs, without being able to speak their language. He at length reached the pyramids. Drovetti, the former French consul, procured a firman to enable him to proceed, and Gau arrived at Thebes. There Drovetti chose some Arabs, to whom he recommended, with promises of reward, the life and safety of the young traveller, and furnished the boat which was to receive them with biscuits, rice, and dry pulse. Four sailors, a pilot, and a French Mameluke, who was to act as an interpreter, were added to the company. In fourteen days Gau arrived at Essuan, where are the ruins of the ancient Syene, intentionally hastening by Ermenti, Edfu, and Com Ombo. Permission had been granted him to pass the falls of the Nile, and even to retain the sailors whom he had brought with him from Thebes, contrary to the usual custom, but he only took with him from Essuan a Nubian pilot, and an interpreter of the Barabara language spoken in Nubia. In the way which was in use in the times of Herodotus, Gau passed over the first falls of the Nile, and availing himself of the wind, which was favourable to his ascending the stream to the second falls of the Nile, he took only a flying survey of the places which he intended to examine more minutely on his return, and happily reached the end of his destination. He was now at liberty to stay where he pleased, and to take drawings and measurements at his leisure. The faithfulness of his drawings, which is preserved also in the engravings, and the accuracy of his measurements and other statements, called forth from the French critics a unanimous testimony, that his work entitled "Newly-discovered Monuments of Nubia" forms a necessary continuation of "the work of victory and genius," and may be properly joined to the magnificent description of Egypt, which embraces the region of the Nile only as far as Philæ. The text was committed for the most part to the care of Niebuhr, in whose hands Gau left the numerous inscriptions which he had collected in Nubia.

**GAUDEN, DR. JOSEPH**, an ecclesiastic, who was born in 1605. At the commencement of the civil war he became chaplain to Robert earl of Warwick, who took part with the parliament against the king, and was followed by his chaplain. Upon the establishment of the Presbyterian worship he complied with the ruling powers, and was nominated one of the assembly of divines who met at Westminster in 1643, and took the oath to the covenant. He did not however espouse the parliamentary cause



any longer than they adhered to their first avowed principles of reforming only, as he was one of the first divines who signed a protestation to the army against their violent proceedings that affected the life of the king; and a few days after his execution published the tract entitled, "A Portraiture of his Sacred Majesty in his Solitude and Sufferings," which ran through fifty editions in the course of a year. Upon the return of Charles II. he was promoted to the see of Exeter, and in 1662 was removed to Worcester, where he died in the same year. He was the author of several controversial works suited to the circumstances of the times, and to his own views from them.

**GAULTIER, LOUIS.**—This ingenious philosopher and philanthropist was born in Italy. He early distinguished himself for his desire to diminish the difficulties which usually impede the progress of young students. His "Games of Learning" have since acquired considerable celebrity. He died in 1818.

**GAUSS, CHARLES FREDERIC,** a learned mathematician, who was born in April 1777 in Brunswick. He displayed, when at school, striking indications of talent, and attracted the notice of Duke Charles William Ferdinand, who interested himself in the further education of the youth. In his disputation for the doctor's degree in 1799, Gauss showed great acuteness and ingenuity in the criticisms which he made upon the former attempts to demonstrate the first principles of algebra, at the same time proposing a new and rigorous demonstration of his own. But in 1801 he gave a more brilliant display of his powers in his "Disquisitiones Mathematicæ," a work full of the most refined mathematical speculation.

**GAUTIER, D'AGOTY,** an eminent artist and naturalist. He published several works, in which he exhibited considerable skill both as an engraver and physiologist. He prepared his own dissections, and illustrated his works with coloured plates. He died in 1785. There were several other artists of the same family, but they did not attain equal eminence with the above individual.

**GAY, JOHN,** an eminent poet, who was born in 1688, and after completing his education was apprenticed to a silk-mercier in London. He showed such a dislike to trade, that after a few years his indentures were cancelled by agreement, and he immediately devoted himself to literature. In 1711 he published his "Rural Sports," which he dedicated to Pope; and this compliment, which introduced them to each other, proved the foundation of a friendship which lasted for life. In 1712 he accepted the office of secretary to Anne duchess of Monmouth, which left him at leisure to pay his court to the Muses; and his pleasant mock-heroic poem, entitled "Trivia, or the Art of Walking the Streets of London," was published in the same year. In 1714 his caricature of Ambrose Philips's pastoral poetry was published, under the title of the "Shepherd's Week," and dedicated to Lord Bolingbroke, who, with the Tory party then in power, much befriended the poet. By their interest he was appointed secretary to the earl of Clarendon, in his embassy to the court of Hanover; but the death of the queen once more threw a cloud upon his prospects.

In 1715 appeared his burlesque drama of "What d'ye call it?" which was followed by a farce, in conjunction with Pope and Arbuthnot, called "Three

Weeks after Marriage," which altogether failed. In 1720 he published his poems by subscription, by which he secured a thousand pounds, and a present of South Sea stock from Secretary Craggs. In 1723 he produced his tragedy of the "Captives," and some instances of court favour encouraged him to employ himself in his well-known fables, written professedly for the instruction of the duke of Cumberland, and published with a dedication to that prince in 1726. This performance exhibits great ease of narration, and much lively and natural painting. His "Beggars' Opera," the notion of which seems to have been afforded by Swift, was first acted in 1727 at Lincoln's Inn Fields, having been previously refused at Drury Lane. Its chief purpose was to ridicule the Italian Opera; but the spirit of the poet rendered it a unique performance from the mixture of nature, pathos, burlesque, and satire which it contains. It ran for sixty-three successive nights, and transformed the actress who represented the heroine into a duchess, but so offended the persons in power, that the lord chamberlain refused to license for performance a second part of it, entitled "Polly." This resentment induced his friends and the party in opposition to come forward on its publication with so handsome a subscription, that his profits amounted to 1200*l.*, whereas the "Beggars' Opera" had gained him only 400*l.* The duke and duchess of Queensbury took him into their house, and managed his pecuniary concerns. He was soon after seized with dejection of spirits, but enjoyed intervals of ease sufficient to enable him to compose his sonata of "Acis and Galatea," and the opera of "Achilles." He died in 1732, and was interred in Westminster Abbey, and a handsome monument



erected to his memory by his munificent friends the duke and duchess of Queensbury. The following lines written by himself have been justly censured for their levity :

"Life is a jest, and all things show it :  
I thought so once, but now I know it."

Beneath is the following inscription by Pope :—

"Of manners gentle, of affections mild;  
In wit a man, simplicity a child;  
With native humour temp'ring virtuous rage,  
Form'd to delight at once and lash the age;  
Above temptation in a low estate,  
And uncorrupted e'en among the great;  
A safe companion and an easy friend,  
Unblam'd through life, lamented in thy end:  
These are thy honours;—not that here thy bust  
Is mix'd with heroes, or with kings thy dust;  
But that the worthy and the good shall say,  
Striking their pensive bosoms—Here lies Gay!"

GAY-LUSSAC, a chemist and natural philosopher of the highest eminence, who first brought himself into notice at Paris by ascending in a balloon with Biot to the height of 3600 toises, a greater height than had been ever before reached. This ascension was the means of leading him to a number of remarkable discoveries in natural philosophy, which (as, for instance, his observations on the rising and falling of the mercury, and many other fluid and elastic bodies in the higher region of the atmosphere, as well as under different degrees of temperature) have been confirmed by repeated experiments, and gave occasion to the investigations of Dalton upon the uncommon expansion of the volume of fluids (especially water) in passing through all the degrees of temperature from the freezing to the boiling point. At a subsequent period Gay-Lussac joined with Alexander Humboldt in an attempt to determine exactly the deviation of the magnetic from the terrestrial equator, in which they both took for the basis of their work the observations of La Peyrouse relating to this subject. He was the author of several valuable scientific works.

GAZA, THEODORE, a learned successor of Emanuel Chrysoloras as teacher of the Greek language and literature in the West. He came a fugitive, after the capture of Constantinople, through Turkey to Italy, and there speedily acquired a thorough knowledge of the language of the country. In 1440 he became a public teacher at Ferrara, and in 1451 Pope Nicholas V. invited him, with other learned men, to Rome, where Cardinal Bessarion took him into his suite. After the death of Nicholas, King Alphonso invited him to Naples. When death had deprived him of this patron also, he returned again to Rome. Here, however, he was so mortified by the smallness of a reward given him by Pope Sixtus IV. for a dedication, that he withdrew to Ferrara, and from that place to Calabria, where he died in 1478. Gaza laboured for the diffusion of Greek literature not only by teaching, but also by his writings, and especially by Latin translations of the Greek classics.

GEBER, an Arabian philosopher who, according to Leo Africanus, lived in the eighth century. He is said to have been a Greek by birth, and to have apostatized from Christianity to Mohammedanism. His writings relate to astronomy and chemistry, or rather alchemy, on which last subject his authority was so great that he was styled the *master of masters* in that art. A Latin translation of his "Commentary on the Almagest of Ptolemy" was printed at Nuremberg in 1533, and his alchemical works were published in Latin, by Golius, under the title of "Lapis Philosophorum," and an English translation of them by Robert Russel appeared at Leyden in 1668. Geber corrected many errors in the astronomy of the ancients, and described chemical instruments and operations with greater accuracy than his predecessors. Vulgar ignorance ascribed to this

philosopher the character of a magician, on which Naudé remarks, that from the catalogue of the works of Geber given by Gesner, it may be concluded he understood every thing except magic.

GEDDIES, ALEXANDER, a Catholic divine of considerable eminence, who was born in Scotland in 1737. At the age of twenty-one he was sent to the Scottish college at Paris, and returning to Scotland in 1764 officiated as priest among the Catholics in Angus. In 1779 the university of Aberdeen granted him the degree of LL.D., he being the first Catholic, since the Reformation, to whom it had been assigned. About this time he came to London with the intention of obtaining facilities for his plan of a new English translation of the Old and New Testament. In consequence of the known opinions of Doctor Geddes in regard to the plenary inspiration of the Scriptures and the divine mission of Moses, his work met with much censure, and his own immediate superiors suspended him. In 1797 he published the second volume of his translation, which, displaying equal latitude, produced similar censures from both Catholics and Protestants. He was in the midst of a translation of the Psalms when he died in 1802 after a very painful illness. This learned but eccentric divine wrote many tracts of more or less power in vindication of his peculiar notions and opinions, as well as some indifferent verses. Dr. Geddes' disposition was truly philanthropic and benevolent, and his wit and vivacity contributed greatly to the delight of the social parties in which he mixed. He was a uniform advocate for uncontrolled freedom of opinion and of discussion.

GEDIKE, FREDERIC, a learned German scholar, who did much for the advancement of education. He was born in 1754 at Boberow, a village near Lentzen in Brandenburg. In 1771 he went to the university of Frankfort, and in 1779 became rector of a gymnasium in Berlin. He was afterwards transferred to another gymnasium of the same city, where he died in 1803. His zeal to promote education was untiring, and the north of Germany is deeply indebted to him for his services. His "Readers and Chrestomathias" in several languages have long been considered the best. His works on education contain many useful ideas.

GELLERT, CHRISTIAN, a distinguished German poet, who was born in 1715. His first poetical production was entitled "Amusements of Reason and Wit." He afterwards published a novel of considerable merit and a work called "Consolations for Valetudinarians." In 1751 he was made professor extraordinary of philosophy at Leipsic, and he was afterwards offered another appointment in the same university, but was unable to accept it on account of ill health. His death took place in 1769. In addition to the works already mentioned, Gellert was the author of several poems of great merit, and although not a poet of the first class he deserves to be ranked among the classics of his native land on account of the purity of his style of narration and didactic composition.

GELLIUS, AULUS, a learned Roman author, who lived under Adrian and the Antonines. He studied rhetoric at Rome, and philosophy at Athens, and afterwards received the dignity of a centumvir. He is the author of "Noctes Atticæ," or Attic Nights, which are full of interesting observations, particularly for philologists and critics; these he collected in the



winter nights during his residence at Athens, from the best Latin and Greek authors.

GELON, a king of Syracuse, of which he became sovereign about 500 B. C. When Greece was threatened by Xerxes, Athens and Sparta sent ambassadors to him to conclude an alliance against the king of Persia. Gelon offered 206 galleys, 20,000 heavy-armed soldiers, 4000 horsemen, 2000 archers, and as many slingers, with provisions for them during the war, if they would yield to him the supreme command by land and sea: the conditions were rejected. Gelon therefore refused the desired assistance, and sent one of his followers named Cadmus to Delphi, with orders to await the result of the war, and if the Greeks were overcome, to pay homage to Xerxes in his name, and to send him valuable presents. He was not then aware that Xerxes had induced the Carthaginians, while he was assailing the Greeks in their own country, to make an attack on their settlements in Sicily and Italy. Hamilcar finally landed at Panormus, with a fleet of 2000 ships of war and 3000 transports, carrying in all 300,000 land troops, and laid siege to Himera. Gelon marched against this army with 50,000 infantry and 5000 cavalry. He learnt from an intercepted letter that Hamilcar intended to engage in a solemn sacrifice the next day, and to receive auxiliary troops into his camp.

Gelon succeeded in introducing in the room of the auxiliaries a detachment of his own cavalry into the enemy's camp, which fell upon Hamilcar in the midst of his religious ceremony, slew him, and set fire to his ships. At the same time Gelon assailed the Carthaginians, who were dejected by the death of their general and the loss of their fleet, and totally discomfited them. This remarkable battle happened on the same day on which the Greeks were victorious at Marathon. It is celebrated in an ode by Pindar. The booty was immense, and Gelon offered the Carthaginians peace only on condition that they should pay 2000 talents of silver, erect two temples for preserving the conditions of peace, and abolish for ever human sacrifices. His next ambition was to obtain the title of royalty. For this purpose he summoned a meeting of the people, before whom he appeared unarmed and declared his intention of resigning his high power. All were filled with wonder and astonishment, and the general voice hailed him as the preserver of Syracuse. The royal title was unanimously conferred upon him, and the people persisted in compelling him to accept it. Generosity and kindness were the characteristics of Gelon's administration, and he always endeavoured to make his people happy; he died after a reign of seven years, and was succeeded by his brother Hiero.

GENLIS, STEPHANIE FELICITE DUCREST DE ST. AUBIN.—This distinguished lady was born in 1746, and is principally known for the number and excellence of her writings on education. By her marriage with the count de Genlis, she became niece to Mad. de Montesson, who was privately married to the duke of Orleans, and in 1782 she was appointed governess to the children of the duke of Chartres, the father of the present king of the French, and in the prosecution of her duties of royal preceptress she wrote for the use of her pupils several educational works of great merit, which have all been translated into our own language. When Napoleon was at the head of affairs in France, he bestowed on Madame de Genlis an annual pension of 6000 francs, and she

resided at Paris for a number of years chiefly employed in literary pursuits, and besides other works she published "*Memoires Inédits de Mad. la Comte de Genlis sur la 18mo. Siècle et la Revolution Française depuis 1756 jusqu'à nos Jours.*" After the restoration of the Bourbons she experienced the kindest attentions from her former pupil, who, on his elevation to the throne after the revolution in 1830, offered Mad. de Genlis splendid apartments in the Tuileries. This occurred just before her death, which took place suddenly on the 31st of December, 1830.

GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH, an ecclesiastic and historian of the twelfth century, who, according to Leland was educated at Monmouth in a convent of the Benedictines, whose society he entered. He was afterwards made archdeacon of Monmouth, whence he was raised to the bishopric of St Asaph, but the state of affairs in North Wales induced him to retire to the court of Henry II. Geoffrey wrote various works, but his "*Chronicle, or History of the Britons,*" is the only production of his pen which requires notice. This Chronicle is now known to be, as the compiler states, chiefly a translation from Armorican manuscripts. It contains a pretended genealogy of the kings of Britain, from the time of the fabulous Bruce or Brute, the Trojan; and many of the wonderful stories told of King Arthur take their rise in this work.

GEOFFRIN, MARIE THERESE RODET, MADAME.—This lady was born in 1699, and was alike distinguished by her qualities of mind and heart, and during half a century was the ornament of the most polite and cultivated societies in Paris. She was educated by her grandmother, and early accustomed to think and judge justly. She afterwards became the wife of a man who left her in the possession of a considerable fortune, which she employed partly in assisting the needy, and partly in assembling around her a select circle of distinguished persons. An attentive study of mankind, enlightened by reason and justice, had taught Mad. Geoffrin that the human race are more weak and vain than wicked, that it is necessary to overlook the weakness and bear with the vanity of others, that they in turn may bear with ours. Her favourite maxim therefore was, "Give and forgive." From her very childhood she was of a most charitable disposition, and she wished to perpetuate her benevolence through the hands of her friends. "They will be blessed," said she, "and they in their turn will bless my memory." Thus she assigned to one of her friends who was poor an income of 1200 livres for his lifetime. "If you should grow richer," said she, "distribute the money out of love to me, when I can use it no longer." "The question is often asked," says La Harpe, "whether this woman, who converses so much with wits, is herself a wit: she is not so, but she possesses a sound judgment, and a wise moderation is the foundation of her character. She exhibits that pleasing politeness which is gained only by intercourse with society; and no one has a more delicate feeling of propriety." Among the great number of strangers who visited her house in Paris, the most distinguished was Count Poniatowsky, afterwards king of Poland. He apprized her of his accession to the throne with these words: "*Maman, votre fils est roi,*" inviting her at the same time to Warsaw. On her journey thither in 1768 she was received at Vienna in the most flattering manner by the emperor and empress. The latter having met Mad. Geoffrin

while taking a ride with her children, immediately stopped and presented them to her. Upon her arrival at Warsaw, she found a room there perfectly like the one she had occupied in Paris. She returned to Paris, after having received the most flattering marks of respect, and died in 1777.

GEOFFROY, JULIEN LOUIS, one of the most celebrated French critics, who was born at Rennes in 1743. He studied in the schools of the Jesuits, and was left in very straitened circumstances by the suppression of that order. He then became a tutor in the family of a rich individual; and having frequent opportunities of visiting the theatre, he contracted a taste for the drama, which led him to the study of the dramatic art, to an examination of its principles, of the merit of the different pieces, the genius of the poets, and the talents of the actors. In order to understand more thoroughly the theory of the art, he wrote a tragedy, the "Death of Cato," merely as an exercise. He offered the piece to the directors of the theatre, who received it and granted him free entrance. This was all he wished, and he never made any attempt to bring the piece on the stage. At a later period a tragedy under the same name was published, and ascribed to him by some malicious wit, said to have been Cubieres Palmezeaux. Geoffroy had hitherto supported himself by giving private instruction; he now endeavoured to become a professor in the university. Having carried off the annual prize for the best Latin discourse in 1773 and the two succeeding years, it was considered necessary to establish the rule that the same person should not receive the prize more than three times. In the competition for the prize offered by the French Academy for the best panegyric on Charles V., La Harpe was the successful candidate, but honourable mention was made of Geoffroy's performance.

Geoffroy then entered upon the career in which he gained so much reputation. The proprietors of the "Année Littéraire" were desirous of finding a man able to fill with honour Fréron's place, and to maintain the credit of that celebrated critical journal; and their choice fell upon Geoffroy, who a short time before had received the professorship of eloquence in the college of Mazarin, and was considered the ablest of the professors of rhetoric. He accepted the offer, and conducted that journal from 1776 till two years after the breaking out of the revolution. During these fifteen years he enriched it with profound and interesting articles on philosophy, morals, and literature. The revolution, to the principles of which Geoffroy was opposed, put an end to these occupations; and, in connexion with the abbé Royon, he then undertook another journal, "L'Ami du Roi," but both journal and editors were soon after proscribed. Geoffroy fled to an obscure village, where he lived in disguise, teaching the children of the peasants, until the year 1799, when he returned to Paris. In 1800 he undertook the dramatical criticism in the "Journal des Débats," which afterwards appeared under the name "Journal de l'Empire," thus entering under favourable auspices on a new career, which rendered him truly celebrated. He received for his labours a salary of 24,000 francs. For a little more than ten years false doctrines had introduced confusion into philosophy, morals, politics, and literature; truth and sound principles seemed to have been forgotten, and appeared, when revived, like new discoveries. Criticism gained a great advantage by thus

being permitted to examine into truths which had already been investigated a hundred times, and to speak of ancient and modern literature as if neither had ever been judged before. Geoffroy investigated with sagacity, and without sparing the principles of modern writers. They insulted and calumniated him. Still he appeared every morning with new expositions and new sarcasms. He did not always remain within the bounds of moderation; his wit was often too severe, his sarcasms in bad taste. He once censured an actress for her manner in a piece in which she had never acted. Upon the whole, however, it must be acknowledged that Geoffroy knew how to be just if he intended to be so, and that he generally had this intention. He made a great many enemies, for he was obliged to deal with the vanity of dramatic poets and actors; but he had also many friends, who appreciated his judgment, learning, and talents, and admired the fecundity of his mind that in so narrow a subject was never at a loss for new resources. Even if we cannot always admit his principles, we never tire of reading his observations; and the "Journal de l'Empire," during the time that Geoffroy wrote its *Feuilleton*, had the most extensive circulation of all the French daily papers. Notwithstanding this occupation he found time for publishing in 1808 a "Commentary on Racine," in seven volumes. If in this work the poetry of that great author is not deeply investigated, it has other merits, for the excellent translations which it contains of several fragments, and even of two entire tragedies of the ancients. He published also a translation of Theocritus in 1801, and died at Paris in 1814.

GEORGE LEWIS I., king of Great Britain, and elector of Hanover, was the son of the elector Ernest Augustus, by Sophia, daughter of Frederic elector palatine, and granddaughter to James I. He was born in 1660, and was early trained to arms under his father. In 1682 he married his cousin, Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the duke of Zell. He then engaged in the service of the emperor, and signalized his valour in three campaigns against the Turks in Hungary. In 1700 he succeeded to the electorate, and on his succession joined in the alliance against France. The command of the imperial army was conferred upon him after the battle of Blenheim in 1707, but owing to the jealousies among his confederates he resigned the command at the end of three campaigns. At the peace of Rastadt, Louis XIV. recognised the electoral dignity in the house of Lunenburg, as he had already by the treaty of Utrecht recognised the succession of the same house to the throne of Great Britain, which event took place on the death of Anne in 1714, when the elector was in the fifty-fourth year of his age.

On the accession of George I. he was thrown into the arms of the Whigs, who alone maintained the principles by which the Stuarts had been set aside. Owing to the disaffection of the high church clergy and the Jacobites, tumults ensued in various parts of the country, until at length in 1715 the earl of Mar openly proclaimed the successor of the Stuarts in Scotland. This insurrection being ill seconded by the English Jacobites, was entirely quelled, and several of the leaders lost their lives on the scaffold. The disaffection to the new family continued, however, so great that the Whigs were driven into some unpopular measures with a view to support it, the most indefensible of which was the septennial act,



extending the duration of parliament from three years to seven. The king, who probably considered the possession of the British crown precarious, sought to increase the value of his German territories by the purchase of Bremen and Verden, which accession he determined to support against the claims of Sweden. This involved him in a quarrel with Charles XII., who, in conjunction with the czar Peter, projected an invasion of Scotland in favour of the Pretender. To obviate this danger George entered into an alliance with Holland and France.

The death of Charles XII. in 1717 put an end to this alarm, which was soon renewed by the project of the celebrated Spanish minister, Cardinal Alberoni, who formed a quadruple alliance between the three powers already mentioned, with the accession of the emperor. The seizure of Sardinia and invasion of Italy by the Spaniards gave a pretence for the sailing of a British naval expedition into the Mediterranean, under Sir George Byng, who nearly destroyed the whole of the Spanish fleet off Sicily. This success was followed by the recovery both of Sicily and Sardinia. Spain was obliged to accede to the terms of the allied powers, and a pacification of the north of Europe was effected by the mediation of Great Britain. In 1722 a new conspiracy against the government was discovered, which led to the apprehension of several persons, among whom was the celebrated Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, who was exiled for life.

In 1725 a treaty between Spain and the emperor excited King George's jealousy so much that he deemed it necessary to counteract it by another at Hanover, comprising most of the other European powers. The Spaniards then commenced the siege of Gibraltar; but all differences were finally settled by a negotiation, during which the king, who had set out on a journey to the continent, was seized with a paralytic attack, of which he died at Osnaburg, June 11, 1727, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

George I. was plain and simple in his taste and appearance; he possessed much natural prudence and good sense, and his management of his German dominions was able. Having put away his wife several years before his death, he had several female favourites, but was not governed by them.

*George R*

GEORGE AUGUSTUS II., king of Great Britain, son of George I. was born in 1683. He married in 1703 Wilhelmina Dorothea Carolina of Brandenburg-Anspach, and came to England with his father at the accession of the latter, and was created prince of Wales. He was made regent during the king's visit to the continent in 1716, but a political difference ensuing, he lived some time estranged from the court. This breach was finally accommodated, and in 1727 he succeeded to the throne. He inherited in full force the predilection of George I. for Germany; and the same system of politics, and

the same ministers, continued to govern the nation after his succession as before it.

On the death of the emperor Charles VI., France and other powers endeavoured to strip his daughter Maria Theresa of her inheritance, which conduct induced George II., as guarantee of the pragmatic sanction, to declare in her favour. An English army was accordingly sent to the continent, and strengthened by a body of Hanoverians in British pay. The king himself shared in the campaign, the conduct of which was, however, intrusted to the earl of Stair. The battle of Dettingen followed, in which the French were defeated, but with little benefit to the victors, who were obliged to quit the field of battle and abandon their wounded. In this battle the king displayed great bravery; but as he interfered with the direction of Lord Stair, that officer soon after resigned in disgust, and the command of the army was intrusted to the king's second son, William, duke of Cumberland, who lost the sanguinary battle of Fontenoi in 1744, and the French remained ascendant in Flanders during the rest of the war.

In 1745 the young Pretender made a descent on the northern part of the island, and took possession of Edinburgh. Having defeated the royal troops at Preston Pans, he entered England; but although he penetrated without opposition as far as Derby, the people showed but little inclination to his cause. The arrival of the duke of Cumberland with several regiments from Flanders, and the rapid assemblage of troops from all quarters to oppose and intercept him, decided him to retreat; and the battle of Culloden, April 17, 1746, terminated the struggles of the house of Stuart. During these events the king received numerous demonstrations of attachment to his person and family, and it was obvious that the greater part of the nation connected the interests of civil liberty with the support of the principles which had called the house of Hanover to the throne.

In 1748 the war, which had been very unproductive of advantage to England, was terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. In 1751 died Frederic, prince of Wales, who, having lived for a considerable time at variance with his father, was naturally thrown into the opposition party, and thereby became the avowed patron of popular maxims of government. In 1755 the disputes between Great Britain and France, in relation to their respective boundaries in Canada, produced hostilities in that country, and an open war between the two nations the following year. The events of this war, in which the principal powers of Europe became engaged, under the able auspices of Pitt (first earl of Chatham), raised Great Britain to the pinnacle of power. In this state of affairs George II. died suddenly, October 25, 1760, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and thirty-third of his reign.

George II. was a prince of very moderate abilities, parsimonious, and wholly regardless of science or literature; hasty and obstinate, but honest and open in his disposition. His queen, the cultivated and well-informed Caroline, acquired a great ascendancy over him, which did not, however, prevent some of the irregular attachments which so often degrade royalty.

GEORGE AUGUSTUS III., king of Great Britain.—The monarch whose life we are now about to trace, though not possessed of very eminent talents, yet acted a very important part in the extraordinary events that characterized the latter part

of the eighteenth and the beginning of the present century.



George III. was born June 4th, 1738, and created prince of Wales in 1751. It appears from the "Diary of George Bubb Dodington," and other documents, that the prince's first tutors were the bishops of Norwich and Peterborough. When prince of Wales his life was mostly passed in seclusion. In his political opinions it was not strange that the earl of Bute, as his governor and early companion, and even the friend and confidant of a prince in his twenty-second year, should gain an ascendancy over him. Hence that he should ere long become his minister was an event easily to be predicted and forgiven. The charge brought against his majesty of his preference of the Scots to the English, at the commencement of his reign, has not been substantiated; but another reproach, better founded, against the directors of the young king's education, was, that they filled him with predilections more befitting a despot of the Stuart line than a successor of William III. The liberal course of instruction suggested by the prince's preceptors was set aside by Lord Bute's influence. A work written by Father Orleans, a Jesuit, was made the manual of the future sovereign of these realms; and when his first tutor, Dr. Hayter, bishop of Norwich, engaged Dr. Tucker to prepare an elementary work on the principles of commerce and of political economy, the influence of the earl of Bute frustrated this design, and the worthy bishop resigned, as did also Lord Harcourt, the prince's governor. The bishop of Peterborough was made preceptor to the prince in 1753.

The princess of Wales, his mother, furnishes the following character of the young prince at the age of seventeen. She said that "he was shy and backward; not a wild, dissipated boy, but good-natured and cheerful, with a serious cast upon the whole; that those about him knew him no more than if they had never seen him. That he was not quick, but with those he was acquainted, applicable and intelligent. His education had given her much pain. His book-learning she was no judge of, though she supposed it small or useless; but she hoped he might

have been instructed in the general understanding of things." He was brought up in great privacy as far as regarded a familiar acquaintance with the prevailing manners of the young nobility; and the prejudices which George II. entertained against the princess dowager effectually excluded his grandson from the deceitful splendours and allurements of a court.

George III. came to the throne October 25th, 1760, and he was environed with brilliant prospects for himself and his dominions. The British arms had triumphed every where. The nation were in buoyant spirits, and the new sovereign had qualities, personal and mental, of a nature to enhance the popularity which awaited his accession. The most distinguished persons of that day have left on record their admiration of his graceful and engaging manners. Horace Walpole writes thus in his letters to Mr. Montague:—

"The young king has all the appearance of being amiable. There is great grace, to temper much dignity, and extreme good-nature, which breaks out upon all occasions. \* \* \* For the king himself, he seems all good-nature, and wishing to satisfy every body—all his speeches are obliging. I saw him again yesterday, and was surprised to find the levee-room had lost so entirely the air of the lion's den. This sovereign don't stand in one spot, with his eyes fixed royally on the ground, and dropping bits of German news; he walks about, and speaks to every body. I saw him afterwards on the throne, where he is graceful and genteel, sits with dignity, and reads his answers well." His first address to parliament was delivered with such propriety and striking dignity that it formed the topic of conversation every where.

Measures for proclaiming his majesty were immediately entered into by the lords of the privy council assembling at Carlton House. Upon giving orders for that purpose, his majesty made a most gracious declaration to them, and caused all the lords and others of the former king's privy council to be sworn.

On his majesty's accession to the throne, the commons immediately voted him a clear annual income of eight hundred thousand pounds for the maintenance of the household and the civil list: they also granted the supplies, amounting to nineteen millions. This liberality was in 1761 speedily repaid by the augmentation of the salaries of the judges, and rendering them independent of the crown. A bill was also introduced, and received the sanction of the legislature, for the relief of insolvent debtors. On the 19th of May, soon after the session was closed, parliament was dissolved, and writs issued for the election of a new one.

Most of the ministry kept their places; but the earl of Bute, whom the king had known from his infancy, succeeded Lord Holderness as secretary of state; and Mr. Legge, chancellor of the exchequer, gave place to Lord Barrington. Charles Townshend was appointed secretary of war, but Mr. Pitt continued principal secretary, and maintained his influence in the cabinet. The earl of Bute was also appointed ranger of Richmond Park, in the room of the princess Amelia: a creation of peers soon followed, and twelve additional lords were appointed to the bed-chamber.

Shortly after his majesty came to the throne, he



married her serene highness the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh, by whom he had a large family; and the parliament determined that in case the queen should survive his majesty, she should enjoy a provision of 100,000*l.* per annum during her life, together with the palace of Somerset House, and the lodge and lands at Richmond Park; and that the said annuity should be charged upon all or any part of those revenues of the crown which, by an act made in the last session, were directed to be consolidated with the aggregate fund. A bill formed on these resolutions passed both houses without opposition, and of course received the royal assent. The queen, who was present, had the pleasure to hear the speaker renew, upon presenting the bill, the former assurances of the duty and affection of the commons, blended with the most respectful and delicate compliments to her majesty. The provision thus made for her majesty in the event of survivorship was the same as that which had been settled upon the late queen Caroline, being 100,000*l.* a-year, with Richmond Old Park and Somerset House. In lieu of the palace of Somerset House, Buckingham House was at the end of the year purchased by his majesty for the queen for 21,000*l.*

During the spring of 1776 a change took place in the education of the two elder princes, the king's sons, Lord Bruce, their governor, being superseded by the duke of Montague, and Dr. Markham, as tutor, by Bishop Hurd. This alteration was much talked of at the time, and various reasons were assigned for it; the most credited of which was, that Lord Bruce, having been corrected with respect to a classical quotation by the prince of Wales, thought it prudent to retire from an office which, whatever might be his merits in other respects, he was but indifferently qualified to fill as a scholar. The same objection certainly could not apply to the bishop of Chester; but then it was said, that though his lordship's classical abilities were of the first order, his manner of conveying instruction was far from being easy or agreeable. The appointment was accordingly made, but without giving offence to Lord Bruce or Dr. Markham, the one being created earl of Aylesbury, and the other being elevated soon after to the see of York. This last promotion afforded the queen an opportunity of exerting her influence in raising Dr. Porteus to the episcopal bench. The piety of the bishop rendered him very acceptable to the queen, who, indeed, was never more happy than in showing her esteem for those who exerted their talents in behalf of religion, of which the pensions she procured for Dr. Blair and Dr. Fordyce may also be adduced as striking instances.

Professor Beattie happening to visit Oxford at the installation of the chancellor, Lord North, was presented with the honorary degree of doctor of laws in a manner highly gratifying to his feelings. On his coming to town Dr. Beattie was informed that the king would be glad to have an interview with him; and of this interesting visit he has given an account in the following words:—"Tuesday, the 24th of August, 1773, set out for Dr. Majendie's, at Kew Green. The doctor told me that he had not seen the king yesterday, but had left a note in writing, to intimate that I was to be at his house to-day; and that one of the king's pages had come to him this morning, to say that his majesty would see me a little after twelve. At twelve the doctor and I

went to the king's house at Kew. We had been only a few minutes in the hall when the king and queen came in from an airing, and as they passed through the hall the king called me by name, and asked how long it was since I came from town. I answered him, 'about an hour.' 'I shall see you,' says he, 'in a little while.' The doctor and I waited a considerable time, for the king was busy, and then we were called into a large room, furnished as a library, where the king was walking about, and the queen sitting in a chair. We were received in the most gracious manner possible by both their majesties. I had the honour of a conversation with them, nobody else being present but Dr. Majendie, for upwards of an hour, on a great variety of topics, in which both the king and queen joined, with a degree of cheerfulness, affability, and ease, that was to me surprising, and soon dissipated the embarrassment which I felt at the beginning of the conference. They both complimented me in the highest terms on my Essay, which they told me was a book they always kept by them; and the king said he had one copy of it at Kew, and another in town, and immediately went and took it down from a shelf. I found it was the second edition. 'I never stole a book but one,' said his majesty, 'and that was yours,' (speaking to me). 'I stole it from the queen, to give it to Lord Hertford to read.'

"He had heard that the sale of Hume's Essays had failed since my book was published, and I told him what Mr. Strahan had told me in regard to that matter. He had even heard of my being at Edinburgh last summer, and how Mr. Hume was offended on the score of my book. He asked many questions about the second part of the Essay, and when it would be ready for the press. I gave him in a short speech an account of the plan of it, and said my health was so precarious I could not tell when it might be ready, as I had many books to consult before I could finish it; but that if my health was good, I thought I might bring it to a conclusion in two or three years. He asked how long I had been in composing my Essay; praised the caution with which it was written, and said that he did not wonder that it had employed me five or six years. He asked about my poems. I said there was only one poem of my own on which I set any value (meaning the 'Minstrel'), and that it was first published about the same time as the Essay. My other poems I said were incorrect, being but juvenile pieces, and of little consequence, even in my own opinion.

"We had much conversation on moral subjects, from which both their majesties let it appear that they were warm friends to Christianity, and so little inclined to infidelity, that they could hardly believe that any thinking man could really be an Atheist, unless he could bring himself to believe that he had made himself—a thought which pleased the king exceedingly, and he repeated it several times to the queen. He asked whether any thing had been written against me. I spoke of the late pamphlet, of which I gave an account, telling him that I had never met with any man that had read it except one Quaker. This brought on some discourse about the Quakers, whose moderation and mild behaviour the king and queen commended. I was asked many questions about the Scots universities, the revenues of the Scots clergy, their mode of praying and preaching, the medical college at Edinburgh, Dr.



Gregory, and Dr. Cullen; the length of our vacation at Aberdeen, and the closeness of our attendance during the winter; the number of students that attend my lectures; my mode of lecturing, whether from notes, or completely written lectures; about Mr. Hume and Dr. Robertson, and Lord Kinnoul, and the archbishop of York, &c. His majesty asked what I thought of my new acquaintance, Lord Dartmouth. I said there was something in his air and manner which I thought not only agreeable, but enchanting, and that he seemed to me to be one of the best of men—a sentiment in which both their majesties heartily joined. ‘They say that Lord Dartmouth is an enthusiast,’ said the king; ‘but surely he says nothing on the subject of religion but what every Christian may and ought to say.’

‘He asked whether I did not think the English language on the decline at present. I answered in the affirmative; and the king agreed, and named the ‘Spectator’ as one of the best standards of the language. When I told him that the Scots clergy sometimes prayed a quarter or even half an hour at a time, he asked whether that did not lead them into repetitions. I said it often did. ‘That,’ said he, ‘I don’t like in prayers; and excellent as our liturgy is, I think it somewhat faulty in that respect.’ ‘Your majesty knows,’ said I, ‘that three services are joined in one in the ordinary church service, which is one cause of these repetitions.’ ‘True,’ he replied, ‘and that circumstance also makes the service too long.’ From this he took occasion to speak of the composition of the church liturgy, on which he very justly bestowed the highest commendation. ‘Observe,’ his majesty said, ‘how flat those occasional prayers are that are now composed, in comparison with the old ones.’

‘When I mentioned the smallness of the church livings in Scotland, he said he wondered how men of liberal education would choose to become clergymen there; and asked whether, in the remote parts of the country, the clergy in general were not very ignorant. I answered No; for that education was cheap in Scotland, and that the clergy in general were men of good sense and competent learning. He asked whether we had any good preachers in Aberdeen. I said yes; and named Campbell and Gerard; with whose names, however, I did not find that he was acquainted. Dr. Majendie mentioned Dr. Oswald’s Appeal, with commendation; I praised it too; and the queen took down the name with a view to send for it. I was asked whether I knew Dr. Oswald. I answered I did not, and said that my book was published before I read his; that Dr. Oswald was well known to Lord Kinnoul, who had often proposed to make us acquainted.

‘We discussed a great many other topics, for the conversation lasted upwards of an hour. The queen bore a large share in it. Both the king and her majesty showed a great deal of good sense, acuteness, and knowledge, as well as of good nature and affability. At last the king took out his watch (for it was now almost three o’clock, his hour of dinner), which Dr. Majendie and I took as a signal to withdraw: we accordingly bowed to their majesties, and I addressed the king in these words:—“I hope your majesty will pardon me if I take this opportunity to return you my humble and most grateful acknowledgments for the honour you have been pleased to confer upon me.” He immediately an-

swered, ‘I think I could do no less for a man who has done so much service for the cause of Christianity. I shall always be glad of an opportunity to show the good opinion I have of you.’”

The king’s interview with our great English lexicographer is thus related by Boswell—“In February 1767 there happened one of the most remarkable incidents of Johnson’s life, which he loved to relate with all its circumstances, when requested by his friends. This was his being honoured by a private conversation with his majesty in the library at the Queen’s House. His majesty having been informed of his occasional visits, was pleased to signify a desire that he should be told when Dr. Johnson came next to the library. Accordingly, the next time that Johnson did come, as soon as he was fairly engaged with a book, on which, while he sat by the fire, he seemed quite intent, Mr. Barnard stole round to the apartment where the king was, and, in obedience to his majesty’s commands, mentioned that Dr. Johnson was then in the library. His majesty said he was at leisure, and would go to him; upon which Mr. Barnard took one of the candles that stood on the king’s table, and lighted his majesty through a suite of rooms, till they came to a private door into the library, of which his majesty had the key. Being entered, Mr. Barnard stepped forward hastily to Dr. Johnson, who was still in a profound study, and whispered him, ‘Sir, here is the king.’ Johnson started up, and stood still. His majesty approached him, and at once was courteously easy.

“His majesty began by observing, that he understood he came sometimes to the library; and then mentioned his having heard that the doctor had been lately at Oxford; asked him if he was not fond of going thither. To which Johnson answered, that he was indeed fond of going to Oxford sometimes, but was likewise glad to come back again. The king then asked him what they were doing at Oxford. Johnson answered, he could not much commend their diligence, but that in some respects they were mended; for they had put their press under better regulations, and were at that time printing Polybius. He was then asked whether there were better libraries at Oxford or Cambridge. He answered, he believed the Bodleian was larger than any they had at Cambridge; at the same time adding, ‘I hope, whether we have more books or not than they have at Cambridge, we shall make as good use of them as they do.’ Being asked whether All-Souls or Christ-Church library was the largest, he answered, ‘All-Souls library is the largest we have, except the Bodleian.’—“Ay,” said the king, ‘that is the public library.’

“His majesty enquired if he was then writing any thing. He answered, he was not, for he had pretty well told the world what he knew, and must now read, to acquire more knowledge. The king, as it should seem, with a view to urge him to rely on his own stores as an original writer, and to continue his labours, then said, ‘I do not think you borrow much from any body.’ Johnson said he thought he had already done his part as a writer. ‘I should have thought so too,’ said the king, ‘if you had not written so well.’ Johnson observed to me upon this, that ‘no man could have paid a handsomer compliment; and it was fit for a king to pay: it was decisive.’ When asked by another friend at Sir Joshua Reynolds’s whether he made any reply to this high com-



pliment, he answered, 'No, Sir. When the king had said it, it was to be so. It was not for me to bandy civilities with my sovereign.' Perhaps no man who had spent his whole life in courts could have shown a more nice and dignified sense of true politeness than Johnson did in this instance.

"His majesty having observed to him that he supposed he must have read a great deal, Johnson answered, 'that he thought more than he read; that he had read a great deal in the early part of his life, but having fallen into ill health, he had not been able to read much, compared with others: for instance, he said, he had not read much compared with Dr. Warburton.' Upon which the king said, 'that he heard Dr. Warburton was a man of such general knowledge that you could scarce talk with him on any subject on which he was not qualified to speak; and that his learning resembled Garrick's acting in its universality.' His majesty then talked of the controversy between Warburton and Lowth, which he seemed to have read, and asked Johnson what he thought of it. Johnson answered, 'Warburton has most general, most scholastic learning; Lowth is the more correct scholar. I do not know which of them calls names best.' The king was pleased to say he was of the same opinion; adding, 'You do not think then, Dr. Johnson, that there was much argument in the case.' Johnson said he did not think there was. 'Why, truly,' said the king, 'when once it comes to calling names, argument is pretty well at end.'

"His majesty then asked him what he thought of Lord Lyttleton's history, which was then just published. Johnson said he thought his style pretty good, but he had blamed Henry the Second rather too much. 'Why,' said the king, 'they seldom do these things by halves.' 'No, Sir,' answered Johnson, 'not to kings.' But fearing to be misunderstood, he proceeded to explain himself; and immediately subjoined, that for those who spoke worse of kings than they deserved, he could find no excuse; but that he could more easily conceive how some might speak better of them than they deserved, without any ill intention; for as kings had much in their power to give, those who were favoured by them would frequently, from gratitude, exaggerate their praises; and as this proceeded from a good motive, it was certainly excusable, as far as error could be excusable.

"The king then asked him what he thought of Dr. Hill. Johnson answered, he was an ingenious man, but had no veracity; and immediately mentioned, as an instance of it, an assertion of that writer, that he had seen objects magnified to a much greater degree by using three or four microscopes at a time than by using one.\* 'Now,' added Johnson, 'every one acquainted with microscopes knows that the more of them he looks through, the less the object will appear.' 'Why,' replied the king, 'this is not only telling an untruth, but telling it clumsily;

\* The Editor is happy to avail himself of this very illustrative account of the meeting between his majesty and the great English lexicographer; but it may be right in justice to himself and the readers of this work to add, that Dr. Johnson took a most inaccurate view of the principle of the microscope, as the power of the instrument is materially increased, not diminished, by combining several glasses, each of which is in reality a complete single microscope. If Dr. Johnson had been as good a microscopic observer as he was a lexicographer, he would have known that objects appear larger, though diminished in distinctness, by increasing the magnifying power of the instrument.

for if that be the case, every one who can look through a microscope will be able to detect him.'

"'I now,' said Johnson to his friends when relating what had passed, 'began to consider that I was depreciating this man in the estimation of his sovereign, and thought it was time for me to say something that might be more favourable.' He added therefore that Dr. Hill was, notwithstanding, a very curious observer, and if he would have been contented to tell the world no more than he knew he might have been a very considerable man, and needed not to have recourse to such mean expedients to raise his reputation.

"The king then talked of literary journals, mentioned particularly the "Journal des Savans," and asked Johnson if it was well done. Johnson said it was formerly very well done, and gave some account of the persons who began it and carried it on for some years, enlarging at the same time on the nature and use of such works. The king then asked him if it was well done now. Johnson answered, he had no reason to think that it was. The king then asked him if there were any other literary journals published in this kingdom except the Monthly and Critical Reviews, and on being answered there was no other, his majesty asked which of them was the best. Johnson answered that the 'Monthly Review' was done with most care, the 'Critical' upon the best principles, adding that the authors of the 'Monthly Review' were enemies to the church. This the king said he was sorry to hear.

"The conversation next turned on the 'Philosophical Transactions,' when Johnson observed that they had now a better method of arranging their materials than formerly. 'Ay,' said the king, 'they are obliged to Dr. Johnson for that;' for his majesty had heard and remembered the circumstance which Johnson himself had forgot. His majesty expressed a desire to have the literary biography of this country ably executed, and proposed to Dr. Johnson to undertake it. Johnson signified his readiness to comply with his majesty's wishes. During the whole of this interview Johnson talked to his majesty with profound respect, but still in his firm manly manner, with a sonorous voice and never in that subdued tone which is commonly used at the levee and in the drawing-room. After the king withdrew, Johnson showed himself highly pleased with his majesty's conversation and gracious behaviour. He said to Mr. Barnard, 'Sir, they may talk of the king as they will, but he is the finest gentleman I have ever seen.' And he afterwards observed to Mr. Langton, 'Sir, his manners are those of as fine a gentleman as we may suppose Louis the Fourteenth or Charles the Second.'

The attention of the House of Commons and the nation were at this period transferred to the situation of the heir-apparent. The prince, finding his pecuniary embarrassments very considerable, applied in the summer of 1786 to his father for relief; but, meeting with a refusal, he immediately suppressed his household and formally vested forty thousand a-year of his revenue in the hands of trustees for the liquidation of his debts. All the elegant improvements at Carlton House were suspended, his stud of race-horses, his hunters, and even his coach-horses, were sold by auction.

Things had remained in this state for near a twelvemonth when the prince was prevailed upon



to lay his affairs before parliament. Accordingly Mr. Alderman Newnham, member for the city, moved for an address to the king, praying him to take his royal highness's situation into consideration and to grant him such relief as his wisdom should think fit, and pledging the house to make good the same. An accommodation afterwards took place, and the business was regularly brought forward in a message from the crown, stating "that from the accounts of the prince of Wales, it appeared that he had contracted considerable debts, which it was impossible for him to discharge out of his annual income and support an establishment suited to his rank and station; that his majesty had ordered the prince an additional income of 10,000*l.* out of the civil list, and he trusted to the liberality of parliament for the liquidation of his debts, as his son had given the fullest assurances of his firm determination to confine his future expenses within his income. On the day after the accounts had been laid before the house an address was voted to the king requesting him to direct the sum of 160,000*l.* to be paid out of the civil list to discharge the prince's obligations, and also 20,000*l.* for the improvement of Carlton House, the prince's residence.

During the present year it appears his majesty began to unbend his mind from the cares of state by his attention to the study of agriculture, and we believe his "Letters on Agriculture," inserted in "Young's Annals," are the only specimens of his literary talents extant. We furnish a brief extract:—

"January 1, 1787.

"SIR,—It is reasonable to expect that your laudable efforts for the improvement of husbandry, by publishing the 'Annals of Agriculture,' must in time be crowned with success; therefore it seems incumbent on all who think they have materials on this interesting subject worthy of the inspection of the public to transmit them to you, who, if you view them in that light, will give them a place in that estimable work. Without further preface, I shall mention that the dispute which has lately arisen on the subject of summer fallows had made me secretly wish that Mr. Ducket, the able cultivator of Petersham, in Surrey, would have communicated his thoughts, not only on that subject, but would have benefited the public by a full explanation of that course of husbandry which has rendered his farm at Petersham, which has now been above nineteen years in his hands, so flourishing, though his three predecessors had failed on it. When he first entered on it, all the land, except the meadows, appeared to be hungry sand, and several acres were covered with gorse and brambles, which now produce excellent crops of corn. As you have completed your sixth volume, and I find his great modesty prevents his standing forth among your correspondents, I will attempt to describe his mode of cultivation, rather than it shall longer remain unnoticed in your 'Annals.' Mr. Ducket's system of agriculture is a medium between the old and drill husbandry. He adopted his present mode of culture six years before he came to Petersham, on a small farm at Esher, as also at the late duke of Newcastle's villa of Claremount, where he used his three ploughs, but at that time hand-hoed all his corn. His course of husbandry seems to be the

employing clover, turnips, and rye, as fallow crops, and as intermediate ones between wheat, barley, oats, and rye, changing these occasionally according to the nature and state of the land. Of these intermediate crops, those which serve only to fill up the winter interval are of the greatest use for winter and spring food, and what these take from the ground is amply resupplied by the dung and treading of the cattle which feed on them; thus his ground, although never dormant, is continually replenished by a variety of manure, and thus unites the system of continued pasture with cultivation. Mr. Ducket's implements of husbandry are, first, a trench plough, which requires never less than four horses, and when he means to plough very deep, six horses. He ploughs an acre in one day. No additional strength would be required in strong soils, as they usually need not to be ploughed so deep. Second, a two-share plough, which, with four horses, ploughs two acres in one day. Third, a drill, which he names a plough, as at seed-time it answers the purpose of one, and on this account prefers it to any drill of late invention that drops the seed. It requires but two horses; it will work three acres in one day; although it makes five drills, it only completes two at every bout."

His majesty towards the close of October 1788 was attacked by a dangerous mental disorder: the first symptoms were observed in the early part of October, and increased so much that it was found necessary to postpone the levee at St. James's. His majesty had caught cold, it was thought, by walking over some wet grass. This brought on a rheumatic pain which fixed in his stomach, but was soon removed into the extremities, and his majesty was so much recovered as to appear at the levee. The 4th of November brought a relapse, attended with a violent pain in the bowels. On the 6th the symptoms were very alarming: the most eminent physicians were called in to a consultation, and the great officers of state were sent for. His disorder appeared to be of a very melancholy nature, and it was thought necessary to send an official account every day of his majesty's situation to the lord in waiting at St. James's.

The 20th of November had been appointed for the meeting of parliament; circular letters had previously been forwarded by the privy council, desiring the attendance of the lords and commons, as a further prorogation was impracticable. On their meeting, the king's indisposition was formally announced; but as the session could not be opened in the regular mode, Earl Camden and Mr. Pitt proposed an adjournment for fourteen days. Prior to their re-assembling, the physicians who attended his majesty were examined before the privy council, and the three following questions proposed to them: Does the indisposition of his majesty incapacitate him from meeting his parliament? The unanimous answer was—that it did. The second question respected the probability of cure and the duration of his malady. All concurred in the probability, though uncertain as to the time of convalescence. The third question—Whether the physicians judged from general experience or the particular symptoms of his majesty's case, or from both? Their answer was—from general experience.

On the meeting of parliament, Mr. Pitt proposed the appointment of a committee to examine the



journals and report precedents, either similar or analogous. Mr. Fox, as the policy of opposition, seemed averse to unnecessary delays, objected to a committee as nugatory. Mr. Pitt, he said, well knew that there were no precedents applicable to the present case; besides he did not think it necessary to search for any, as he was confident that in case of the king's inability the heir-apparent, if of age and capacity, had an indisputable right to the exercise of the executive power in the name and on the behalf of the sovereign during his incapacity, as in case of his demise.

Mr. Pitt combated with apparent warmth this novel doctrine. He declared that Mr. Fox's assertion was little short of treason against the constitution. He maintained that the heir-apparent, in the present case, had no more right to the exercise of the royal function than any other British subject, and that it was the sole prerogative of the two remaining branches of the legislature to supply the temporary deficiency, and preserve unimpaired the interests of the sovereign and the nation. When the regular exercise of the powers of government was from any cause suspended, to whom could this right of providing a remedy devolve but to the *people*, from whom all the powers of government originated? To assert an inherent right in the prince of Wales to assume the royal function was virtually to revive those exploded ideas of the divine and indefeasible authority of princes which had justly sunk into contempt, and almost into oblivion. Kings and princes derive their power from the people, and to the people alone, through the organ of their representatives, did it appertain to decide in cases for which the constitution had made no specific or positive provision. The result of the debate was that on the 16th and 23rd of November resolutions passed both houses preparatory to bringing in a bill for restricting the power of a future regent.

The following important particulars of the royal indisposition, in the present and the subsequent year, bear such intrinsic marks of veracity, and confer so much honour and credit upon the illustrious personages concerned, that they cannot prove otherwise than gratifying to every class of readers:—"The king's disorder now excited great alarm, and two other physicians were summoned to Windsor to the assistance of Sir George Baker, who, till then, had attended alone; and Dr. Warren hesitated not to communicate to the queen that the disorder under which the king laboured was an absolute mania, distinct from, and wholly unconnected with, fever.

"The distress of the queen and of the princesses was beyond description. The prince of Wales and the duke of York were deeply affected. The former wept abundantly when the true nature of the malady was communicated to him. Both the princes remained at Windsor, and were unremitting in their endeavours to support the queen and to console the princesses. A palsy upon the brain was said to be the cause of a deplorable malady, which no medical skill could reach; and an opinion universally prevailed, that it would be necessary immediately to form a regency. The opposition asserted, that the prince's majority entitled him to undivided power; but Mr. Pitt's partisans reprobated the idea, and strenuously maintained the queen's superior pretensions. Cir-

cular letters were then sent to members of parliament, stating that the present unhappy situation of the king making it improbable that his majesty's commands could be received for the further prorogation of parliament, it must meet on the 20th instant, when attendance was earnestly solicited. It had been hoped that lucid intervals and better prospects might have enabled the king to prorogue parliament, and would have justified the measure. Early in the morning of this day, the chancellor, actuated by this hope, went to Windsor, but the sad situation in which he found the king suggested only the necessity of hastening the distribution of notices, which had been delayed to the latest moment.

"Sunday, the 16th, expectation was kept upon the rack at St. James's till half-past two o'clock. Bad presages drawn from the delay were confirmed by the event. 'Notwithstanding six hours' sleep, the king is not better to-day,' was the afflicting report. It appeared that the messenger had been detained beyond the usual hour in the hope that some favourable symptom might authorize a different one.

"The opposition now forcibly felt the misfortune of Mr. Fox's absence. His powerful and extensive talents qualifying him alike to guide in council and to lead in debate, his return was anxiously desired. Increasing bad symptoms in his majesty augmented their impatience for accounts from the messenger who had, upon the first idea of his danger, been despatched to the continent in quest of Mr. Fox. His acknowledged honour, as well as his transcendent abilities, made every member of the party solicitous that he should have frequent access to, and obtain the confidence of, the prince, to whom they now looked up as the source of power and honours.

"The number of those who watched over his majesty was now increased. A rash attempt created the necessity. With the extraordinary cunning that is often found to accompany intellectual maladies, his majesty one night feigning to sleep, even to snore, threw the apothecary, who alone watched by him, off his guard, and hastened to a window of his apartment with a precipitancy which, while it bespoke the worst of purposes, happily prevented its perpetration by the alarm it spread.

"In the king's calmer moments his principal occupation was writing, and the subject generally despatches to foreign courts. These, founded upon imaginary causes, were said to be written with great consistency. At some periods, all gracious, condescending, and munificent, his majesty lavished honours upon all who opposed him; elevating to the highest dignities, pages, gentlemen of the bed-chamber, or any occasional attendant. To these gentler workings of a disordered mind often succeeded sad transports of vehemence and agitation, which were expressed in tones so ungoverned as sometimes to reach beyond the walls of the royal apartment. Exhausted nature would then feel a pause, during which it was not uncommon for his majesty to express a consciousness of his unhappy state and a despair of ever being relieved from it. The sleep which succeeded these various agitations of mind and person was often sound and long, but never did the monarch awake from them in a composed state of mind. The refreshment of the body seemed only to add strength to the mental malady. From this circumstance the most melancholy inferences were drawn; and, in confirmation of them, it

was said that a brother of the king's mother had terminated his existence under a total privation of the first of blessings. Music, which had formerly been found peculiarly soothing to the royal mind, now served only to excite impatience. In the last fortnight his majesty had resisted all solicitations to be shaved. His malady and his exertions had so emaciated him, that it was judged expedient to remove every mirror, lest the reflection of his own figure should affect him too sensibly."

In the violent paroxysms of his majesty's disorder he continually raved about the queen; sometimes loading her with reproaches, and uttering threats against her; at others desiring her presence, with expressions of passionate regard. One day, tired of vainly soliciting to see the queen, his majesty desired to have her picture. He addressed it with great calmness and recollection in these words!—"We have been married twenty-eight years, and never have we been separated a day till now; and now you abandon me in my misfortunes." It being deemed improper to hazard the queen's having an interview with his majesty, a lady whom he used particularly to esteem and value, begged to be permitted to see him, in the hope of exciting some salutary feeling in the royal mind. . . . . The event did not answer the benevolent intention, but too well confirmed the expediency of the queen's remaining at a distance. Another day his majesty desired to have 400*l.* from his privy purse. He divided it into different sums, wrapping them up in separate papers, upon which he wrote the names of persons to whom he had been accustomed to make monthly payments, with perfect accuracy and precision. His majesty then wrote down the different sums, with the names annexed, cast up the whole, as he formerly used to do, and ordered the money to be paid immediately, it being then due."

During the whole of this estrangement from reason, the subject which most frequently occurred, and with the most forcible effect, upon the royal mind, was the American war. The recollection of the proceedings in it, and of the consequences that followed, often produced violent agitation, and strong expressions of resentment against individuals. Lord North was always adverted to; but ever in a manner expressive of the natural tenderness, humanity, and placability of his majesty's disposition. He never failed to conclude, respecting his lordship, in the same words, uttered in a hurried but softened and feeling tone—"I was once very angry with him; but since his misfortune" (a total privation of the blessing of sight), "I have felt only compassion for him."

After some considerable time had been occupied in the beginning of this year in settling the regency, which his majesty's illness had rendered necessary, on the 24th of February his restoration to health was declared complete. On the 5th of March the lord chancellor informed the peers that his majesty would signify his future pleasure on the 10th, and thus ended the necessity for a regency. These joyful tidings diffused general satisfaction, and addresses of congratulation flowed from all parts of the kingdom, and illuminations of the most splendid kind were prepared, whilst a national thanksgiving was in agitation to be solemnized on St. George's day, the 23rd of April, to celebrate the restora-

tion of his majesty's mind from the shock it had received.

Early in 1794 a domestic event occurred which tended to perplex the mind of his majesty in no small degree. His royal highness Prince Augustus, while at Rome, met with the two daughters of the governor of the Bahama Islands, who had accompanied their mother, Lady Dunmore, to Italy, where they resided for a short time. Courting this agreeable society, the consequence was, that a mutual attachment took place between the prince and Lady Augusta Murray, and they were married. Lady Murray became pregnant, and returned to England. His royal highness did the same, and, at the instance of the lady and her friends, a second marriage took place. The parties were regularly "asked" in the church of St. George, Hanover Square, in the months of November and December; when they were again united, according to the ceremonies of the church of England, under the names of Augustus Frederick and Augusta Murray. As soon as the circumstances came to his majesty's knowledge, the king instituted a suit of nullity, in his own name, in the arches' court of Canterbury, to set aside the validity of this marriage, on the ground of an act of parliament passed early in the present reign, and which determined that both marriages were null and void.

An event in 1795 occurred that diffused great joy over the nation, and created high expectations that were never realized. This was the marriage of the heir-apparent with his first cousin, the princess Caroline of Brunswick. On the evening of the 8th of April the solemnity was performed at the chapel royal by the archbishop of Canterbury.

Addresses of congratulation, both to the king and queen on the marriage of his royal highness the prince of Wales, were unanimously voted by both houses of parliament. On receiving these addresses, his majesty sent a message to the House of Commons, relative to a suitable provision for the royal bridegroom and bride; and his majesty "felt the deepest regret in communicating to the house that the benefit of any settlement that might be made must fail in its most desirable effect if means were not provided to extricate his royal highness from the incumbrances under which he laboured to a great amount." Some debate took place in consequence of a former application on the same subject, and the promises then made that no such embarrassments should again occur. The establishment now agreed upon was 125,000*l.*, exclusive of the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall; 18,000*l.* to defray the preparatory expenses of the marriage, and 50,000*l.* as a jointure for her royal highness.

Great apprehensions were excited in 1795 by public meetings of persons calling themselves the London Corresponding Society. The most remarkable of these was on the 26th of October, in the fields between Islington and Copenhagen House. Not less than 40,000 persons were collected on this occasion, and harangued by different orators; and here invitations were thrown out to the multitude to attend to the circumstance of the king's going to the house on the 29th. Accordingly on that day an immense crowd assembled in the park, many from mere curiosity, but others with the most desperate designs of mischief. As the state carriage passed along, it was with great difficulty the guards could clear the way; and near the Ordnance Office a bullet,



supposed to have been discharged from an air-gun, perforated the glass of the coach, but happily without doing any other injury. His majesty, with his characteristic coolness and intrepidity, said to Lord Westmoreland, "That's a shot!" and instead of leaning back, or striving to avoid the assassin, he pointed towards the round hole in the window, and carefully examined it. On entering the House of Peers, he said to the chancellor, "My lord, I have been shot at;" but immediately proceeded to the important business before him, and, having delivered his speech from the throne, returned as if nothing had happened. The same gang of ruffians, however, followed his coach in great numbers; and as the carriage passed opposite Spring Garden Terrace, another stone was thrown, which fortunately only struck the frame-work between the windows. The crowd now pressed so closely round the coach that his majesty, in some agitation, waved his hands to the guards on each side as a signal to keep off the multitude. In this way he proceeded on through the park, and round by the stable-yard into St. James's Palace at the front gate. Here again a fresh tumult took place just as the king was about to alight, which proved too plainly the designs of the rabble; but providentially they were frustrated in their object, which disappointment enraged them so much that they attacked the coach with stones, and did it considerable injury, continuing this species of mischief all the way along Pall Mall to the Mews. Notwithstanding these dangerous appearances, the king ordered his private carriage to be brought up, and in a few minutes entered it to go to the Queen's House, though surrounded by a tumultuary and infuriated horde, every one of whom seemed bent upon assassination. There being now no guards to intimidate them, the mob rushed upon the carriage with savage fury, and one miscreant attempted to burst open the door. This attack was made by sixteen or seventeen wretches, who issued forth from the great mass; and then it was that the person of the sovereign was in the most imminent danger. Mr. Bedingfield, a gentleman of the Navy Pay Office, who stood by at the time, put his hand into his pocket, and cocked a brace of pistols which he had with him, when, seeing the life-guards at a distance, it immediately occurred to him that their assistance would be more effectual than his own. He accordingly ran with the utmost speed, and brought them up to the rescue of their master; but fortunately his majesty's coachman had already succeeded in extricating the carriage from the mob, and the ruffians having already mingled with the crowd, it was impossible to mark any of them. One of the guards, however, on coming up, perceiving a fellow, as he thought, forward in assailing the king, lifted up his sword, and would have cut him down had he not been prevented from doing so by the humane interposition of his majesty.

The domestic events of the year 1800 were uncommonly important. A circumstance occurred at a review in Hyde Park on the morning of the 15th of May, which, as soon as it was known, caused no small sensation as it spread through the town. While his majesty was attending to the grenadier battalion of the guards, a ball-cartridge was fired from one of the soldiers, which struck Mr. Ongley, a clerk in the allotment department of the Navy Office, who was standing only twenty-three feet dis-

tance from the king! The ball entered the fleshy part of the thigh in front, and passed straight through. His majesty, on coming from the field, sent his commands to Mr. Keate, the surgeon-general, and Mr. Rush, the inspector of hospitals, to wait on Mr. Ongley, and to offer their assistance during the progress of his cure. An examination had taken place of the cartouch-boxes of the soldiers, but no individual could be fixed upon as the perpetrator of this act.

In the evening another extraordinary circumstance occurred at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, which, coupled with the above, gave rise to many serious apprehensions. The entertainments, "She Would and She Would Not," and the "Humorist," were performed by command of their majesties; and at the moment when the king entered his box, a man in the pit, near the orchestra on the right hand side, stood up and discharged a pistol at his majesty, who had advanced about four steps from the door. On the report of the pistol, his majesty stopped, and stood firmly while the cry of "Seize him" burst from every part of the theatre. The queen came in, and the king waved his hand for her to keep back. Her majesty asked, "What is the matter?" The king replied—"Only a squib—a squib; they are firing squibs;" and, not the least disconcerted, came nearly to the front of the box. The man who had committed the crime was seized and conveyed from the pit. The audience vehemently called out "Show him!" in consequence of which Mr. Kelly, and others belonging to the theatre, rushed upon the stage, and assured them that the culprit was in safe custody. The queen now came forward, and, in great agitation, curtsied; she clasped her hands, looked at the king, and asked if they should stay. His majesty answered, "We will not stir, but sit the entertainments out." All the princesses, except Elizabeth, fainted, and that princess exerted herself greatly in recovering her royal sisters. The duke and duchess of York were in their box at the time, but immediately after the transaction his royal highness left it. The prince of Wales was at dinner at Lord Melbourne's, but having been immediately informed of the event by Mr. Jefferys, who left the play for the purpose of seizing this opportunity of seeing his royal highness, the prince instantly left his company and went to the theatre. As soon as the indignation of the audience was soothed, "God save the King" was instantly demanded. It was sung by all the vocal performers, and encored. At the end of the farce the song was again demanded, when Mr. Kelly sung the following additional verse, an *impromptu* by Mr. Burgess:—

"From every latent foe,  
From the assassin's blow,  
God save the King!  
O'er him thine arm extend  
For Britain's sake defend  
Our Father, Prince, and Friend—  
God save the King!"

The person who fired at the king proved to be a man named Hatfield, who had served his time to a working silversmith, but, having enlisted into the 15th light dragoons, had fought for the king whom he had fired at. The prince of Wales and duke of York were present at his examination before the magistrates: he immediately turned to the duke, and said, "I know your royal highness—God bless you—you are a good fellow, and (pointing to a deep

cut over his eye, and another long scar on his cheek) I got these, and more than these, in fighting by your side. At Lincelles I was left three hours among the dead in a ditch, and was taken prisoner by the French. I had my arm broken by a shot, and eight sabre wounds in my head; but I recovered, and here I am." Being asked why he attempted the life of his sovereign, he replied, that he had not attempted to kill the king—he had fired his pistol over the royal box—he was as good a shot as any in England; but he was himself weary of life—he wished for death, but not to die with his own hands, and thought that the spectators would have fallen upon him—he hoped his life was forfeited.

"Few of his subjects," Mr. Wrexall observes, "would have shown the presence of mind, and attention to every thing except himself, which pervaded his whole conduct. His whole anxiety was directed towards the queen, who not having entered the box, might, he apprehended, on hearing of the event be overcome by her surprise or emotions. The dramatic piece which was about to be represented commenced in a short space of time, precisely as if no accident had interrupted its performance; and so little were his nerves shaken, or his internal tranquillity disturbed by it, that he took his accustomed doze of three or four minutes between the conclusion of the play and the commencement of the farce, as he would have done on any other night."

The year 1803 was ushered in by the most violent political discontents. Not one commercial treaty had taken place with France: doubt hung upon all the commercial transactions of England; men suspected the credit of one another. They had hoped that peace would have opened every avenue of trade,—that confidence would have returned; but on the opening of the year trade was felt fast decreasing, and discontent every where on the increase. This discontent was attributed to the late political transactions: the prisons were filled with men who were supposed to be connected with French agents, and the outlets of trade were generally blocked up.

On the 16th February his majesty sent down the following message to both houses of parliament: "His majesty having taken into consideration the period which has elapsed since the adoption of those arrangements which were deemed, by the wisdom of parliament, to be necessary for the discharge of the incumbrances of the prince of Wales, and having adverted to the progress which has been made in carrying them into effect, recommends the present situation of the prince to the attention of this house.

"Notwithstanding the reluctance and regret which his majesty must feel in suggesting any addition to the burdens of his people, he is induced to resort, in this instance, to the experienced liberality and attachment of his faithful commons, in the persuasion that they will be disposed to take such measures as may be calculated to promote the comfort and support the dignity of so distinguished a branch of his royal family."

The subject was introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. Addington. He expressed his wish that the prince of Wales might be recognised by his splendour and dignity as heir-apparent to the greatest crown in the universe. He concluded by moving, that "it is the opinion of this committee, that his majesty be enabled to grant yearly any sum or sums of money out of the consolidated fund of

Great Britain, not exceeding in the whole 60,000*l.*, to be computed from the 5th of January, 1803, and to continue until the 5th of July, 1806, towards providing for the better support and dignity of the prince of Wales."

The chancellor of the exchequer, the solicitor-general, and Lord Castlereagh, supported the motion. Lord Castlereagh said it was time to restore the prince to his proper dignity and comfort.—Mr. Sheridan, in an eloquent speech, preferred the character of the prince to his comforts. If the allowance desired was to be considered as a boon by the public, he was not prepared to support it. In the last session the prince had claimed his *right*, not on his own account, but for the sake of his creditors. A petition of right was proceeded upon, but the proceedings were suddenly stopped, and now this message came down to the house. The right honourable gentleman (Mr. Addington) did not like the word compromise; but it was because he thought what was desired from the house was for a fair and honourable compromise, that he supported it. He wished the house to know that the prince of Wales considered himself bound in honour to pay his creditors ten per cent., which the commissioners had reduced of their demands; and until that was done, his royal highness could not conscientiously resume his state and dignity. Mr. Fox concurred with Mr. Sheridan, and concluded by observing, that the prince had now shown himself worthy of the management of a large income, and he should give his vote for the motion. After some observations from Mr. Banks, who thought that the prince might prosecute his petition of right, the resolution moved by Mr. Addington was unanimously agreed to.

His majesty's message was taken into consideration in the House of Lords on the 25th of February. Lord Pelham, after a few preliminary observations, moved an address to his majesty, similar to that moved in the House of Commons. Lord Carlisle seconded the motion for the address, but would rather the question had been decided on the petition of right. Lord Moira in a few words gave his consent to the address, and it was unanimously agreed to. The prince of Wales sent down by Mr. Tyrwhitt a message expressive of his gratitude for what parliament had in its liberality done, but that there were yet claims upon him, which in honour he felt himself bound to discharge. Mr. Calcraft then gave notice of a motion, "to enable his royal highness immediately to resume his state and dignity."

In August 1805 died his majesty's sole surviving brother, the duke of Gloucester; their majesties and the whole royal family were sensibly affected at this event.

His royal highness the duke of Gloucester was distinguished more by equanimity than splendid or showy talents; he acquired the love of every connexion with which he united himself. He was respectful to his sovereign, affable to his acquaintance, generous and condescending to his inferiors, a polite scholar, and the accomplished gentleman. The meekness of his disposition influenced every trait of his character. He was the liberal supporter of every institution calculated to promote the interest of society. His royal highness never appeared as a public character; he at all times avoided any interference with party politics. He always afforded indisputable proof of his affection to the king his



brother, and loyal and respectful attachment as his subject. The only instance in which his conduct was, during his life, displeasing to his majesty, was occasioned by his marriage without his privity. The late duke of Cumberland married under nearly similar circumstances. These marriages produced the memorable statute, 12th Geo. III., for rendering all such marriages without the consent of his majesty and the privy council null and void. Reasons of state and etiquette restrained the impulse of his majesty's feelings with respect to the object of his royal highness's choice; but the illustrious descendants of his royal highness uniformly enjoyed the tenderest and most affectionate regard of both their majesties.

The rumours that had been spread abroad against the princess of Wales assumed so serious a character in 1806 as to demand investigation. The variance between their royal highnesses the prince and princess of Wales had long afflicted his majesty, and he was resolved to institute enquiry; accordingly the king issued a commission to Lord Erskine, the lord chancellor, Lord Grenville, Lord Spencer, Lord Ellenborough, and Mr. Windham, to go fully into the case, and to report their proceedings. There can be no question but what his majesty instituted this commission and enquiry with the best intentions, but as several of the commissioners were the prince's personal friends it must be equally obvious that much of prejudice would be carried into the investigation. The commission ran thus:—

“GEORGE R.

“WHEREAS our right trusty and well-beloved councillor, Thomas Lord Erskine, our chancellor, has this day laid before us an abstract of certain written declarations touching the conduct of her royal highness the princess of Wales, we do hereby authorize, empower, and direct the said Thomas Lord Erskine, our chancellor, our right trusty and well-beloved cousin and councillor George John Earl Spencer, one of our principal secretaries of state, our right trusty and well-beloved councillor W. Windham, Lord Grenville, first commissioner of our treasury, and our right trusty and well-beloved councillor Edward Lord Ellenborough, our chief justice, to hold pleas before ourself, to enquire into the truth of the same, and to examine, upon oath, such persons as they shall see fit, touching and concerning the same, and to report to us the result of such examination.

“Given at our castle of Windsor, on 29th May, in the forty-sixth year of our reign.”

As the summer advanced, the complaint in his majesty's eyes increased; objects were nearly indiscernible at a short distance; and the fatigue of the drawing-room on his birth-day devolved on her majesty. On the fourth of July, Lord Henry Petty brought down a message from his majesty relative to the royal family. His lordship proposed that the grants to the younger branches should be increased one-third, or from 12,000*l.* to 18,000*l.* a year. The princess Charlotte to have 7000*l.* instead of 6000*l.* per annum. The provisions for the princesses, the duke of Gloucester, and Princess Sophia, he said, all stood upon the aggregate fund, and it would be proper to transfer them to the consolidated fund. It was proposed to make an addition of 1000*l.* to each; so that Princess Sophia would have 5000*l.* and the

other princesses 6000*l.* per annum. The resolution was agreed to.

The commissioners to whom the investigation respecting the princess of Wales had been referred, commenced the enquiry, and the following is a copy of their report.

Copy of a Report made in 1806, by the four commissioners appointed by the king, viz. Lord Erskine, chancellor; Lord Grenville, first lord of the treasury; Lord Spencer, secretary of state; Lord Ellenborough, chief justice of the king's bench; to examine into the conduct of her royal highness the princess of Wales.

“May it please your Majesty,

“Your majesty having been graciously pleased, by an instrument under your majesty's sign manual, a copy of which is annexed to this report, to authorize, empower, and direct us to enquire into the truth of certain written declarations touching the conduct of her royal highness the princess of Wales, an abstract of which had been laid before your majesty, and to examine upon oath such persons as we should see fit, touching and concerning the same, and to report to your majesty the result of such examinations; we have, in dutiful obedience to your majesty's commands, proceeded to examine the several witnesses, the copies of whose depositions we have hereunto annexed; and in further execution of the said commands, we now most respectfully submit to your majesty the report of these examinations as it has appeared to us: but we beg leave, at the same time, humbly to refer your majesty for more complete information to the examinations themselves, in order to correct any error of judgment into which we may have unintentionally fallen with respect to any part of this business. On a reference to the above-mentioned declarations as the necessary foundation of all our proceedings, we found that they consisted in certain statements which had been laid before his royal highness the prince of Wales, respecting the conduct of her royal highness the princess of Wales; that these statements not only imputed to her royal highness great impropriety and indecency of behaviour, but expressly asserted, partly on the ground of certain alleged declarations from the princess's own mouth, and partly on the personal observations of the informants, the following most important facts, viz.: That her royal highness had been pregnant in the year 1802 in consequence of an illicit intercourse, and that she had in the same year been secretly delivered of a male child, which child had ever since that period been brought up by her royal highness in her own house, and under her immediate inspection.

“These allegations thus made, had, as we found, been followed by declarations from other persons, who had not indeed spoken to the important facts of the pregnancy or delivery of her royal highness, but had stated other particulars in themselves extremely suspicious, and still more so when connected with the assertions already mentioned. In the painful situation in which his royal highness was placed by these communications, we learnt that his royal highness had adopted the only course which could, in our judgment, with propriety be followed, when informations such as these had been thus confidently and particularly alleged, as well as detailed, and had been in some degree supported by collateral evidence, applying to other points of the same na-

ture (though going to a far less extent), one line only could be pursued. Every sentiment of duty to your majesty, and of concern for the public welfare, required that these particulars should not be withheld from your majesty, to whom more particularly belonged the cognizance of a matter of state so nearly touching the honour of your majesty's royal family, and by possibility affecting the succession of your majesty's crown. Your majesty had been pleased, on your part, to view the subject in the same light. Considering it is a matter which in every respect demanded the most immediate investigation, your majesty had thought fit to commit into our hands the duty of ascertaining, in the first instance, what degree of credit was due to the informations, and thereby enabling your majesty to decide what further conduct to adopt concerning them. On this view, therefore, of the matters thus alleged, and of the course hitherto pursued upon them, we deemed it proper, in the first place, to examine those persons in whose declarations the occasion for this enquiry had originated; because, if they, on being examined on oath, had retracted or varied their assertions, all necessity of further investigation might possibly have been precluded. We accordingly first examined on oath the principal informants, Sir John Douglas and Charlotte his wife, who both positively swore, the former to his having observed the fact of the pregnancy of her royal highness, and the latter to the all-important particulars contained in her former declaration, and above referred to. Their examinations are annexed to this report, and are circumstantial and positive.

"The most material of these allegations, into the truth of which we have been directed to enquire, being thus far supported by the oath of the parties from whom they had proceeded, we then felt it our duty to follow up the enquiry by the examination of such other persons as we judged best able to afford us information as to the facts in question. We thought it beyond all doubt, that in the course of enquiry many particulars might be learnt, which would be necessarily conclusive on the truth or falsehood of these declarations—so many persons must have been witnesses to the appearance of an actual existing pregnancy—so many circumstances must have been attendant upon a real delivery, and difficulties so numerous and insurmountable must have been involved in any attempt to account for the infant in question as the child of another woman if it had been in fact the child of the princess, that we entertained a full and confident expectation of arriving at complete proof, either in the affirmative or negative, on this part of the subject.

"This expectation was not disappointed. We are happy to declare our perfect conviction that there is no foundation whatever for believing that the child now with the princess of Wales is the child of her royal highness, or that she was delivered of any child in the year 1802; nor has any thing appeared to us which would warrant the belief that she was pregnant in that year, or at any other period within the compass of our enquiries. The identity of the child now with the princess, its parents, age, the place and date of its birth, the time and circumstances of its being first taken under her royal highness's protection, are all established by such a concurrence, both of positive and circumstantial evidence, as can in our judgment leave no question on this part of

the subject. That child was, beyond all doubt, born in Brownlow Street Hospital, on the 11th day of July, 1802, of the body of Sophia Austin, and was first brought to the princess's house in the month of November following. Neither should we be more warranted in expressing any doubt respecting the alleged pregnancy of the princess, as stated in the original declaration—a fact so fully contradicted, and by so many witnesses, to whom, if true, it must in various ways be known, that we cannot think it entitled to the smallest credit. The testimonies on these two points are contained in the annexed depositions and letters. We have not partially abstracted them in this report, lest by any unintentional omission we might weaken their effect; but we humbly offer to your majesty this our clear and unanimous judgment upon them, formed upon full deliberation, and pronounced without hesitation, on the result of the whole enquiry. We do not, however, feel ourselves at liberty, much as we should wish it, to close our report here. Besides the allegations of the pregnancy and delivery of the princess, those declarations, on the whole of which your majesty has been pleased to command us to enquire and report, contain, as we have already remarked, other particulars respecting the conduct of her royal highness, such as must, especially considering her exalted rank and station, necessarily give occasion to very unfavourable interpretations. From the various depositions and proofs annexed to this report, particularly from the examination of Robert Bidgood, William Cole, Francis Lloyd, and Mr. Lisle, your majesty will perceive that several strong circumstances of this description have been positively sworn to by witnesses, who cannot, in our judgment, be suspected of any unfavourable bias, and whose veracity, in this respect, we have seen no ground to question.

"On the precise bearing and effect of the facts thus appearing it is not for us to decide; these we submit to your majesty's wisdom; but we conceive it to be our duty to report on this part of the enquiry as distinctly as on the former facts,—that as on the one hand the facts of pregnancy and delivery are to our minds satisfactorily disproved; so, on the other hand, we think the circumstances to which we now refer, particularly those stated to have passed between her royal highness and Captain Manby, must be credited until they shall receive some decisive contradiction; and, if true, are justly entitled to the most serious consideration. We cannot close this report without humbly assuring your majesty, that it was on every account our anxious wish to have executed this delicate trust with as little publicity as the nature of the case would possibly allow; and we entreat your majesty's permission to express our full persuasion, that if this wish has been disappointed, the failure is not imputable to any thing unnecessarily said or done by us, all which is most humbly submitted to your majesty.

(Signed)

"ERSKINE,  
"SPENCER,  
"GRENVILLE,  
"ELLENBOROUGH.

"July 14, 1806."

As soon as the report of the commissioners had been put into the hands of the princess, her royal highness wrote the following letter to his majesty. It deems the report inconclusive, and impugns the



veracity of those on whose testimony principally it was founded.

"Blackheath, Aug. 12, 1806.

"SIRE,

"With the deepest feelings of gratitude to your majesty, I take the first opportunity to acknowledge having received, as yesterday only, the report from the lords commissioners, which was dated from the 14th of July. It was brought by Lord Erskine's footman, directed to the princess of Wales, besides a note enclosed, the contents of which were, that Lord Erskine sent the evidences and report by commands of his majesty. I had reason to flatter myself that the lords commissioners would not have given in the report before they had been properly informed of various circumstances, which must, for a feeling and delicate-minded woman, be very unpleasant to have spread without having the means to exculpate herself. But I can, in the face of the Almighty, assure your majesty, that your daughter-in-law is innocent, and her conduct unquestionable; free from all the indecours and improprieties which are imputed to her at present by the lords commissioners upon the evidence of persons who speak as falsely as Sir John and Lady Douglas themselves. Your majesty can be sure that I shall be anxious to give the most solemn denial in my power to all the scandalous stories of Bidgood and Cole, to make my conduct be cleared in the most satisfactory way, for the tranquillity of your majesty, for the honour of your illustrious family, and the gratification of your afflicted daughter-in-law. In the mean time I can safely trust your majesty's gracious justice to recollect, that the whole of the evidence on which the commissioners have given credit to the infamous stories charged against me, was taken behind my back, without my having any opportunity to contradict or explain any thing, or even to point out those persons who might have been called to prove the little credit which was due to some of the witnesses from their connexion with Sir John and Lady Douglas, and the absolute falsehood of parts of the evidence, which could have been completely contradicted. Oh, gracious king! I now look for that happy moment, when I may be allowed to appear again before your majesty's eyes, and receive once more the assurance from your majesty's own mouth, that I have your gracious protection, and that you will not discard me from your friendship, of which your majesty has been so condescending to give me so many marks of kindness, and which must be my only support, and my only consolation, in this country. I remain, with sentiments of the highest esteem, veneration, and unfeigned attachment,

"SIRE,

"Your majesty's most dutiful, submissive, and humble daughter-in-law and subject,

"CAROLINE."

We need hardly say that the princess ultimately triumphed over her persecutors, and the announcement of a drawing-room on the 14th of May, 1807, at which the princess of Wales would be present, excited more of the public attention than had been witnessed for some years. About two o'clock her majesty and the princesses entered the grand council-chamber, and the duke of Cumberland gave directions to be informed when the carriage of the princess of Wales arrived. This was done, and the duke handed her out and conducted her to the grand

council-chamber, when she was presented to the queen. After conversing with her majesty a few minutes, her royal highness passed on to the princesses, the princess Sophia of Gloucester, the dukes of Cambridge and Gloucester; and after their congratulations, her royal highness received the compliments of the principal part of the nobility and gentry. She remained in the drawing-room an hour; her royal highness then left for Warwick House, to dine with the princess Charlotte.

The harmony of the royal family continued undisturbed, and the intercourse between the several branches of it was frequent and friendly. One interesting object that appeared to concentrate these sentiments of amity more closely, was the princess Charlotte of Wales, who was now advancing upon the stage of public life and exciting general attention. In the spring of this year her royal highness caught the measles, during which illness she was visited by the queen, who presented her with a superb service of china, manufactured on purpose, from drawings executed by Lady de Clifford, the governess of the princess.

The earliest years of the young princess were spent in the most advantageous manner for a constitution naturally delicate, and a mind which, from all that has transpired, appears to have been vigorous, original, and fond of acquirement. Her first years were spent with her mother, who appeared to take a peculiar interest in this noble and promising child. At a more advanced period she was put under the immediate superintendence of Lady de Clifford. The bishop of Exeter was nominated to direct her studies, and an English clergyman was also chosen as a sub-preceptor. Those who look upon a royal life as one of unmixed indulgence, may be surprised to know that with the heir presumptive to the English throne the day's tuition began at six o'clock in the morning, and continued with little intermission till evening. Her acquirements were commensurate with these exertions, and of an order much superior to those of females in general society. She is said to have been acquainted with the principal writers of the classic languages; that she was solidly informed in the history and policy of the European governments, and peculiarly so of the constitution and the distinguishing features of the history of her native country. She spoke French, German, Italian, and Spanish, with considerable fluency. The lighter accomplishments were not forgotten, and she sang, and performed on the piano, the harp, and the guitar, with more than ordinary skill. Nature had been kind to her, in indulging her with tastes which are seldom united; and, in addition to her talents for music, she had a fine perception of the picturesque in nature; and a portion of her earliest hours were given up to drawing. She wrote gracefully, and had a passionate fondness for the higher branches of English poetry.

On the 30th of August, 1808, a convention was signed at Cintra, between General Junot and Sir Hew Dalrymple, which created considerable indignation throughout the whole kingdom, and, as it was most important in its results, we give the transaction somewhat in detail. Intelligence had been received in England, that, to use the words of Sir Arthur Wellesley, "the whole of the French force in Portugal, under the command of the duke of Abrantes in person, had sustained a signal defeat;" there was

therefore an universal expectation that it would be followed up by other victories, and ultimately lead to some solid and permanent advantage. That such an advantage had been obtained was believed, when, on the arrival of the next despatches, the firing of park and Tower guns was heard at a time of night very unusual, if not unprecedented; but great was the public surprise, when it was understood that the discharge of the guns related to a convention signed at Cintra, by which it was, among other stipulations, agreed on, that the English government should be at the expense of transporting the whole of the French army to any of the ports between Rochefort and L'Orient: when the army arrived in France it was to be at liberty to serve again immediately. All the property of the army, as well as the personal property of individuals of the army, was to be sacred and untouched. It might either be carried off to France, or sold in Portugal. In the latter case, full security was to be given by the British to the purchasers, that the property they had would not be taken from them, nor themselves molested on account of the purchase. This convention was founded on the basis of an armistice agreed upon between Sir Arthur Wellesley and General Kellerman on the day after the battle of Vimeira. But the seventh article of the preliminary treaty stipulating that the Russian fleet should be allowed to remain in the Tagus unmolested as long as it thought proper, or to return home, was afterwards rejected by Sir Charles Cotton, between whom and the Russian Admiral Sincavin a convention was agreed upon for the surrender of the Russian fleet to the British.

On the 12th of October, the lord mayor, recorder, city officers, and a deputation of aldermen and common councilmen, waited on the king at St. James's, and presented an address on the subject of the convention, as follows:—

“Most gracious Sovereign,

“We, your majesty's most dutiful and loyal servants, the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common council assembled, most humbly approach your majesty with renewed assurance of attachment to your majesty's most sacred person and government, and veneration for the free principles of the British constitution: to express to your majesty our grief and astonishment at the extraordinary and disgraceful convention lately entered into by the commanders of your majesty's forces in Portugal, and the commanders of the French army in Lisbon.

“The circumstances attending this afflicting event cannot be contemplated in British minds without the most painful emotions, and all ranks of your majesty's subjects seem to have felt the utmost concern and indignation at a treaty so humiliating and degrading to this country and its allies. After a signal victory gained by the valour and discipline of the British troops, by which the enemy appears to have been cut off from all means of succour or escape, we have had the sad mortification of seeing the laurels so nobly acquired torn from the brows of our brave soldiers, and terms granted to the enemy disgraceful to the British name, and injurious to the best interests of the British nation.

“Besides the restitution of the Russian fleet upon a definitive treaty of peace with that power, and the sending back to their country, without exchange,

so large a number of Russian sailors,—by this ignominious convention, British fleets are to convey to France the French army and its plunder, where they will be at liberty immediately to recommence their active operations against us or our allies. The guarantee and safe conveyance of their plunder cannot but prove highly irritating to the pillaged inhabitants, over whom they have tyrannized, and for whose deliverance and protection the British army was sent; and the full recognition of the title and dignity of the emperor of France, while all mention of the government of Portugal is omitted, must be considered as highly disrespectful to the legitimate authority of that country.

“We therefore humbly pray your majesty, in justice to the outraged feelings of a brave, injured, and indignant people, whose blood and treasure have been thus expended, as well as to retrieve the wounded honour of the country, and to remove from its character so foul a stain in the eyes of Europe, that your majesty will be graciously pleased immediately to institute such an enquiry into this dishonourable and unprecedented transaction, as will lead to the discovery and punishment of those by whose misconduct and incapacity the cause of the country and its allies has been so shamefully sacrificed. We beg to assure your majesty of our unalterable fidelity, and earnest desire to co-operate in every measure conducive to the peace, honour, and security of your majesty's dominions.”

To which his majesty returned the following answer:—

“I am fully sensible of your loyalty and attachment to my person and government. I give credit to the motives which have dictated your petition and address; but I must remind you, that it is inconsistent with the principles of British justice to pronounce judgment without previous investigation. I should have hoped that recent occurrences would have convinced you, that I am at all times ready to institute inquiries on occasions in which the character of the country or the honour of my arms is concerned, and that the interposition of the city of London could not be necessary for inducing me to direct due enquiry to be made into a transaction which has disappointed the hopes and expectations of the nation.”

The deputies, after hearing this reply, advanced in the usual manner to have the honour of kissing the king's hand; which was extended to the lord mayor, recorder, and sheriffs; but when the common councilmen advanced, his majesty withdrew his hand.

It was a singular coincidence, that while the mayor and common council were presenting their address, Sir Arthur Wellesley entered the levee-room, where his majesty received him very graciously, and conversed with him a considerable time.

An enquiry respecting the convention of Cintra was afterwards set on foot by order of his majesty. The board, in their report, after giving a well-arranged and not altogether an uncircumstantial account of Sir Arthur Wellesley's expedition, declared, “That on a consideration of all circumstances as set forth in the report, they most humbly submitted their opinion that no further military proceeding was necessary on that subject. Because, however some of them might differ in their sentiments respecting the fitness of the convention, in the relative situation of the



two armies, it was their unanimous declaration that unquestionable zeal and firmness appeared throughout to have been exhibited by Lieutenant-General Sir Hew Dalrymple, Sir Harry Burrard, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, as well as that the ardour and gallantry of the rest of the officers and soldiers, on every occasion during the expedition, had done honour to the troops, and reflected lustre on his majesty's arms."

But his royal highness the duke of York, in a letter to Sir David Dundas, president of the board of enquiry, observed, that in their report their opinion respecting the expediency of the armistice, as well as the conditions of the convention, had been altogether omitted. He therefore desired that they would be pleased to take the same again into their most serious consideration. The board accordingly met again; some of the members approved the treaties, others disapproved of them. On the question of the expediency of the armistice in the relative situation of the two armies, the earl of Moira was the only dissentient; but on the subject of the convention, or rather the terms upon which it was concluded, the approval was carried by a majority of only one. His majesty issued a formal declaration, which was communicated officially to Sir Hew Dalrymple, containing a marked disapprobation of both the armistice and convention.

On the 19th of January, 1809, the House of Lords met pursuant to prorogation, when the lord chancellor delivered the following important speech from his majesty:—

"My lords, and gentlemen—We have it in command from his majesty to state to you, that his majesty has called you together, in perfect confidence that you are prepared cordially to support his majesty in the prosecution of a war, which there is no hope of terminating safely and honourably except through vigorous and persevering exertion. We are to acquaint you that his majesty has directed to be laid before you copies of the proposals for opening a negotiation which were transmitted to his majesty from Erfurth, and of the correspondence which thereupon took place with the government of Russia and of France, together with the declaration issued by his majesty's command on the termination of that correspondence.

"His majesty is persuaded that you will participate in the feelings which were expressed by his majesty, when it was required that his majesty should consent to commence the negotiation by abandoning the cause of Spain, which he had so recently and solemnly espoused. We are commanded to inform you, that his majesty continues to receive from the Spanish government the strongest assurances of their determined perseverance in the cause of the legitimate monarchy, and of the national independence of Spain, and to assure you, that so long as the people of Spain shall remain true to themselves, his majesty will continue to them his most strenuous assistance and support.

"His majesty has renewed to the Spanish nation, in the moment of its difficulties and reverses, the engagements which he voluntarily contracted at the outset of its struggle against the usurpation and tyranny of France; and we are commanded to acquaint you, that these engagements have been reduced into the form of a treaty of alliance, which treaty, so soon as the ratifications shall have been

exchanged, his majesty will cause to be laid before you.

"His majesty commands us to state to you, that while his majesty contemplated with the liveliest satisfaction the achievements of his forces in the commencement of the campaign in Portugal, and the deliverance of the kingdom of his ally from the presence and oppressions of the French army, his majesty most deeply regretted the termination of that campaign by an armistice and convention, of some of the articles of which his majesty has felt himself obliged formally to declare his disapprobation. We are to express to you his majesty's reliance on your disposition to enable his majesty to continue the aid afforded by his majesty to the king of Sweden. That monarch derives a peculiar claim to his majesty's support in the present exigency of his affairs, from having concurred with his majesty in the propriety of rejecting any proposal for negotiation to which the government of Spain was not to be admitted as a party."

"Gentlemen of the House of Commons,—We are commanded by his majesty to inform you, that he has directed the estimates of the current year to be laid before you. His majesty relies upon your zeal and affection to make such further provisions of supply as the vigorous prosecution of the war may render necessary; and he trusts that you may be enabled to find the means of providing such supply without any great or immediate increase of the existing burdens upon his people.

"His majesty feels assured it will be highly satisfactory to you to learn that, notwithstanding the measures resorted to by the enemy for the purpose of destroying the commerce and resources of his kingdom, the public revenue has continued in a course of progressive improvement."

An address to his majesty was moved by the earl of Bridgewater, and seconded by Lord Sheffield. But the earl of St. Vincent rose, and said that the address read was such that no man who had a veneration for his sovereign or a love for his country could ever assent to. Some parts of it, which went to express a determined hostility to the common enemy, and a firm resolution to carry on the war against him, all must approve. But when he adverted to the manner in which that opposition to him had been conducted on the peninsula of Europe, it was wholly impossible not to express both sorrow and indignation. He would assert it in the face of the country and in the face of the world, that it was the greatest disgrace that had befallen Great Britain since the days of the Revolution; and this he openly declared, whether he took into consideration the manner in which the war was carried on in Portugal or the way in which our troops had been sent there. The convention of Cintra could not be considered without sentiments of alarm as well as indignation rising in the mind, more especially when he observed the cold-blooded treaty that gave up a contest with the ships of an enemy upon a compromise so unworthy the character of the nation. There was, he said, a distinguished person near him who had the confidence of the people, who had the love of the soldiery, and who possessed the esteem of his majesty: why was not such a person as that nobleman employed? The reason was evident—it was because management prevented it. But was it to be supposed that because a court of

inquiry had deemed no further investigation necessary, that therefore there ought to be no investigation? Whenever he looked at the terms of the convention, whenever he reflected on the decision of that court, he could not avoid exclaiming that the decision so announced was a blot upon the country. Whenever he heard of councils of war being called he always considered them as cloaks for cowardliness: so said the brave Boscawen, and from him he imbibed the sentiment which time and experience had completely confirmed. At Vimeira we gained a victory, and in the moment that our soldiers were flushed with conquest recourse was had to a council of war; that he presumed could only have been necessary or indeed apologized for in the moment of defeat. Upon what principle, therefore, such an expedient was resorted to he for one, accustomed to other methods, could not account. If that house did its duty, they would immediately proceed to the foot of the throne, and there tell the sovereign the bold truth, that if he did not remove his ministers he would lose the country. These were the sentiments of his heart; he spoke them as a solemn duty, which he found himself bound to express.

Earl Grosvenor admitted that there was not much in the address to allow a diversity of opinion. He cordially approved of that part of the speech which expressed a determination to give all possible assistance to the Spaniards so long as they should continue to be true to themselves. He did not despair of the Spanish cause, provided that the vast means of this country were employed in the manner best calculated to distress and embarrass the enemy. He also concurred in the disapprobation of the convention of Cintra. His lordship severely censured that military arrangement by which a British army was sent into the heart of Spain when it should have been sent to the foot of the Pyrenees. It should have been sent to a situation where it could not be exposed to the possibility of being obliged to retreat.—Lord Sidmouth approved of continuing to support Spain as long as any hopes remained, but he was not prepared to thank his majesty for a treaty, of the conditions and engagements of which he was wholly ignorant.

Lord Grenville observed that it was the constant practice, until the present administration came into office, to refrain, both in the speech and in the address, from calling upon parliament to deliver any decided opinion approving of past measures, the documents relating to which were not in the possession of the house, or expressing a determination to support any future system the details of which had not been communicated. With respect to the policy of sending a British army to Spain, he did not mean to say that there might not be circumstances under which it might be expedient to send British troops into Spain, but during the last summer there was no prospect that ought to have induced any reasonable man to send a British army into the interior of Spain. The Spanish people themselves must, and ought to, maintain their independence; and without that spirit amongst themselves, no army that we could send would be of any avail. They adopted a system, which was published in the early part of the summer under the title of "Precautions," and which contained a most excellent plan of defence, adapted to the peculiarities of the country, and calculated to harass and annoy an invading army,

and to wear them down by a continued system of partial attack, without incurring the risk which must necessarily attend a pitched battle with regular and veteran troops. Lord Grenville said that there was one most important topic which he thought it his duty to press on their lordships, though no notice was taken of it either in the speech or in the address—he meant the present state of our relations with the United States of America: most important matters were connected with these relations, and they ought to be looked at and settled with all the care and diligence the character and the interest of the country demanded.

In 1809, his majesty having reigned fifty years, the event was celebrated by a public jubilee. The family of his majesty, throughout his happy period, had been exempt from many of those sorrows and pangs which "flesh is heir to." Except the discord between the prince and princess of Wales, nothing had happened more pungent to disturb their domestic circle. The close of the year 1810 was marked by an event of the most painful kind. In the autumn of that year their majesties' fears were seriously alarmed for their youngest daughter, the princess Amelia. At the beginning the princess felt a considerable increase of debility; sea-bathing proved of no avail, and she was put under a severe course of regimen, but without benefit. In October the princess was attacked with St. Anthony's fire, which was attended with so much excruciating agony as could not but shatter a frame naturally tender, and already weakened by the repeated assaults of an incurable malady. Throughout her whole sufferings she displayed the greatest fortitude, and her pious resignation to the will of Providence increased in proportion to her afflictions. While she lay languishing in expectation of her last hour, his majesty attended her constantly, and administered to his beloved child every consolation that could be drawn from religion, though his own heart suffered acutely as he witnessed the pains she endured. The whole family were overcome with sorrow; all seemed to dread the arrival of the moment of separation. But great as was his majesty's affliction at perceiving the dangerous character of his daughter's illness, yet at intervals it was alleviated by the pious expressions of the princess. No murmur escaped her; her regard for her venerable parent was constantly exhibited; and though her eye had lost much of its vivacity, yet it spoke all the meaning of her heart towards him. It was then his majesty more than ever felt her value; then he knew how necessary she was for his happiness; but neither wishes nor attentions could shield her from the shaft of death. But before it took effect his majesty witnessed a most touching scene. The princess had prepared a ring to be given to her afflicted parent as a memorial of her. On his usual visit she placed it herself upon his finger, and, with a look most tenderly affectionate, said, "Take this token to remember me." The susceptible monarch and father felt the shock as electric, withdrew, and from that moment his mental malady became fixed and permanent. The princess after the bequest resigned herself, and shortly afterwards expired, unconscious of the blow she had innocently given to her royal parent. The death of the princess Amelia was announced to his majesty on the 4th, or rather he anticipated the intelligence; for as soon as Sir H. Halford entered his chamber and was about to introduce the subject, he interrupted



him, and said, "I find by your manner that my poor girl is no more; I am prepared for the event; she is happy." In the course of the day his majesty returned to the subject, enquired if it was not so, and spoke of the past sufferings of his daughter with resignation and composure.

The princess Amelia was the youngest child of their majesties. She was born August the 7th, 1783, and was from early youth of a very tender and delicate constitution, being frequently attacked with severe indisposition. In her person she was tall and slender, and her air was most graceful and prepossessing. Illness had impressed its marks on her countenance and scattered lilies over her cheeks. In her manners she was so mild, elegant, and amiable, as to win every heart. The frequency of her indispositions prevented her from studying as deeply as her elder sisters, yet she cultivated the fine arts with great success. In music and painting she was a proficient. Dignified, though condescending; benevolent without ostentation; lively, though a prey to sickness, which usually quenches the spirits as well as the health of youth; she was beloved by all those who lived within the sphere of hearing of her virtues. Her favourite amusement was that of riding, in which she was conspicuous for her elegance and skill. Exercise, however, and all the resources of the medical art, could but delay the fatal hour; her disorder began to gain ground in an alarming manner upwards of two years before her death; and when the first jubilee of his majesty was celebrated, she was lying on the bed of sickness with but little hopes of recovery.

On the 7th of the following November, by the advice of Sir H. Halford and with the approbation of the queen, the prince sent for Dr. Willis to attend the king, who began to show evident symptoms of insanity. His majesty's malady was considered to be as violent as it had been in 1788-9, and a prayer was ordered to be read in all cathedrals, churches, &c. before the Litany, for his recovery. During the momentary meeting of parliament on the 15th, his majesty's disorder appeared to have had a turn for the better, but afterwards relapsed in restlessness and fever. A further adjournment from the 15th to the 29th was, after some opposition in the House of Commons, agreed to. On the 29th the report of his majesty's physicians was received in the House of Commons, and Mr. Perceval, observing that there was a great probability of the king's recovery, proposed another adjournment for fourteen days, declaring that at the expiration of that period, unless such an amendment should take place in his majesty's health as to afford a reasonable hope of his speedy recovery, he should not consider it consistent with the public interest farther to delay taking parliamentary steps to supply the deficiency of the executive government.

On the meeting of both houses a committee of twenty-one members each was appointed to examine the physicians who had attended his majesty during his illness. Dr. Reynolds had attended his majesty on all the four occasions of similar indisposition, and consequently his examination was carried to considerable length. Dr. Baillie, who had not attended his majesty on any of the preceding attacks, was only half an hour under examination. When the king's blindness first rendered him unable to read for himself any public document, or to sign it unless the paper were put before him and his hand guided to the particular place where the signature should ap-

pear, a person was employed as his private secretary. In addition to his blindness his majesty was afflicted with deafness, which rendered the case more deplorable. The physicians said that they had never witnessed a case precisely like that of his majesty. Dr. Willis applied the term derangement to the king's disorder in contradistinction to insanity, and thus explained himself:—"I consider the king's derangement as more allied to delirium than insanity; whenever the irritation in his majesty arises to a certain point, he uniformly becomes delirious. In delirium the mind is actively employed on past impressions, upon former objects and scenes, which rapidly pass in succession before it, resembling in that case a person talking in his sleep. There is also considerable disturbance in the general constitution; great restlessness, great want of sleep, and total unconsciousness of surrounding objects. In insanity there may be little or no disturbance, apparently, in the general constitution; the mind is occupied upon some fixed assumed idea, to the truth of which it will pertinaciously adhere in opposition to the plainest evidence of its falsity, and the individual acting always upon that false impression. In insanity, also, the mind is always awake to objects which are present. Taking insanity, therefore, and delirium as two points, I would place derangement of mind somewhere between them. His majesty's illness uniformly partakes more of the delirium than of insanity."

On the meeting of the houses on the 30th November, a report of the physicians on the state of the king's health was brought up in both houses, and in the lower house the chancellor of the exchequer, in hopes of the king's amendment, moved for the further adjournment of a fortnight, and if none appeared, that then the houses should proceed to fill up the chasm in the royal authority. This was opposed by Mr. Whitbread on the ground of the impropriety of delay, but justified by Mr. Yorke. Mr. Ponsonby went more at large into the grounds of opposition, declaring his intention of dividing the house upon it, and moving for a committee to examine the physicians. Sir F. Burdett reprobated the pretended delicacy of many gentlemen who forgot that delicacy must give way in great affairs of moment. Mr. Wilberforce declared, that after balancing the matter in his mind for a considerable time, he could see no harm in the adjournment, and should therefore vote for it. In the House of Lords a similar adjournment was moved and carried.

On the 13th of December the houses met again: in the House of Lords it was agreed that a committee should be appointed; and in the House of Commons one was fixed on to examine the physicians, after which it adjourned to the 17th, when a very voluminous report was brought up and ordered to be printed. The chancellor of the exchequer gave an outline of his plan for filling up the chasm in the regal branch of government, and moved a call of the house to take it into consideration. The examination of the physicians pointed out the species of insanity under which his majesty laboured; held out hopes of recovery, but could not ascertain its early removal. Above all it brought to light various periods in which his majesty had been in similar situations, and matter sufficient for very serious investigation, and due regulation of those persons who were supposed, when they issued orders by the king's authority and with his signature, to have received them from him.



At the meeting of the house the chancellor of the exchequer brought forward three propositions: the first, declaring the incapacity of the king to perform the royal functions; the second, asserting the right of the house to supply the defect; and the third, pointing out the necessity of devising some means that the royal assent should be given to a bill on the exercise of the royal authority during the king's indisposition. On each of these he dilated at considerable length, making the proceedings of 1788 his precedent, according to which the prince of Wales was to be regent under certain restrictions, and the queen to have the care of the king's person.

On the second resolution being put from the chair, Sir F. Burdett declared that he could not assent to it, as it spoke of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons of the united kingdoms, lawfully, fully, and freely representing all the estates of this realm. This was contrary to the constitution of the country, and it was notorious that instances of corruption had been proved of that house, in which a hundred and fifty peers had great influence in the election of its members. In 1688 the city of London, and the respectable gentry throughout the country who had sat in parliament, were called in a convention, a parliament to settle the great interests of the nation: now a house, of which he gave some strong features, summing up its titles by the name of the Walcheren Parliament, without any appeal to the people, their constituents, usurped power for themselves. On the subject of the king's illness, it appeared that the people had been deceived, and that ministers had dared to carry on the government while the executive was incapacitated. He should therefore enter his solemn protest against the whole of the proceedings as miserable pretences, as aiming a mortal stab at the constitution of the country, and making an oligarchical House of Commons, varnished over with forms to govern the country. The second resolution was then read, and passed, with the dissent of Sir Francis, but without a division.

On the third resolution being put, Mr. Ponsonby objected to it, denying the right of the houses to command the chancellor to apply the king's seal to an act, and then to consider it as having the royal sanction. They were agreed as to the person of the regent, but differed on the mode, to which he objected more than to the limitations; and he moved, that an address be presented to his royal highness, praying him to take the royal functions upon him during the king's illness. Mr. Canning preferred the precedents of 1788 to those of the Restoration and Revolution, and spoke in ridicule of Sir Francis Burdett, as he wished to call in the assistance of the lord mayor and common council to settle the regency. Lord Temple followed the same course as well as Lord Jocelyn; but Mr. Adam strenuously resisted it. Sir Samuel Romilly considered the resolutions as inconsistent with each other. In one, the right of the lords and commons to fill up the vacancy is asserted, and yet that vacancy being acknowledged, the royal assent to a bill was to be procured, to which his majesty could give no assent. The will of the lords and commons can in no wise be construed into the king's will, nor can they by any means legislate for the nation. As well might a set of men in common life make a contract for a man under insanity, and then employ a person as his solicitor to affix his seal and signature to the deed. In fact, the personal

presence of the king, or of a commission signed by him, was essential to every act of legislation, and if the houses could dispense with this in one case, they might in others; they might make war or peace, or any thing else, and say such was the king's pleasure. This mode of legislation was fraudulent, and inconsistent with that open and manly character which ought to characterize every act of the legislature.

After long, tedious, and very uninteresting debates, it was agreed by both houses, previous to the settlement of the regency, that they should become a regular parliament, which was done by a commission formed under the great seal, opening the parliament by a similar commission to that issued when the king does not appear in person. This being done, the two houses determined that the interregnum in the royal power should be filled up by bill, not by address; and for the purpose of framing this bill, certain resolutions were passed in the commons, and carried to the lords, which, after a slight alteration, were returned to them, and were meant to be the foundation of a bill for vesting the royal power, with certain limitations, in the prince of Wales, and the care of the royal person, with certain privileges, in the queen.

Previously to the framing of this bill, a deputation of lords and commons waited on the prince and the queen, to lay before them the resolutions of the two houses, as far as belonged to each; to which the prince returned the following answer:—

"My Lords, and Gentlemen,

"I receive the communication which the two houses have directed you to make to me of their joint resolutions on the subject of providing for 'the exercise of the royal authority, during his majesty's illness' with those sentiments of regard which I must ever entertain for the united desires of the two houses. With the same sentiments I receive the expressed hopes of the lords and commons, that from my regard for the interest of his majesty and the nation I should be ready to undertake the weighty and important trust proposed to be invested in me under the restrictions and limitations stated in those resolutions.

"Conscious that every feeling of my heart would have prompted me, from dutiful affection to my beloved father and sovereign, to have shown all the reverential delicacy towards him inculcated in these resolutions, I cannot refrain from expressing my regret that I should not have been allowed the opportunity of manifesting to his afflicted and loyal subjects that such would have been my conduct. Deeply impressed with the necessity of tranquillizing the public mind, and determined to submit to every personal sacrifice consistent with the regard I owe to the security of my father's crown, and the equal regard I owe to the welfare of his people, I do not hesitate to accept the office and situation proposed to me, restricted as they are, still retaining every opinion expressed by me upon a former and similar distressing occasion. In undertaking the trust proposed to me, I am well aware of the difficulties of the situation in which I shall be placed, but I shall rely with confidence upon the constitutional advice of an enlightened parliament and the zealous support of a generous and loyal people. I will use all the means left to me to merit both."

On the 21st of May, 1811, it was rumoured in



Windsor, that his majesty was so much recovered that the physicians would allow him, after that day, to appear in public, and that he was to ride on horseback the next day. Expectation was confirmed by the king's querry in waiting giving orders for his majesty's saddle-horse to be got ready. This order soon spread through the town; and from this time the visitors, as well as the inhabitants of Windsor and Eton, flocked to the castle-yard and park in great numbers. About a quarter past twelve o'clock his majesty's grooms made their appearance in the castle-yard, with his majesty's favourite horse Adonis. All was anxiety then for the appearance of the king. His majesty soon after came out of the castle, accompanied by the princesses Augusta and Sophia, with whom he appeared in cheerful conversation. His majesty mounted his horse with apparent ease, and proceeded through the little park into the great park, where the royal party continued till half past one o'clock, when they returned to the castle, where there were crowds waiting their return. His majesty, on his return, was received by Dr. Willis at the palace-gate, who conducted him into the castle. As soon as his majesty had mounted his horse, a signal was given, and the bells of the parish church and cathedral struck up, to announce the happy news of his majesty's re-appearance in public.

The following is the substance of the official report of the state of his majesty's health on the 6th of July as presented to the privy council by the queen's council:—

“His majesty's bodily health is but little disordered. Some of his majesty's physicians do not entertain hopes of his majesty's recovery quite so confident as those which they had expressed on the 6th of April. The persuasion of others of his majesty's physicians, that his majesty will completely recover, is not diminished; and they all appear to agree that there is a considerable probability of his majesty's final recovery; and that neither his majesty's bodily health, nor his present symptoms, nor the effect which the disease has yet produced upon his majesty's faculties, afford any reason for thinking that his majesty will not ultimately recover.”

The approach of the period in which the regency act was to expire rendered necessary a particular and formal inquiry into the state of his majesty's bodily and mental health, and committees were appointed by both houses for the examination of the king's physicians on these points. The reports of each were laid before their respective houses on January 13th and 15th, 1812, and were printed. The medical gentlemen examined were, Doctors Heberden, Baillie, Sir W. Halford, Monro, Simmons, John and Darling Willis. They all agreed respecting his majesty's present incapacity of attending to public business, and also that his bodily health was either good or little impaired. They agreed also in representing his state of mind as greatly disordered. With respect to the chance of recovery, they concurred in thinking such an event improbable. There was some difference, at least in their language, some representing it as bordering upon hopelessness, others as only a preponderance of improbability. On the whole it was evident that the amount of opinion was such as to exclude any reasonable expectation of a recovery. The following is an extract

from the report made by her majesty's council, on the state of his majesty's health, on the 5th of January:—

“That his majesty's bodily health appears to us to be as good as at any of the periods of our former reports,—that his majesty's mental health appears to us not to be worse than at the period of our last report,—that all the physicians attending his majesty agree in stating, that they think his majesty's complete and final recovery improbable; differing, however, as to the degree of such improbability: some of them expressing themselves as not despairing,—others as not entirely despairing,—and one of them representing that he cannot help despairing of such recovery.”

On January the 16th in this year, the House of Commons having resolved itself into a committee to consider of that part of the regent's speech which related to his majesty's household, the chancellor of the exchequer rose to submit to the committee the measures which it might be proper to adopt under the existing circumstances. He then proceeded to lay before the committee what he conceived to be the principal objects they had to keep in view. The exercise of the royal authority in the person of the king being suspended, it was first necessary to consider how it was to be supplied; and in the second place, they were to take into consideration the nature of the provision requisite for the maintenance and comfort of the king during his illness. The first object was already provided for by that clause which gave to the regent the full powers of royalty at the expiration of six weeks from the commencement of the present session; but with the sovereign authority the civil list would also devolve upon him, unless parliament were to make some arrangement for his majesty's household. No one could think that the double establishment requisite for a regent and a king could be conducted at the same expense as that for a king alone. The necessary additional expense he thought would not be regarded as extravagant if calculated at the sum of 10,000*l.* per annum; and this he proposed to meet by an addition of that amount to the civil list. He next called the attention of the committee to the situation of the queen. As it could not be expected that she would continue stationary, as she had done, a greater expense would be incurred by any removal for health or amusement; and to meet this and other expenses attached to the new arrangement of the household he should propose an addition out of the civil list of 10,000*l.* to her majesty's income. The pensions and allowances which his majesty was accustomed to bestow on the objects of his bounty were next to be considered. These had always been paid out of the privy purse, and as it would certainly be thought right to continue them, he supposed there would be no necessity for changing the fund; submitting, however, the accounts to a scrutiny in a committee of expenditure. The expenses for medical attendance on his majesty might be defrayed out of the same fund; but there was an excess in the revenue of the duchy of Lancaster of about 30,000 or 40,000*l.*, which might be applied to demands of that kind. With respect to his majesty's private property, three commissioners should be appointed for the care of it; one to be a master in chancery, and the other two nominated by the queen and the regent. He was now come to the consideration of the state in



which the prince regent would be placed, having the civil list returned to him less by 100,000*l.* per annum than had been allowed to his majesty. He would therefore propose, that of his exchequer income, 50,000*l.* should be transferred to the civil list instead of being paid to him, which would leave 70,000*l.* untouched; first, for making provision for the due arrangement of his majesty's household, and for the exercise of the royal authority during the continuance of his majesty's indisposition, and for the purpose of enabling the queen to meet the increased expense to which, in consequence of such indisposition, her majesty may be exposed, there be granted to his majesty out of the consolidated fund of Great Britain, for that period, the additional yearly sum of 70,000*l.* Secondly, that it is expedient that provision be made for defraying the expenses incident to the assumption of the personal exercise of the royal authority by his royal highness the prince regent in the name and on the behalf of his majesty. Mr. Ponsonby made some remarks upon the complexity of the plan laid before them by the chancellor of the exchequer, which he thought might have been simplified, by giving to him who exercises the royal functions all that has been heretofore considered as necessary for the splendour and dignity of the crown, and leaving to the heir-apparent to decide on what is proper for the dignity and comfort of his majesty. He next adverted to Mr. Perceval's idea of a sort of middle non-descript state between sanity and insanity, to which the royal sufferer might arrive, which he contended was utterly unfounded upon any thing that had appeared on the examination of the physicians. He touched upon the proposed augmentation of the queen's income, for which he could not discover a single reason; and also upon the 100,000*l.* to be granted to the regent for covering the cost incurred by his assumption of the government, respecting which he thought that nothing more could be expected from parliament than a willingness to grant whatever might appear proper under the specified heads of expenditure. He concluded by wishing that the resolutions might lie on the table a few days, that gentlemen might have an opportunity of considering the subject. After some further debate, the resolutions were put and agreed to.

The disorder of the king took a very unfavourable turn towards the latter end of May, 1812, and the paroxysms surpassed what had previously occurred since the commencement of his illness. Some of these attacks lasted fifty or sixty hours, and from the effect of one the royal patient was left in a speechless state, so as to create alarming fears in the minds of his medical attendants. Previous to these attacks, her majesty, with one or two of the princesses, was accustomed to visit his majesty for an hour or more each day; and though his discourse was hurried, with frequent wanderings, yet he was generally calm, and he never failed to recognize the presence of his family. But since the attacks this enjoyment, which was the only one the venerable king had, was not continued. Some of the most intelligent of the faculty were yet not without hope of a partial recovery; they were encouraged to form this idea by what had happened after former paroxysms. This opinion was in some degree confirmed; and although the royal sufferer did not regain intellectual discernment, yet his bodily health was speedily recruited, and in a short time he

was pronounced to be as well as he was before the attack.

At the commencement of the year 1814 the attention of all Europe was fixed upon France; which, from having been accustomed to send out her legions to dictate laws to sovereigns in their capitals, now saw her frontiers possessed by powerful armies from those very states. At this crisis of her fate, Napoleon appeared to have lost his usual powers of exertion, and to be impelled to his ruin by an over-weening dependence upon past successes. But the formidable appearance of the allied armies aroused him; a series of battles with various successes followed; negotiations for peace were opened, but were abruptly closed, and the allies finally entered Paris. The emperor of Russia issued a declaration expressing the intentions of the allies. It affirmed that they would no more treat with Bonaparte, that they respected the integrity of France as it existed under its legitimate kings, and that the constitution which France should adopt, they would guarantee and support.

The public bulletins of his majesty's health in the early part of 1816 stated that his disorder remained undiminished. At times, however, it appeared that he was tolerably composed. The number of persons specially appointed to attend him by the physicians were reduced from six to two, and his principal pages were admitted to attend him as when he enjoyed good health. His majesty dined at half-past one o'clock, and he in general ordered his dinner: he invariably had roast beef upon his table on Sundays. He dressed for dinner, wore his orders, &c. His majesty, together with his attendants, occupied a suite of thirteen rooms, which are situated on the north side of Windsor Castle, under the state rooms. Five of the thirteen rooms were wholly devoted to the personal use of the king. Dr. John Willis slept in the sixth room, adjoining the five rooms, to be in readiness to attend his majesty. Every morning after breakfast, about half-past ten o'clock, he waited on the queen, to report to her the state of the king's health; he afterwards proceeded to the princesses, and other branches of the royal family who happened to be at Windsor, and made a similar report to them. In general, her majesty returned with Dr. Willis down a private staircase leading into the king's suite of rooms, and conversed with her royal husband.

The queen was the only person admitted to converse with the king, except the medical gentlemen and his majesty's personal attendants. In Dr. Willis's absence, Dr. Robert Willis, his brother, took his place. The other medical gentlemen took it in rotation to be in close attendance upon the king. The suite of rooms which his majesty and his attendants occupied had the advantage of pure and excellent air; and his majesty was not prevented from occasionally walking on the terrace, but he generally declined it, owing to the bad state of his eyes, which did not enable him to enjoy the views.

On the 1st of February parliament was opened by commission; the speech which follows is important, and is sufficiently descriptive of the progress of the public affairs in the absence of longer details:—

"My Lords, and Gentlemen,

"We are commanded by his royal highness the prince regent to express to you his deep regret at the continuance of his majesty's lamented indisposi-



tion. The prince regent directs us to acquaint you, that he has had the greatest satisfaction in calling you together, under circumstances which enable him to announce to you the restoration of peace throughout Europe.

"The splendid and decisive successes obtained by his majesty's arms, and those of the allies, had led, at an early period of the campaign, to the re-establishment of the authority of his most Christian majesty in the capital of his dominions; and it has been since that time his royal highness's most earnest endeavour to promote such arrangements as appeared to him best calculated to provide for the lasting repose and security of Europe. In the adjustment of these arrangements it was natural to expect that many difficulties would occur; but the prince regent trusts it will be found, that by moderation and firmness they have been effectually surmounted. To the intimate union which has happily subsisted between the Allied Powers, the nations of the continent have twice owed their deliverance. His royal highness has no doubt that you will be sensible of the great importance of maintaining, in its full force, that alliance from which so many advantages have already been derived, and which affords the best prospect of the continuance of peace."

In the summer of 1818 her majesty became alarmingly ill, from a disorder, the precise nature of which has never been made public; it was generally supposed to be dropsy, attended with spasm. The first serious attack took place on a journey from Buckingham House to Windsor, and the convulsions were so violent that it was deemed advisable to proceed no further than Kew Palace. Her majesty gradually recovered from this attack, and hopes were entertained that the complaint might be entirely removed. But at an entertainment given by the duke of York in June her majesty was again attacked with spasm, with additional violence, so that she was unable afterwards to walk. Her majesty was removed to Kew Palace and was accompanied by the princess Augusta and the duchess of Gloucester, who were incessant in their attendance on their royal parent; and who remained with her until her dissolution.

The first sign of decay in the excellent constitution of his majesty appeared in November 1819, when, after suffering much from a severe cold, he was attacked by a slight species of diarrhœa, which, after some days, yielded to anodyne, and astringent medicines, and all apprehensions with respect to it ceased; but on the first of January, 1820, the following bulletin was published, and probably was meant to prepare the public mind for a change in his majesty: "His majesty's disorder has undergone no sensible alteration. His majesty's bodily health has partaken of some of the infirmities of age, but has been generally good during the last month."

This official notice was far from producing the impression of immediate danger; and, compared with the reports that had previously obtained circulation, tended rather to induce the belief of a reinstatement. All the intelligence, from oral information and other sources, leads to the conviction, that it was not till several days had elapsed from the publication of the bulletin, that his majesty's symptoms became a source of peculiar anxiety and solicitude to his medical attendants. At that period his disorder returned with greater violence, and in despite of the utmost skill of his physicians, several of whom

remained in constant attendance, continued from day to day to make visible inroads on the health and strength of the royal patient.

His majesty, in his second attack, rejected animal food. The most nourishing diet, in every form that could be devised to tempt his appetite, was prepared for him, but seemed to fail in its purpose of sustaining or recruiting exhausted nature. A few days before his death he became almost reduced to a skeleton. The general decay to which his constitution was reduced showed itself in the usual symptoms. It was evident his blood was becoming torpid and chilly; for though artificial means were used to raise the temperature of his apartments, yet he continued to manifest increasing suffering from cold. It was not, however, till within two days of his decease that he kept his bed entirely, though for several days previously he had not risen at his accustomed early hour.

The symptoms now became so alarming that Sir H. Halford came express to town, and had an immediate audience of the duke of York. The consequence was, that his royal highness's carriage was immediately ordered, and without a moment's delay he set forward with post-horses for Windsor Castle. The rapid movements of official personages throughout Saturday and the preceding day strengthened the belief of the alarming crisis which his majesty's indisposition had attained. At a late hour on Friday evening the earl of Liverpool set off to Windsor, where he remained the whole of the night. At ten o'clock in the morning of the 29th, the medical attendants, and the lords in waiting, felt assured that the last hour of the venerable sufferer was approaching, and that the day would terminate his life. As the evening advanced, his majesty became gradually weaker and weaker, but apparently without the slightest pain, till nature was quite exhausted; and at thirty-five minutes past eight o'clock he breathed his last without suffering a struggle.



His majesty's remains were interred in St. George's Chapel, Windsor, and the funeral was of the most sumptuous kind. As yet no monument worthy of the

character of this amiable sovereign and estimable man has been erected in the metropolis. The only one bearing any personal likeness is represented in the previous page. It was executed by Mr. Wyatt, and opened to the public in 1836.

The public conduct of this prince, and the tendencies of the political principles by which it was guided, might afford much scope for discussion and will be differently estimated by opposite parties; but respecting his private and domestic character little variance of opinion has at any time existed among his contemporaries. Probity and a strict sense of religious obligation formed the basis of his moral conduct; moderation and simplicity accompanied his habits and manners, while charity and benevolence shed a lustre on all his actions. A faithful and affectionate husband, a fond and assiduous parent, and a kind, considerate, and affable master, he secured the respect and attachment of all who approached him. His intellectual faculties, after many occasional intervals, were permanently clouded by the constitutional malady which first exhibited itself at an early period of his life. An inflexible persistence in the line of conduct which he had once judged it right to adopt, added to an immovable adherence to the maxims of government instilled into him by his earliest instructors, formed the leading characteristics of his mind, and influenced the destinies of his kingdoms. In literary taste George III. was supposed to be somewhat deficient though he collected one of the noblest libraries extant; but the fine arts, especially music and painting, were loved and patronised by him. Agriculture also and mechanics were among his favourite pursuits; while hunting, till a late period of life, formed one of his principal amusements. His firm attachment to the Church of which he was the head was totally exempt from bigotry: he uniformly insisted that no species of religious persecution should take place under his sway; and all the relaxations of the penal laws affecting the Catholics and the Protestant Dissenters bear date from the commencement of his reign. These were sanctioned by his beneficent and equitable mind; while a genuine scruple of conscience respecting the duties of his coronation oath seems alone to have opposed his conceding to the former important body the full rights of citizens. To the system of general education promulgated by Joseph Lancaster, his majesty early extended his firm and liberal support, nobly disdainful of the scruples and alarms which it excited in other quarters. On this subject he once uttered the memorable wish, "that the day might come in which every poor child in his dominions should be able to read his Bible."

GEORGE IV., king of Great Britain and Hanover, was the eldest son of George III. by his queen Charlotte of Mecklenburg Strelitz. He was born August 12th, 1762, and was declared prince of Wales and duke of Cornwall immediately afterwards. His education was at first confided to Dr. Markham and Dr. Jackson of Oxford, but owing to some disagreement between the royal pupil and his tutors they were afterwards supplanted by Dr. Hurd and Mr. Arnold of Cambridge. The young prince made considerable progress in his classical acquirements, but the commencement of his career in life was marked by a strong predilection for dissipation. Amongst his male associates we may enumerate Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, all men more celebrated for the brilliancy of

their wit and oratorical powers than for moral respectability



The prince's connexion with Mrs. Robinson occurred before he had attained his eighteenth year. His treatment of this female was of a character with that to which women who forfeit their virtue for the tinsel ornaments of high rank are usually subjected; she was first caressed and promised the highest honours, and then cast aside with the most heartless indifference. The circumstance excited severe animadversions on the prince at the time, and we only advert to it as marking the commencement of a system of license which ended with his life.

On the 12th of August, 1783, his royal highness reached his majority. A message from the king had prepared the commons to grant him a suitable income and a sum sufficient for the formation of an establishment appropriate to his station. For the latter purpose a sum of 60,000*l.* was voted; and the former demand was met by an annuity of 50,000*l.* The smallness of this provision was condemned by one party as likely to lead to great inconvenience; and applauded by another as showing a proper regard to the already intolerable burdens of the people. One portion of the coalition ministry who were then in power warmly argued for an allowance of 100,000*l.* a year. But the prince himself interposed, and insisted that the settlement should be left solely to the discretion of the sovereign. The prince's expenditure, however, exceeded 64,000*l.* per annum; and the debts incurred by the alteration of Carlton House, and other arrangements made his total outlay of money and credit amount to 100,000*l.* a year.

His difficulties gradually increased to such a degree that three years after his settlement he applied to the king for assistance and relief. A schedule of the prince's debts was, by the king's command, soon laid before him, but whatever might be the nature of that document some of the items were so inconsistent with the strictly moral principles of George the Third that the negotiation ended in his positive refusal to assist the prince, and the heir apparent gained nothing by



his application but the unequivocal displeasure of the king.

A resolution was now taken by the prince, which was more loudly applauded and more strongly condemned, according to the different views of different parties, than any action of his eventful life. Surrounded with pecuniary difficulties and exasperated by the king's refusal to relieve them, he resolved to pursue a course which would have been wise in a private individual, but which in him must be considered at the best a dubious virtue. This was a determination to live on an income of 10,000*l.* a year, appropriating 40,000*l.* annually to the liquidation of his debts till all should be discharged.

Waving the discussion of the propriety or error of this resolution, it may be briefly remarked that in the course of a few months the prince himself had altered his opinion of its necessity. During that short period he rigidly adhered to his plan of retrenchment, dismissed the workmen from Carlton House, discharged his superfluous attendants, broke up his establishment, sold his race-horses and his carriages, and exercised the strictest economy. But at the opening of the budget in the session of parliament which commenced in April 1787, a question was put to the minister, Mr. Pitt, to enquire into the intentions of government with regard to the prince.

The coolness between the heir-apparent and the king still continued, and it is but justice to the prince to state that the first steps towards a reconciliation were taken by him. But the king had been exceedingly offended by the nature of his royal highness's expenses, as exposed in the schedule of his debts. When the royal life was attempted by the maniac, Margaret Nicholson, no regular information of the event was transmitted to the prince; and when he with eager anxiety hastened to express his sorrow, he was not admitted to an audience. The minister's answer to the query of Alderman Newnham in behalf of the prince was simply, that he had not been honoured with his majesty's commands upon the subject; and it was no part of his duty, without express command, to bring the matter before the honourable house.

Notice of a motion on the subject was immediately given, and a warm discussion ensued; the temper of the house was tried on both sides, and it was evident that should a proposition for relief be put to the vote the minister would be left in a minority. Negotiations were therefore opened; a promise to pay the debts, to make allowance for the works at Carlton House, and to add 10,000*l.* a year to the prince's income, was made on the one side, and a formal engagement to abstain from future involvements was entered into on the other. Thus the question of the debts was set at rest, but there were two other subjects pointedly alluded to in the course of these discussions.

In 1783 the prince formed a connexion with Mrs. Fitzherbert, the precise nature of which was never exactly ascertained. The matter became public about the year 1786. The lady was a widow, a member of a most respectable family, and of the Catholic communion. Either in the spirit of party or from a zealous regard to the constitution, the latter circumstance was very strongly insisted on. A report was raised and skilfully circulated, stating that the marriage ceremony, according to the form of the Roman Catholic church, had been performed

between the parties; and this report gained general belief; it pervaded all ranks of people, impressed the members of the senate, obtained credence at court, and it is supposed the king himself gave credit to the rumour. In some of the political pamphlets of the period the title of her royal highness was openly applied to Mrs. Fitzherbert, and that mystery to which the prince had shown himself attached in his first affair of love was permitted to involve this question till public curiosity was on the rack.

The appeal of the prince's friends to the House of Commons in 1787 immediately turned the attention of the members towards the agitation of this question. Mr. Rolle, the member for Devonshire, alluded in no very equivocal terms to the alleged marriage, terming it an affair fraught with danger to the constitution; and the prince's friends in reply stated that they had authority to declare that such a union was not only supposititious, but absolutely impossible. Null and void such a marriage must have been, because performed without the sanction of the king; and fraught with danger to the prince, since a union with a Catholic would have rendered him incapable of wearing the crown of England. But the prince instructed his friends to state to the house that no such marriage had ever been in contemplation; his enemies were invited to investigate his conduct with the strictest scrutiny; and it was added that the prince was ready as a peer of parliament to answer any charge that might be made against him.

The popularity of the prince, which was at its height on his arriving at maturity, fluctuated with his fortunes; but the errors which excited the displeasure of his father, and affected his popularity, were a love of gaming and the indiscreet selection of his political associates.

In 1792 the prince attained his thirtieth year. The country at that period was distracted between outrageous loyalty and the dangerous doctrines of the Revolution. Every man began to take a side in these divisions; and on the occasion of an address from both houses to the king to suppress certain societies whose principles and example went to corrupt the people, and to wean their affections from the throne, the prince appeared in his place as a peer of parliament, and delivered his sentiments in support of the address. On this occasion he first opposed his former political friends, and for the first time voted with the ministry. In the course of his speech he said, "he loved the people. His interests were theirs, their happiness was his, he never would forsake the cause of the people so long as he lived." The next important event in the life of the prince of Wales was his marriage. The prince of Wales had always felt that repugnance to the royal marriage act which was afterwards expressed in the House of Lords by the duke of Clarence. To gratify the wishes of the empire and under an express condition, he consented to a union; sacrificing his private feelings to the imperative demands of state necessity. Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, daughter of the duke of Brunswick by the sister of George the Third, late princess royal of England, and consequently cousin to the prince of Wales, was selected as the other political victim in this great offering at the altar of expediency. The prince was thirty-two at the time of his marriage, the princess twenty-six years of age; the wedding was celebrated in the Chapel Royal at St. James's Palace on the 8th of April, 1794. The duke of York was in

Holland, all the other members of the royal family were present at this marriage, and the duke of Clarence gave away the bride. The people rejoiced on the great national event of the marriage of the heir-apparent, and the most flattering hopes of uninterrupted succession were indulged. 28,000*l.* were granted for jewels and plate, and 26,000*l.* allowed for the furniture of Carlton House; a dower of 50,000*l.* a year was settled on her royal highness in case of the prince's death, and a sum of 125,000*l.* per annum, besides the receipts of the duchy of Cornwall, was settled on the prince of Wales.

But there were drawbacks on these splendid grants. In spite of the pledge given in 1787, new debts had been contracted to the amount of 600,000*l.* The prince's consent to marry was obtained under an express stipulation for the payment of his debts; and it was stated to parliament that no provision for the prince could be at all effectual without reference to the liquidation of those involvements, and without a decided engagement that such an order of things should not recur. In the embarrassed state of the nation, a great sensation was produced by the discussion that ensued. Sheridan condemned the prince as wasteful and extravagant, declared him to be without independence or character, defended himself and his associates from the charge of having accelerated his difficulties, loudly declared that he had never received so much as a horse or a picture from the prince, and strongly recommended the sale of the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall, and a draught on the privy-purse of the king, as the most effectual means of relief to the prince, without making any further addition to the burdens of the people.

Fox accused the ministers of undue economy in the former settlement on the prince, and of lavish prodigality in the present; insinuating that the salary of the heir-apparent fluctuated in proportion to his dissent from, or approval of, the measures of the court. An attempt had been made to raise a loan at Antwerp in the joint names of the prince of Wales and dukes of York and Clarence, which had failed through the interference of the secretary of state. The causes of the debts were again freely canvassed, and several facts appeared in the pamphlets of the day which were sufficiently derogatory to the prudence of the prince. It was said in the House of Commons that these appeals, and the evident extravagance which led to them, were enough to shake the very foundation of monarchy in England.

Pitt, however, proved that the bill combined the means of restoring the credit of the prince, and of placing his establishment on a liberal footing, if the allowance of 45,000*l.* and the revenues of Cornwall were set apart, to form a fund for the gradual liquidation of the debt. The creditors received debentures, interest on their claims was granted, a committee appointed, and the term of nine years fixed on for the final settlement of their demands. The bill was attacked on both sides, but it was finally carried; chiefly because in an address to both houses the prince had declared himself satisfied with its conditions: but at the birth of the princess Charlotte, in the following year, when the city of London sent up its address of congratulation, the prince apologized for inability to receive the deputation on account of his contracted means; and in 1803 another appeal was made to parliament to consider

the prince's situation, and to lay claim to the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall, otherwise appropriated, which had accumulated during the prince's minority. This right was argued and weighed, but eventually denied; the prince's debts were made the care of the public, and the full allowance of 125,000*l.* was freed from all encumbrances.

The only fruit of the prince's marriage was a daughter, Charlotte Augusta, born at Carlton House, January 7th, 1796. Immediately after the birth of the princess Charlotte a complete disunion occurred between her royal parents. The wish for this separation appears to have originated with the prince. In a letter of this period to the princess he says, "Nor should either of us be held answerable to the other because nature has not made us suitable to each other." This natural dislike continued to increase, and led to most disagreeable consequences. The royal infant passed the first years of her life with her mother, and at the usual period a separate establishment was formed. The princess of Wales had no share in the education of her daughter, and her visits were limited and restricted by authority. Rumours of misconduct on the part of the princess of Wales led to an investigation, misnamed "delicate," about the year 1806. The committee appointed to conduct this inquiry reported to the king, and in consequence of that report the princess was assured that her conduct was entirely cleared of the slightest charge of criminality, and she was permitted to appear again at court. In the same letter, however, her royal and venerable father-in-law reproved some portions of the princess's behaviour which had transpired during the investigation, and recommended a greater strictness and propriety for the future. Perhaps much of the levity and early indiscretion of the princess might have been referable to her continental education. The laxity of continental manners might have been in England mistaken for criminal indulgence. It is necessary to remark that at this very period a curious question was agitated by the friends of a Miss Seymour, the ward of Mrs. Fitzherbert, concerning the right of that lady to such guardianship; and it appeared in evidence, that the prince, in virtue of that undefined connexion which existed between himself and Mrs. Fitzherbert, had become responsible to Lady Horatio Seymour on her death-bed for the careful tuition of her daughter, under the superintendence of that lady. It may be remarked, also, that Lord Cholmondeley was in general praised as a mediator between the prince and princess, and that Lady Jersey and Lady Douglas were accused of conduct of the very opposite tendency. In 1800 the attempted murder of the king, by Hatfield, excited a lively sensation amongst the royal family and throughout the nation. In 1803 the prince burst from the trammels of his debts and his consequent retirement. This year, too, he presented a pair of colours to the corps of the duke of Clarence, and a curious correspondence was made public. The prince partook of the military ardour of the people on the report of an invasion, and in several letters to the king, the commander-in-chief, and the minister, he contended for his right to a military station of importance. The constant answer was, that in case of invasion he must distinguish himself at the head of his regiment, and that the prince of Wales was the first subject in the empire, but his political influence ought not to exceed that of any



other peer of parliament. His royal highness had seldom interfered in politics, and the few occasions of deviation from the general rule might be excused by the urgency of the occasion. In 1810 the parliament determined to adhere to the precedent of 1788 in the formation of the regency, and the prince did not interfere with their decision. The queen was the custodian of the royal person; and the prince of Wales, as regent, with restricted powers, opened the parliament, but not in person, on the 12th of February, 1811. In July the regent entertained the royal family of France, and soon afterwards gratified the nation, and exalted his own character, by refusing the ministerial offer of any additional grant towards the support of his new dignity.

One of the first acts of the regency was the restoration of the duke of York to the chief command of the army, which he had resigned in consequence of the parliamentary investigation into his conduct, urged by Colonel Wardle, respecting the disposal of promotions, and attributed to the influence of Mrs. Clarke. Experience subsequently proved that a regard to the good of the service was quite as strong a motive as brotherly affection in this measure of restoration.

On the 30th of November, 1812, the prince regent (now unfettered by restrictions) delivered in the new parliament his first speech from the throne. It may be well to pause upon this point, and from the eminence thus gained it will be easy to cast a backward glance on the events which led to the state of Europe at this interesting epoch.

The difficulties which the English nation, in common with all Europe, laboured under at the commencement of the regency, are directly traceable to the French revolution as their primary cause. The slave of despotism tasted of the spirit of freedom, and with savage eagerness drained the exhilarating liquor to its dregs—the madness of intoxication followed. By the unhallowed draught, to borrow allegory in illustration, the angel was transformed into a demon. The sacred and the venerable became the objects of its inconsiderate vengeance. Reason and philosophy, that first awakened the sleeping energies of the people, discovered too late that the experiment was rashly tried,—that the unregulated desires of a race of men freed from moral obedience and religious obligation, would produce anarchy instead of reducing society into form and unity,—and that the excesses of the worst vices were the inevitable results of the abused principles of truth. It must not be denied, however, that terrible and indefensible as were the immediate consequences of the French revolution, its ultimate effects upon all the governments of Europe were wholesome and permanent. It was a period of calamitous but necessary purgation. Burke, an aristocrat in his heart, and, by inference, an enemy to the confusion of property, did not see this, and only felt the pressure of the present evils. His celebrated work on the subject may be justly called, on that account, a splendid error.

England looked on amid the wreck of power, and, while a hope remained of ultimate good as to the result, she declined to interfere, although loudly called on to support the “rights of man.” Eloquently was she conjured to support the social compact and enforce the law of nations in the aid of monarchy,

but still she hesitated. Regicide at length filled up the sum of horrors induced by rebellion and supported by murder. Policy availed no longer—indifference would have been participation: war was declared against the “usurped authority” of republican France in the year 1793, in the thirty-fourth year of George III., and continued, with few interruptions for a period of twenty-one years.

At the commencement of the struggle all Europe was opposed to the French nation. Towards its conclusion England stood alone against the united powers of Europe. Kings fought for their thrones—nations for their constitutions—all, avowedly, for vengeance on the murderers of the royal family of France, and for the restoration of their exiled successors. France contended first for national, and then for universal liberty. She declared war against monarchy and the artificial orders and distinctions of society. Euthusiasm carried to madness, confidence the result of ardent resolution, talents the most extraordinary, wielded her energies and directed her powers. She went on increasing. Every variety of the republican form of government had been tried and successively discarded; till, in the usual progress of events, her first and last consul became her first and last emperor; and the despotism of the many, for which she had exchanged the good and evil approved for ages, gave way, in turn, to a new despotism—the arbitrary will of one man—whose ambition and talents raised France and himself to the pinnacle of glory in the day of his power; but the very greatness thus created rendered the reverse which both endured only the more complete and appalling.

At the commencement of the regency Napoleon was in the zenith of his power; he sat on a column of thrones, his footstool was the necks of princes; he held in his hand a chain binding to himself the head of the Christian church and the liberties of nations. His resources were incalculable, his power boundless. To divide his power and exhaust his resources had been the work of England from his first assumption of the sceptre. With the era of the regency her labour blossomed into hope. The military talents of Napoleon had conquered, in succession, the generals of Europe, and the forces of France had overcome the armies of every other power. She had met them one by one, and destroyed them in detail. A new day arose; Sir Arthur Wellesley, with military genius equal to his antagonist, and with perseverance and determination of a higher character, was called to conduct the operations of Britain in the European peninsula. He conquered by retreat, gained time and strength, and waited but for opportunity to become the attacking force. Several of the most distinguished marshals of France undertook, in succession, the task of driving this intruder into the sea, but they were each in turn compelled to yield to the superior talent of their adversary. A long succession of victories called for the gratitude of England in the year 1812. The progress of our great military leader, now Lord Wellington, excited the admiration of Europe. A new spirit was excited and, by a combination of efforts, Napoleon was driven from his throne. The campaign of 1812 commenced with the investment of Ciudad Roderigo. It was followed by the battle of Salamanca, after which the allied army entered the capital of Spain, and Lord

Wellington was appointed commander-in-chief of the troops of the kingdom of Spain. Portugal was also freed by his sword. These successes, and the corresponding disasters of Napoleon in Russia, induced him to offer terms of peace to England, which were rejected by the regent, and events left to pursue that course which ended in the deliverance of Europe.

On the 4th of November, 1813, the regent opened the session in a speech from the throne, and the address was carried with an unusual degree of unanimity. So important did the moment appear, and so essentially necessary was exertion considered to be, that a loan of 22,000,000*l.*, and foreign subsidies to the amount of 11,000,000*l.*, with 100,000 stand of arms, were granted, without a dissentient voice. This was the essential business of the session, and the parliament was adjourned till the month of March in the following year.

A great battle was fought on the 1st of February, 1814, between the French army and the allies, after which Blücher marched towards Paris; and Napoleon, who sought in vain to give battle to the allies in succession, found himself surrounded in the capital; and it was decided in the councils of the invaders that they would no longer treat with him or his family. The ultimatum of the emperor, claiming France yet more extended for himself, Italy for Eugene Beauharnois, and a throne for each member of his family, was transmitted to the English secretary of state, now with the head-quarters of the British army, and indignantly rejected. The most splendid results followed the entry of the army under Wellington into the city of Bourdeaux, and the sanguinary battle at Toulouse. In Paris Napoleon resigned his crown and empire for the sovereignty of Elba; in London Louis XVIII. was received in great state by the prince regent, congratulated on his restoration, conducted to Dover, and committed to the safeguard of the duke of Clarence, who commanded the fleet that was to guard the descendant of the Bourbons to the country of his birth and the throne of his ancestors.

Before the close of this eventful year a treaty was signed with America, and both hemispheres were once more united in the bonds of peace. This epoch in the annals of Great Britain concludes the fifth year of the regency. The adjourned session of the parliament for the year 1815 was opened on the 19th of February, while the people were eagerly anticipating the promised blessings of a long contended for, late gained, and dearly purchased peace. On the 6th of April a message from the regent announced to the great council of the nation the startling intelligence of a terrible re-action within the dominions of the king of France. The unsubdued spirit and the great genius of Napoleon had suggested to his mind an oversight in the treaty of Paris, and a brilliant course of action founded on that discovery. The sovereigns of Europe, yielding to what they considered a childish ambition in the abdicating emperor, permitted him to retain his imperial title, and to call, by the name of sovereignty, his destined prison. Guarded by a naval force of French and English cruisers, watched by the jealous eyes of every European cabinet, the commanding genius of this extraordinary man contrived and maintained a regular system of correspondence with the adjacent coasts of France and Italy; and, availing himself of the ad-

vantages of his insular situation, watched his opportunity; till, having lulled to sleep the caution of that fleet of observation which always hovered near, he suddenly appeared in France. Free, an emperor, at the head of his national troops, he came to make war against the restored dynasty. His second and more powerful plea was, that, yielding to irresistible necessity, he had foregone awhile his own undoubted right, and compromised the glory and advantage of the nation.

It is no part of our present business to trace the progress of the allied armies in France, or to furnish an account of the sanguinary contest which decided the fate of Europe; and it may be enough to say that the speech of the prince regent, when he opened the parliament which succeeded, was one of triumph on the events of the past year, and concluded by expressing the determination of his royal highness to maintain the high character which the country had acquired with the world, and a hope that union amongst the different classes of the people, which had secured the peace of Europe, would continue to promote the prosperity of the kingdom. Among the first acts of the parliament was an address to the regent, conveying the entire approbation of the legislature to the measures of the executive authority in the several treaties that had secured the peace.

The prince regent, on his return from opening the parliament of 1817, was fired at from among the crowd with an air-gun, the bullets of which broke the windows of the carriage. This attempt upon his life, and the marked demonstrations of discontent and anger with which he was received by the populace, were immediately communicated to both houses, and measures founded on the communication instantly adopted. The act for the security of his majesty's person, passed in 1795, was extended to the person of the prince regent, while the various laws with regard to tumultuous meetings, debating societies, and the suspension of the habeas corpus act, were consolidated into a new form to strengthen the hands of ministers.

The last year of the regency ended as it began, with present discontent and gloomy anticipations; yet at the beginning of the year 1820 the country was tranquil. The agricultural interests were still depressed, but the cultivators of the soil are always least impatient under distress and disappointment. Commerce revived in some degree, and the determined measures of the ministry subdued the idle and the daring, and encouraged the peaceful and industrious.

The death of George III. brought only a change of title to his successor. All the essential attributes of royalty were his already, and had been his for years before. The first public act of the new king was to summon a privy council, wherein the emblems of office were surrendered by the public servants of the crown, to whom, it is unnecessary to add, they were immediately restored. The cabinet and the ministry remained as before. The earl of Harrowby was president of the council, and Lord Eldon lord high chancellor; the first lord of the treasury was the earl of Liverpool, and Viscount Castlereagh the secretary of state for home affairs. These names, with those of Canning, Sidmouth, Vansittart, &c., &c., involve themselves in the history of both reigns. As many of the members as were present having taken



the accustomed oaths, and the council being thus formed again, the king delivered the following sentiments:—Regret for the death of the late king, consoled by the knowledge of the grateful remembrance in which he must continue to be held by the country,—consciousness of the benefits he had derived from administering the government in the name of his dear father,—the repetition of the first wish of his heart, which had always been to restore into his hands the powers with which he had been intrusted,—resignation to the almighty will, which had determined otherwise,—his confidence derived from the support of parliament and the country, which alone enabled him to meet the difficulties of his situation—and his trust that the experience of the past would satisfy all classes of his people, that it would ever be his most anxious endeavour to promote their prosperity and happiness, and to maintain the religion, laws, and liberties of the kingdom.

The king's first levée, May 10th, was attended by 1800 persons; and on the 6th of June an act was passed for the support of his majesty's dignity. The "Gazette" announced a commission for hearing and determining claims for suit and service at the coronation. The king transmitted to the duke of Orleans an equivalent for several millions of livres borrowed when prince of Wales from the father of the present king. On the 16th of May the king held a chapter of the order of the Bath, and on the 15th of June a drawing-room, at which the guests were out of mourning. At this period his majesty exhibited the most marked predilection for Windsor Castle as a general residence, and very expensive repairs and alterations were made, especially at Virginia Water, of which we give a sketch, presented the most attractive and picturesque scenery.



We must now notice the circumstances which led to her majesty Queen Caroline's hasty return from the continent, and the subsequent investigation of her conduct in the House of Peers. Caroline princess of Wales had now become queen of England *de jure*; but, as no mention had been made of her in that capacity in England, she was not recognised abroad. Cardinal Gonsalvi at Rome was the first to treat her with indignity, a precedent which was studiously followed by other courts. Mr. Brougham had sent off Monsieur Sicard, the old and faithful servant of the queen, with the intelligence of the king's death, for no public functionary had performed the duty of sending the official news to her majesty. The queen immediately replied to Mr. Brougham that she was determined to return to England. To a question

from Mr. Brougham in the House of Commons, on the 22nd February, 1820, Lord Castlereagh declared that the English functionaries abroad should treat her majesty with respect, and that no indignity should be offered to her. Notwithstanding this, she received insulting neglect and even rudeness from some of our ministers abroad. The king's first act of renewed hostility towards his queen was an order for the omission of her name from the Litany. Meanwhile the king, fatigued with the state ceremonies of his accession, and overwhelmed with domestic affliction, was attacked by an inflammatory complaint, which brought within a narrow compass the throne, the sick-bed, and the grave. His illness assumed an alarming appearance, and bulletins were issued twice a-day for some time. At length the king happily recovered.

To return to the queen. The equivocal relation between her majesty and the king gave rise to many debates in the House of Commons, and on the 4th June, 1820, Lord Hutchinson, on the part of the king, proposed to her majesty that 50,000*l.* a-year should be her allowance, on the condition that she should reside abroad, and never assume any right or title appertaining to the royal family of England. The queen gave an instant and indignant answer to the proposition, and instantly left France for England, where she arrived at Dover on the 5th of June, 1820. Her reception and her journey to London were one continued triumphal procession.

His majesty was equally prompt and determined in his conduct, and on the 6th of June there was laid before parliament a message from the king, desiring that the houses would take into immediate consideration certain documents then furnished relative to the mal-practices of the queen while upon the continent. Various adjournments took place in order to afford an opportunity of a private arrangement, and numerous meetings were held. These were in vain, and at last Mr. Wilberforce was made the agent of the strongest side, and he moved an address of the house praying the queen to succumb, but 124 members voted against the motion.

At last, on the 5th of July, Lord Liverpool brought in his bill of pains and penalties against her majesty, depriving her of her rights as queen of England, and dissolving her marriage on the ground of her criminal intercourse with Bergami. This measure was generally believed to be meant to intimidate the queen, and adjournments took place to give time for its operation, and to produce a compromise. Her majesty, however, stood firm to her purpose, and undauntedly appeared in the House of Lords during every discussion on the bill. She likewise addressed a public protest to the king.

When the queen returned to England, Mr. Canning was in office. In a speech which he delivered on the king's message respecting her arrival, he spoke of her majesty as "the grace, life, and ornament of every society in which she appeared;" and stated that in 1814 he had advised her to go abroad as he saw that "faction had marked her for its own." It was generally supposed that this more than respectful language gave offence to the king, and soon after, making another speech on the 7th of June, 1820, in which he declared that towards the illustrious personage who was the object of the investigation he felt an unaltered regard and affection, he resigned the presidency of the board of control.



It is impossible for us to enter more fully into the details of the queen's trial, and it may be enough to state that the excitement was still kept up, so that the next step was an attempt in parliament to procure the insertion of the queen's name in the Liturgy. The motion was lost by 310 to 209. Then came the king's coronation. The queen claimed to be also crowned *as of right*. The privy council decided against her claim. The 19th July, 1821, was fixed for the ceremony, and on the 11th July, the queen addressed a letter to Lord Sidmouth, stating her determination to be present at the ceremony.

The king would not tolerate the idea of being crowned with the queen; but his law officers found it impossible to get rid of the dilemma by any legal or moral means. The coronation was accordingly delayed till the period above stated, when the king, unable to brook further opposition, determined to exclude the queen from the ceremony by irresponsible power. He did so; and though the queen presented herself at the abbey during the ceremony she was refused admission.

Many clergymen continued, throughout these transactions, to pray for the queen by name. A farmer in Suffolk was to have been made the subject of a prosecution for interrupting the sermon by repeating aloud "God save the queen." In the theatres the audience eagerly applied to her majesty's case such passages as, by direct or strained interpretation, could be supposed to bear upon it. In her majesty's occasional excursions, as by water to Greenwich, or in her carriage to Brandenburg House, &c., she was attended and cheered by an immense concourse of people. The peers who voted in favour of her majesty, and those who voted against her, were compelled to suffer the applause or disapprobation of the mob on their way to and from the House of Lords. On one occasion the princess Sophia's carriage was met in the park by that of the queen; the illustrious females did not appear to recognise each other, but the mob insisted on the servants of the princess taking off their hats, and saluting the queen. On the condemnation of a woman for forgery the queen appealed to the king in favour of the criminal, but her appeal was refused. The house of assembly at St. Vincent's rejected their address to the king on his accession because they considered it indecorous to pay such a compliment to the king, while it was improper to include the queen.

On the 7th of the following August death relieved the queen from all future sufferings. Her spirit in the moment of death was undaunted and vigorous, as it had continued throughout her life. In her will she had desired that her body should be conveyed to Brunswick, and that the inscription on her coffin should be, "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured queen of England." The ministers consented to the conveyance of the body to Brunswick, and appointed a military guard of honour, which had not been granted during the life of the queen. The funeral was fixed for the 14th of August.

The appointed day arrived, and the funeral procession moved from Brandenburg House. The procession reached Kensington in solemn order, but the next turn was blockaded by waggons and carts, placed purposely to intercept its progress; several passes were attempted in succession, and were found to be guarded in the same manner. Heavy rains were fall-

ing, nevertheless the crowd was immense. The mob appeared determined on compelling the procession to pass through the city, and they succeeded; but many wounds were given in the skirmish between the guards and the populace, the weapons of the latter being stones from the walls of the park; in two instances death followed the discharge of fire-arms on the part of the soldiers. This unfortunate contest was continued almost to the sea, and in one of the churches in which the body rested for the night a conflict occurred between the executors and the guards, the former of whom had altered the plate on the coffin. How melancholy was the contrast between the triumphant progress of this unfortunate princess from Dover to London, and the disgraceful struggles by which every foot of ground was contested when her dead body was moved towards its place of destination. Her majesty's funeral, in the cathedral church of Brunswick, was solemn and splendid; and the immense concourse of people was pervaded by the deepest feeling.

On Saturday, the 11th of August, 1821, the king embarked on board the Lightning steam-packet, and on the following day, about four in the afternoon, landed at Howth, in Ireland. His majesty was recognised before he left the steam-boat, and the most loyal greetings welcomed him on shore. Signal guns conveyed the first notice of the king's arrival; the bells of the churches took up the intelligence, and the characteristic enthusiasm of the nation was manifested on all sides. Immense crowds followed the course of the royal carriage, and from the steps of the vice-regal lodge the king addressed the multitude:—"My lords and gentlemen, and my good yeomanry," said his majesty, "I cannot express to you the gratification I feel at the warm and kind reception I have met with on this day of my landing among my Irish subjects: I am obliged to you all. I am particularly obliged by your escorting me to my very door. I may not be able to express my feelings as I wish. I have travelled far—I have made a long sea-voyage; besides which, particular circumstances have occurred, known to you all, of which it is better at present not to speak; upon these subjects I leave it to delicate and generous hearts to appreciate my feelings. *This is one of the happiest days of my life.* I have long wished to visit you—my heart has always been Irish: from the day it first beat, I have loved Ireland. This day has shown me that I am beloved by my Irish subjects. Rank, station, honours, are nothing; but to feel that I live in the hearts of my Irish subjects is to me the most exalted happiness. I must now once more thank you for your kindness, and bid you farewell. Go and do by me as I shall do by you,—drink my health in a bumper; I shall drink all yours in a bumper of good Irish whiskey." It is unnecessary to remark that this plain homely speech from the royal lips was hailed with hearty applause. The spirits of the nation seemed excited to a pitch of intoxication—in their own forcible language, they were mad with joy. The public authorities paid their duty at a private levée on the 15th, and the great appeared to partake of the rapture of the lower ranks on the arrival of his majesty. The public entry into Dublin occurred on the 17th; his majesty wore the riband of the order of St. Patrick over his regimentals, and the lancers, in their full splendid dress, accompanied the procession. The king took possession of the castle, which became the palace. On the 23rd the king



dined with the lord mayor; on the 24th he visited the Royal Society; and after exhausting the pleasures of Irish sociality, and visiting the wonders of the capital, the king departed on the 7th of September. His embarkation was greeted with the same enthusiastic cheers that had marked his landing. But it was remarkable that stormy and foggy weather, on both occasions, impeded the progress of the royal squadron. The greatest expectations were entertained on both sides from this visit of the king to Ireland, but they were fatally disappointed; the feverish excitement of that period soon subsided, and the sanguine people, finding no immediate good from the king's presence, agreed to attribute a great portion of their existing evils to that cause. Poverty and misery awakened discontent and disunion; flames were kindled, murders perpetrated, and the most diabolical outrages prevailed. The counties of Limerick, Mayo, Tipperary, and Cavan, being most disturbed, were proclaimed by the privy council; a large military force was sent to subdue a spirit that was fostered by midnight meetings, and displayed itself in the most atrocious crimes. Religious discords gangrened the wounds of political animosity. Revenge and individual hatred dictated the darkest crimes under the shadow of the public good on the one side and patriotic impulse on the other. Executions, imprisonments, and military occupation were not sufficient to repress the tumults or prevent the dreadful conflagrations and sanguinary struggles they gave birth to. The lord lieutenant was recalled, a special commission for the trial of offenders was sent into the disturbed districts, and punishment followed an excitement which power could not redress. The year ended amid these horrors; the king's visit to Ireland appeared like a gleam of sunshine on the island; but its dubious splendour was only the precursor of the storm:—it rolled away, and the sullen lower continued threatening. The sovereign, in the meanwhile, proceeded to Germany shortly after his return from Ireland.

His majesty's third visit to the extremities of his dominions was paid to Scotland. He embarked at Greenwich on Saturday, August 10, 1822. A party of hussars, guarding a plain carriage, were his only equipage; he wore a blue surtout and foraging cap, and it was not until the royal standard floated over the royal hospital that any thing remarkable bespoke the presence of the king. The breeze sprung up, the sails filled, and, as the ship and her little convoy passed Woolwich, a royal salute was fired. The regiment on duty, drawn up in front of the arsenal, presented arms; and in this manner Southend and Sheerness was passed. The lord mayor and others, the king's escort down the river, returned in their barges to town. The royal squadron lay-to in the channel for the night, and weighed anchor at the dawn of morning, amid the roar of the guns from the ships off the Little Nore and from the batteries at Sheerness.

At Harwich, at Scarborough, and the intermediate places, crowds put off as the squadron came near the shore, and thousands pressed around the Royal George, which had far outsailed her convoy. At the beginning of the voyage a calm, and towards the end a brisk gale, delayed the vessel, but a few hours' pause at Berwick was the only consequence, and on the 17th they cast anchor off Leith, where his majesty passed the night on board the vessel, to the great

disappointment of the worthy magistrates and inhabitants of the burgh.

On the following day, the crafts assembled under their deacons, the guild under its dean, the town council under the provost and bailies, and all the respectable inhabitants, according to their classes and orders, in their holiday gear, adorned with a St. Andrew's cross, and each man bearing, in token of welcome, a white willow wand. While these preparations were in progress at Leith, similar arrangements were made on a larger scale in the city itself.

The king's arrival in Scotland was marked by the highest degree of excitement. The space of a mile and a half from the principal barrier to the shore was filled with people in all manner of vehicles, and in every grade of society, with or without vehicles. Windows, doors, and house-tops were occupied. The branches of trees became perches for the less elevated, and the ridges of the walls maintained their single file. In the distance, steeples, towers, and turrets, mound and mountain, were put in requisition as a forlorn hope. Those acquainted with the place and the character of the people need not be told that scenery and circumstance gave unusual effect and interest to this event. The castle and the long deserted palace of a line of kings form the beginning and end of one street, rising from the valley to the ridge of the rock—the palace, bosomed in the hollow, the castle crowning the craggy precipice, houses of immense height unite these objects by a singularly picturesque avenue, sufficiently irregular to give it interest, and not so incongruous as to deform it; a deep natural fosse separates this immense mole from the neighbouring ground; looking down from the castle towards the palace, the old town, with every possible diversity of building, college, cathedral, cottage, and mansion, extends and is continued on one side of the Calton Hill. On the left the new town, with the strictest regard to uniformity, stretches its long lines of corresponding buildings, street answers street, and square conducts to square, distinguished in little more than in name. The towns are united by two bridges, upon and beneath which streets are continued. Above the palace and opposite to the castle, rises the Calton Hill, the acropolis of the modern Athens, circled with castellated buildings in the manner of a fortification, crowned with temples and surmounted by a monument, an immense obelisk rising from its summit. All these objects are visible in the approach from Leith.

A principle of veneration for the sovereign is an essential ingredient in the mind of the Scottish people. Faithful attachment to acknowledged and hereditary chieftainship is a consequence of a long continued and scarcely abolished system of feudal superiority. Love of country and self-respect are united with religious feeling in their submission to the powers that be. With these sentiments few who could accomplish the means neglected to avail themselves of this opportunity of gratifying strong natural and habitual feelings.

His majesty landed on the spot sacred to the tread of royalty in the legendary chronicles of this enthusiastic people. The officers of the household, and members of the state in splendid uniforms and appropriate insignia, awaited his landing. He wore the full dress uniform of an admiral, with St. Andrew's cross, and a large thistle in the gold-laced hat. The lord lieutenant of Mid Lothian and the lord

chamberlain received his majesty on shore, and the senior magistrate congratulated him. The king mounted his carriage, while cavalry and infantry as usual, Highlanders, and the gentlemen archers of the royal guard, saluted him in the due forms of their respective services. The usher of the white rod sent his herald to the barrier to give the mysterious three knocks, so necessary at the gates of a city. And the provost of Edinburgh was not behind the mayor of London in gracious complaisance with the demand which the knocking introduced. The barriers gave way, and the king entered the city. The keys were delivered on the spot once for all, and the address was rehearsed here and repeated afterwards for the benefit of an answer. The royal cortège was peculiarly interesting from the variety of costume adopted without pride or affectation, but in strict compliance with the costume of the country. The king himself declared that the beauty of the scenery, the splendour of the display, and the warmth of his welcome, affected him more than any thing else in the course of his life.

His majesty passed the night at Dalkeith as a guest of the duke of Buccleugh, and the following day held a levée in the palace of Holyrood House, again restored to the dignity of its former years. The king on this occasion wore the Highland costume, and his friend Sir William Curtis, with less dignity but as much good humour, gratified the Highlanders and excited the mirth of all by appearing in the costume of a Highland chief. Three thousand persons paid their duty to his majesty at a court held at Holyrood House on the day following.

A splendid feast was given by the lord provost in the parliament house. The Venerable Dr. Baird, principal of the university, said grace, and Sir Walter Scott officiated as *croupier*. When the king's health had been drunk, his majesty stood up and said, "I am quite unable to express my sense of the gratitude which I owe to the people of this country; but I beg to assure them that I shall ever remember, as one of the proudest moments of my life, the day I came among them, and the gratifying reception they gave me. I return you, my lord provost, my lords, and gentlemen, my warmest thanks for your attention this day; and I can assure you with truth, with earnestness, and sincerity, that I shall never forget your dutiful attention to me upon my visit to Scotland, and particularly the pleasure I have derived from dining in your hall this day." "God save the King" and immense cheerings followed. The king continued—"I take this opportunity, my lords and gentlemen, of proposing the health of the lord provost, Sir William Arbuthnot, *Baronet*, and the corporation of Edinburgh." When the king named the lord provost by the title he by so doing conferred; the magistrate knelt and kissed the king's hand, which was held out at the moment, and the incident was loudly applauded by the company.

His majesty departed by, a different route on Thursday the 29th, and in his way he paid a visit to the earl of Hopetown, and at the house of that nobleman conferred the honour of knighthood on the celebrated portrait painter Raeburn. At Queensferry the country people assembled to gratify their curiosity with a last look at the king, and the roar of cannon from all the hills, and the louder shouts of the multitude, greeted his embarkation at port Edgar. A fair wind with foggy weather brought the royal

squadron to Greenwich on the 1st of the following September. The accompanying fac-simile from a royal document will serve to show the character of his majesty's hand-writing at this period.

A fac-simile of the signature of George IV. The signature is written in a highly stylized, cursive script. It begins with a large, ornate 'G' that loops around the first part of the name. The letters are fluid and interconnected, with long, sweeping strokes. The signature ends with a large, decorative flourish that loops back towards the middle of the name.

The commencement of the year 1826 was marked with commercial failures, distress in the monied interests, and depression among the ship-owners; and, in consequence, weight and difficulty pressing on all transactions, and affecting every class of society. The king's speech pointed at this state of things, and at its cause—heedless speculation. The evil was stated to be beyond remedy, but parliament was invited to apply corrections and to protect public and private interests from the recurrence of such violent and agitating fluctuations. The immediate return to a metallic currency and a complete alteration of the banking system were the measures most discussed. Relaxation of commercial restrictions, the corn laws, and the re-modelling of the statutes on crimes and punishments, occupied the attention of the senate during the session. The church in Ireland and the state of the colonies were its last objects of inquiry. The parliament was prorogued by commission on the 31st May, and dissolved by proclamation on the 2nd of June, new writs being immediately issued to be returnable by the 25th of July, and the country was immediately involved in all the bustle of a general election. As a mean of partial good and general evil, this event passed off as usual. All the bad passions of men were excited, and their worst propensities encouraged. In some places the excitement burst out into acts of flagrant violence, at others a system of covert influence was detected and exposed. Ingratitude and treachery on one side and suppleness and self-abasement on the other, a universal neglect of the usual course of duties and a feverish agitation of the public mind, were the characteristics of this as of every other general election: it had few distinctive marks—the slave trade, Catholic emancipation, and the corn laws, were the test questions generally adopted; these subjects formed a narrow ridge of uncertain footing with a terrific gulf on each side, a fall into either being absolute perdition; and the skilful, dexterous, expert casuist, who could maintain his position between an honest avowal of sentiments on either side, stood the best chance of his election. But a full detail of the public events of this reign must be sought in the annals of Great Britain, in another division of this work, and it may be enough to state that the most important public measures



carried into execution during the latter part of the king's life were the introduction of the Roman Catholics into the senate, and the removal of the restrictions which had existed against their holding offices under government, the bill for authorizing which received the royal assent in April 1829.

His majesty having all his life been greatly devoted to the pleasures of the table, he for several years suffered severely from attacks of gout and dropsy, which at length terminated his life, June 26th, 1830. The moment of death was rather unexpected. The physicians were aware it would be sudden, and an intimation was given to him a fortnight previous: "God's will be done," is said to have been his reply. Within the last week of his life he spoke but little, and in a tone quite faint, and sometimes almost inaudible and inarticulate. To speak so as to be heard in the chamber appeared to give him pain, and to require an effort beyond the remaining strength of his shattered constitution. Business of any kind became excessively irksome, and affected his temper. There had been some symptoms late on Thursday which indicated a crisis of his majesty's disorder: the expectorations became more tinged with blood, and indications of a ruptured blood-vessel appeared. The king was himself aware of the inevitable result of these symptoms of his malady. He was in bed when the stroke of death fell upon him. The page next him instantly proceeded to raise his majesty, according to the motion which he signified by his finger. The king was at once assisted into a chair by his bed-side, and a great alteration struck the page in a moment as overcasting the royal countenance; the king's eyes became fixed, his lips quivered, and he appeared to be sinking into a fainting fit. The physicians were instantly sent for, and the attendants at once assisted the king with sal volatile, eau de Cologne, and such stimulants as were at hand at the table. At this moment his majesty attempted to raise his hand to his breast, faintly ejaculating, "Oh God! I am dying;" and two or three seconds afterwards he said, "This is death," so as to be heard by the page on whose shoulder his majesty's head had fallen. The physicians were in the chamber the instant after death, and assisted to place the royal corpse on a couch.

The funeral of his majesty was of the most splendid kind, and as it would be out of place to trace the whole of the gorgeous pageantries which were performed on the occasion we must confine ourselves to a brief abstract of the official document put forth by his grace the duke of Norfolk, the earl marshal of England, after the event.

At the entrance of St. George's Chapel the royal body was received by the dean and prebendaries, attended by the choirs of Windsor and of the chapel royal (who fell in immediately before Norroy king of arms), and the procession moved down the south aisle and up the nave, into the choir, where the royal body was placed on a platform under a canopy of purple velvet (having thereon escutcheons of the royal arms and surmounted by an imperial crown), and the crowns and cushions were laid upon the coffin.

His majesty, the chief mourner, sat on a chair of state at the head of the corpse, and the supporters stood on each side. Their royal highnesses the dukes of Cumberland, Sussex, Prince George of Cumberland, the duke of Gloucester, and Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, were seated near his ma-

jesty, the chief mourner. The lord chamberlain of his majesty's household took his place at the feet of the corpse, and the supporters and assistant supporters of the pall and of the canopy arranged themselves on each side of the royal body.

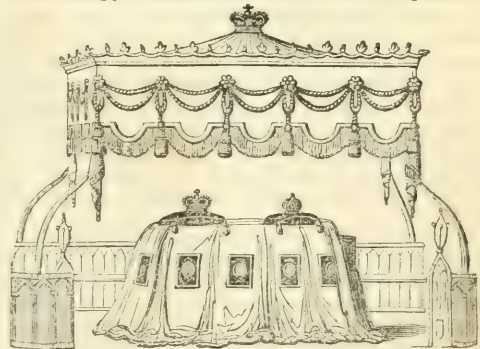
The part of the service before the interment and the anthem being performed, the royal body was deposited in the vault, and the service being concluded, his majesty, the chief mourner, was conducted from the choir to the chapter room of the chapel, preceded by the sword of state. After a short pause Sir George Nayler, Garter principal king of arms, pronounced near the grave the styles of his late most sacred majesty, of blessed memory, as follow:—

"Thus it hath pleased Almighty God to take out of this transitory life unto his divine mercy the late most high, most mighty, and most excellent monarch, George the Fourth, by the grace of God, of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, and sovereign of the most noble order of the Garter; king of Hanover, and duke of Brunswick and Lunenburg. Let us humbly beseech Almighty God to bless and preserve with long life, health, and honour, and all worldly happiness, the most high, most mighty, and most excellent monarch, our sovereign lord William the Fourth, now, by the grace of God, of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, and sovereign of the most noble order of the Garter; king of Hanover, and duke of Brunswick and Lunenburg.

"God save King William the Fourth."

After which the marquis of Conyngham, lord steward of the household to his late majesty, and the other officers of his late majesty's household, broke their staves of office, and kneeling near the grave, deposited the same in the royal vault; whereupon their royal highnesses the princes of the blood royal, the great officers of state, nobility, and others who had composed the procession, retired.

The annexed engraving represents the splendid velvet canopy beneath which the coffin was placed.



The knights of the several orders present on the occasion wore their respective collars, with white rosettes. In pursuance of his majesty's order, the great officers of state, his majesty's ministers, and the officers of the royal household, appeared in their state uniforms, with black waistcoats, stockings, and buckles, uniform swords, with crape and black feathers in their hats. The officers of the army and navy appeared in full dress uniforms, with the mourning directed to be worn by them at court. The bishops appeared in their rochets; the peers, eldest

sons of peers, privy councillors, and others, not included in the royal order, appeared in full dress black. The procession, from the royal apartments to the choir of St. George's Chapel, was flanked by the grenadiers of the foot guards, every fourth man bearing a flambeau.

We have hitherto considered George the Fourth as a sovereign, we may now notice him as a man. In this point of view he was decidedly inferior to his royal parent and predecessor. We have seen that he commenced life as a sensualist and professed hunter after pleasure in every varied form. Thus he appears in turns a jockey and gambler, and if generally credited report speaks true, was, in the latter capacity, even expelled from the society of professional black-legs for underhand proceedings. Reckless profusion, and a childish love of gaudy pomp and finery, great caprice and instability of temper in respect to personal friendships and attachments, and a sickly fastidiousness as to society, were some of the worst results of that abandonment to pleasure and gross gratifications by which he was all his life distinguished. In manners he was in many respects a finished gentleman; and there are few persons who might have stood higher in the public opinion than George IV. As it is, he will in a few years be but little known but as a part of the pageant of royalty during one of the most interesting periods of British history.

**GEORGES, CZERNY.**—This extraordinary individual was descended from a Servian family settled in the neighbourhood of Belgrade. A Christian, but a Christian in the worst sense of the word, he imbibed from his earliest infancy a rooted antipathy to all those who professed the Mahometan faith. Accordingly, while yet a youth, he shot a Turk armed at all points on the highway in consequence of some trivial dispute, during which he supposed that the Mussulman treated him with insolence. To avoid the dangerous consequences attendant on this affair he took refuge in Transylvania, and entered the military service of Austria, in which he quickly obtained the rank of a non-commissioned officer. His captain having ordered him to be punished, Czerny Georges challenged and killed him. He then returned to Servia, where, at the age of twenty-five, he became the chief of one of those bands of malcontents which infest every part of the Turkish dominions, who pride themselves upon the title of kleptai, or brigand, and whom the non-Mussulman population consider as their avengers and liberators.

Czerny Georges, who had encamped in the thick forests, waged war against the Turks with unheard-of cruelty: he spared neither age nor sex, and extended his ravages throughout the whole province of Servia. The Turks having, by way of retaliation, condemned twenty-six of the principal Servians to death, the father of Czerny Georges, shocked at so many horrors, determined to abandon the banners of his son, whom he had previously joined. The old man even threatened to deliver up the whole horde to the power of the Turks unless they immediately consented to relinquish the useless contest. Czerny conjured him to alter his resolution, but the old man persisted and set out for Belgrade. His son followed him. Having arrived at the Servian outposts, he threw himself on his knees and again entreated that his father would not betray his country; but finding

him inflexible, he drew out a pistol and became the murderer of his parent.

The Servians still continued to augment the band of Czerny Georges. Emboldened by the numerous advantages he had obtained, this chief at length sallied from his retreat in the woods, besieged Belgrade, and on the 1st December, 1806, forced that important fortress to surrender. Being proclaimed generalissimo of his nation, he governed it with unlimited power. The principal nobles and ecclesiastics, under the presidency of the archbishop, formed a kind of senate or synod, which assembled at Semendria, and claimed the right of exercising the sovereignty; but Czerny Georges annulled the acts of the assembly, and declared by a decree that "during his life no one should rise above him, that he was sufficient in himself, and stood in no need of advisers."

The conquest of Servia was accompanied by the massacre of the Turks, no mercy being shown even to those who voluntarily surrendered themselves. Czerny Georges, being attacked by an army of 50,000 Mussulmans, valiantly defended the banks of the Morave; and, had he possessed the means of obtaining foreign officers to discipline the intrepid Servians, he might perhaps have re-established the kingdom of Servia, which under Stephen III. resisted the Moguls, and under Stephen Duscian included Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Bosnia.

At the treaty of peace in 1812 Russia provided for the interests of Servia. That province however was acknowledged to be in vassalage, and tributary to the Porte. Czerny Georges retired to Russia, and lived at Kissonoff in Bessarabia; but his restless spirit soon provoked the fate that awaited him. While in Servia he had amassed a considerable treasure, which on his flight he had found it inconvenient to carry along with him to the Russian frontier. He accordingly returned to his native country in disguise in order to get possession of his wealth; but being soon detected by the vigilance of the government, he was seized, and his head, being cut off and thrown into a sack, was immediately transmitted to Constantinople, where it was suspended from one of the gates of the seraglio. Thus ended the life and adventures of a cruel and relentless man, who spared neither age nor sex, and completed the climax of his crimes by parricide.

**GERBERT, MARTIN**, a learned ecclesiastic, who was born in 1720 at a small town in Austria. He united to extensive learning the most elevated mind and simple and amiable character. Having frequently in his youth had opportunities of hearing excellent music in the chapel of the duke of Wurtemberg at Ludwigsburg, and even of occasionally singing himself, he imbibed that affection for music to which we are indebted for his learned and toilsome researches on the history of that art. With a view to render these researches more useful, he undertook to travel for three years in France, Germany, and Italy; and was enabled, through his authority in the church, to discover many valuable treasures of musical literature, by obtaining admittance into the libraries of the convents, and thus collecting from the fountain-head the materials for his history of church music. At Bologna he became intimate with Martini, and they agreed to communicate to each other their different kinds of knowledge, and that Martini should write the history of music in general, while



Gerbert confined himself exclusively to that of the church. In 1762 he announced his intention of writing a history of church music by a printed prospectus, and requested any information that could be given on the subject. He finished this work in six years, though in the interval the abbey and valuable library to which he was so much attached became a prey to the flames, which occasioned the loss of a great part of his materials and also of his time, which he was obliged to employ in giving directions for the construction of a new edifice. This work is in two volumes. Gerbert divided his history of church music into three parts: the first finishes at the pontificate of St. Gregory, the second goes as far as the fifteenth century, and the third to his own time. But the work which has given the prince-abbot Gerbert the greatest title to gratitude from artists and literati is one of far more importance. It was published in 1784, and is a collection of all the ancient authors who have written on music since the third century to the invention of printing, and whose works had remained in manuscript. The learned amateur has by this work rendered an immortal service to the science of music. Unfortunately it is now very difficult to procure a copy of this book, but Forkel has given an extensive analysis of it in his "*Histoire de la Musique*." He died in his seventy-third year in 1793.

GERHARD, PAUL.—This eminent writer was born in Saxony in 1506 or 1507. He contributed largely to the great stock of German hymns, many of which are very popular in Germany, and often quoted. He was all his life an officiating clergyman, very pious and attentive to his parochial duties. He died in 1676.

GERMAIN, COUNT ST., a celebrated adventurer and alchemist, whose precise name and origin are unknown. He sometimes called himself Aymar, or marquis de Betmar, and was probably a Portuguese by birth. Cagliostro, on his first journey to Germany, became acquainted with him in Holstein, and learned new arts of deception under his instructions. St. Germain was versed in chemistry and other sciences, but his irresistible inclination for magic did not permit him to seek reputation in the usual paths. He spent his time in travelling about, and by his impudence and cunning he imposed on the credulity of the weak, and even gained access to several courts. According to his own account he was 350 years old, and had in his album a sentence written by the celebrated Montaigne. He always had in his possession a powerful elixir, "which would restore youth to the old, and which always preserved his strength." On his second voyage to India, which he pretended to have made in 1755, he succeeded, as he said, in gaining the chief object of all adepts, namely, the making of precious stones; and it is reported that in 1773, while with the French ambassador at the Hague, he broke to pieces a valuable diamond of his own manufacture, after having sold a similar one for 5500 louis d'or. Nor were the secrets of futurity hidden from his eyes. He foretold to the French the death of Louis XV. His power extended even to brute animals; he inspired serpents with a sensibility to the charms of music. He possessed, we are told, the rare power of being able to write with both hands at the same time, on two different sheets of paper, whatever was dictated to him, so that it was impossible to distinguish the hand-

writings. He played in so masterly a manner on the violin as to produce the effect of several instruments. In short, he was neither destitute of talents nor of knowledge, and he would have become celebrated if he had not preferred to become notorious.

GERMANICUS, CÆSAR, a Roman general, celebrated for his victories over the Germans, son of Claudius Drusus Nero, and the younger Antonio, a niece of Augustus, justly esteemed for her virtues, which her son inherited. Tiberius, his paternal uncle, adopted him. He afterwards administered the questorship and was made consul before the lawful age. Augustus died while Germanicus with Tiberius was at the head of the armies in Germany. Tiberius succeeded to the government, and Germanicus was invited by several rebellious legions to assume the sovereign authority, but he refused. He then crossed the Rhine, and surprising the Marsi in a drunken riot, made a dreadful slaughter among them and destroyed the temple of Tanfana. In a similar manner he defeated in the following year the Catti, and, after having burnt their city of Mattium, he victoriously returned over the Rhine. Here some deputies of Segestes appeared before him, soliciting in the name of their master his assistance against Arminius, the son-in-law of Segestes, by whom the latter was besieged. Germanicus hastened to his rescue, delivered him, and made Thusnelda, wife of Arminius, prisoner. Arminius then prepared for war, and Germanicus collected his forces on the Ems. A battle ensued. The Roman legions were already receding, when Germanicus renewed the attack with fresh troops, and thus happily averted the rout that threatened him. Arminius retreated, and Germanicus was content to regain the banks of the Ems, and retired with honour from a contest which his army could no longer sustain.

After having lost another part of his troops during his retreat by a violent storm which wrecked the vessels in which they were embarked, he reached the mouths of the Rhine with a feeble remnant of his army, and employed the winter in making new preparations for war against the Germans. He built a fleet of 1000 vessels in order to avoid the difficult route by land through forests and morasses, and landed at the mouth of the Ems. Proceeding thence towards the Weser he found the Cherusci assembled on the opposite bank with the intention of contesting the passage. Nevertheless he effected it, and fought a battle which began at day-break and terminated to the advantage of the Romans. On the succeeding day the Germans renewed the contest with fury and carried disorder into the ranks of the Romans, but Germanicus maintained possession of the field. The Germans returned into their forests. Germanicus re-embarked, and after having experienced a terrible storm, by which part of his fleet was dispersed, went into winter quarters, but not until he had made another incursion into the country of the Marsi. This expedition was his last in Germany. Tiberius, jealous of the glory of the young hero, called him home under pretence of granting him a triumph. In order, however, to get rid of a man whose popularity appeared dangerous to him, he sent him, invested with almost regal authority, into the oriental provinces, where he extended the Roman power; but was thwarted in his operations by Piso, the governor of Syria, who had been employed by Tiberius as a spy on the actions of Germanicus. He died at An-



tiach, in the thirty-third year of his age, and not without a suspicion of having been poisoned.

GERNING, JOHN CHRISTIAN, a learned entomologist, who was born at Frankfort on the Maine in 1745, and died in the same place in 1802. He prepared most of the text of the great work, "*Papillons de l'Europe*," published at Paris from 1780—1792; and he left one of the largest collections of insects ever made by a single individual. His son John Isaac, who was born in 1769, became known to the king and queen of Naples when they lived in the house of his father at the time of the coronation of Leopold II. He was afterwards for a long time in the Neapolitan service, and went on several commissions to foreign courts. In 1818 he was ambassador of the landgrave of Hesse-Homburg in London, where he published in 1821 his splendid work entitled "*Views on the Rhine*." He was also the author of several other works, both in prose and verse.

GERRY, ELBRIDGE.—This talented American was born at Marblehead, in Massachusetts, in 1744, and was graduated at Harvard College in 1762. In the controversy between Great Britain and the colonies he early took a warm interest, and was elected in 1772 representative from his native town to the general court or legislature of Massachusetts. From that period he continued in public life almost without intermission, and was in close communion with the Adamses, the Hancocks, and the Warrens. In their private meetings at Boston they concerted resistance to the arbitrary measures of the mother country, and jointly laboured for this purpose in the exercise of their public duty; and when separated, they constantly wrote to each other with the same object. In the general court, though one of the youngest of the assembly, Mr. Gerry was placed on the most important committees of correspondence, and distinguished himself in the principal debates. He was an efficient member of the committees of appeal and safety; and on the night preceding the battle of Lexington, he narrowly escaped capture as one of a "rebel" committee of the provincial congress. After the sword was drawn he was placed at the head of a committee for raising the necessary supplies. Mr. Gerry first proposed in the provincial congress of Massachusetts the preparation of a law for encouraging the fitting out of armed vessels, and establishing a court for the trial and condemnation of prizes, and was chairman of the committee appointed for that purpose. This was the first actual avowal of offensive hostility against the mother country, and the first effort to establish an American naval armament. John Adams called it "Gerry's law," and described it as "one of the boldest, most dangerous, and most important measures in the history of the new world." In November 1775 courts were established by the authority of the province of Massachusetts, and the lucrative post of maritime judge was offered to Mr. Gerry, but declined, lest it should obstruct the performance of his general political duties.

In the beginning of 1776 he was elected a delegate from Massachusetts to the continental congress, and from his first entrance into congress until the organization of the treasury board in 1780 he was generally chairman of the committee of the treasury. Towards the end of the year 1779 he was appointed head of the commission chosen by Massachusetts to meet delegates from other states at Philadelphia, for the purpose of devising some corrective for the

sad condition of the currency; and when the treasury board was formed, he was made its presiding officer. In February 1780 a measure of congress with respect to the assessment of supplies from the several states gave so much umbrage to Mr. Gerry, as the representative of Massachusetts, that he left his seat and returned home. While absent he was selected by congress as a member of one of their usual committees to visit the army. Yielding to the solicitations of his friends, and satisfied at length with the measures which were adopted on the subject of his remonstrance, he resumed his station in the national councils in 1783. When the definitive treaty was laid before them in that year, those members who had signed the declaration of independence, of whom three only remained—Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Gerry, and Mr. Ellery—were appointed first on the committee to which it was referred. In 1784 Mr. Gerry was re-elected a member of congress, and it is said that at the age of less than forty-two years he had been longer a member of that assembly than any other man in it.

In 1787 he was chosen a delegate to the convention which met at Philadelphia for the purpose of revising the articles of confederation. It is well known that great difference of opinion existed in that body, and several members refused to affix their signatures to the constitution adopted by the convention. Among these was Mr. Gerry. For a short time his popularity suffered severely by the course which he pursued; but in 1789 he was elected a member of congress, and remained in that station for four years, during which time he lent his aid freely to the support of the constitution since it had received the sanction of the people. On one occasion indeed, not long after taking his seat, he gave it as his opinion, "that the federal constitution having become the supreme law of the land, the salvation of the country depended on its being carried into effect." After resigning his seat in congress, he retired into private life, and resided at Cambridge until 1797, when he was appointed to accompany General Pinckney and Mr. Marshall on a special mission to France, for the purpose of preventing the threatened interruption of the peaceful relations existing between that country and the United States. The French directory for some time delayed to recognise them, and in the spring of 1798 ordered Marshall and Pinckney to quit the territories of France, but invited Gerry to remain and continue the negotiation. He refused to do the latter, but consented to remain in order to prevent a rupture between the two countries. This course brought upon him great censure in the United States at the time, but, in the words of President Adams, "he alone brought home the direct, formal and official assurances upon which the subsequent commission proceeded, and peace was made." In October 1798 Mr. Gerry returned home, and at the request of the democratic party of Massachusetts became their candidate for the chair of governor of the state. In 1801 he was again a candidate for the office, but at both periods his opponent was chosen. In 1810 he was a third time a candidate, and was chosen after a violent contest. The following year he was re-elected, but in 1812 he was defeated. In the same year he was chosen vice-president of the United States, but he did not long discharge the duties of the office; for as he was proceeding to the senate house at Washington, "a sudden extravasa-



tion of blood took place upon the lungs, and terminated his life within twenty minutes, almost without a struggle, and apparently without pain."

**GERSDORFF, CHARLES FREDERIC WILLIAM VON**, a celebrated royal Saxon lieutenant-general of cavalry, who was born in February 1765, on his father's estate at Glossen, near Lobau, in Upper Lusatia. Having studied at the universities of Leipsic and Wittenberg, he entered the military service in 1786 as lieutenant of the light horse. In the campaign which commenced in 1794 he was present at the second battle of Kaiserslautern and at the battle of Wetzlar. In 1805 he was made brigademajor, and took part in the siege of Dantzic, and in the bloody days of Heilsberg and Friedland, when he received the order of St. Henry. In 1809 he was made colonel, and received from the hands of the emperor the cross of the legion of honour, which had been promised him on the battle-ground of Lintz by the prince of Pontecorvo, general of the corps d'armee, to which the Saxon troops were attached. He was present at the battle of Wagram, and in 1823 published two letters contradicting the reflections of the emperor Napoleon on the conduct of the Saxon troops, as given in the "Notes et Melanges" of Montholon and Gourgaud. In 1819 he received the grand cross of the legion of honour, and in 1822 he was appointed commandant of the corps of cadets, in which office he remained until his death.

**GERSTENBERG, HENRY WILLIAM VON**, was born in 1737 at Tondern in Sleswick. He was extensively employed in the Danish service, both civil and military. He was once the favourite of his nation, and was distinguished for his writings, critical and poetical. He wrote many songs and several tragedies; and his "Ugolino" was successful even on the stage. He died on the 1st of November, 1823.

**GESENIUS, WILLIAM**, a distinguished biblical critic and orientalist, who was born in 1786 at Nordhausen, where his father, who was known as a respectable medical writer, was engaged in the practice of his profession. He was educated at the gymnasium of his native town and at the universities of Helmstadt and Gottingen. His attention, however, was almost exclusively devoted to the study of the oriental languages; and the necessity which he soon perceived of a better grammar and lexicon of the Hebrew language led him to devote himself entirely to this and to the study of the Old Testament. This he did during a three years' residence at Gottingen as magister legens and lecturer on theology, from 1806 to 1809, when he made preparations for his Hebrew lexicon. In 1809 he was appointed by the government of Westphalia, at the suggestion of the celebrated John Muller, professor of ancient literature in the Catholic and Protestant gymnasium at Heiligenstadt, afterwards in 1810 extraordinary, and in 1811 ordinary professor of theology at Halle. He remained at Halle after the restoration of the university in 1814 as doctor of theology, and wrote his commentary upon the origin, character, and authority of the Samaritan Pentateuch, which must always be regarded as a model in this kind of investigation.

In the summer of 1820 he made a scientific tour to Paris and Oxford, where he made collections in the Semitic languages for lexicographical purposes, and also took a copy of the Æthiopian book "Enoch," with a view to future publication. His studies had been hitherto devoted, if not exclusively, at least

chiefly, to his lexicon and grammar of the Hebrew language. In 1810 appeared his Hebrew and German Lexicon, and in 1815 an abridgment of the same. The chief peculiarities of these valuable works are, a just estimation and thorough examination of all the sources of lexicography, a correct apprehension of the relation between the Hebrew and its cognate languages, a complete statement and explanation of the constructions and phrases which are derived from each word, a clear distinction between what belongs to the province of the lexicon, the grammar, and the exegetical commentary respectively, and attention to the various kinds of diction. Some excellent remarks, which have had no small effect in the dissemination of right views upon these subjects, are to be found in the preface to the lexicon; but a treatise upon the sources of Hebrew etymology, and rules and observations for its use, attached to the second edition of the abridgment, which appeared in 1823, is deserving of more particular notice. His "Thesaurus Lingue Hebraice" is a lasting monument of true German learning. With these works are connected the results of his grammatical labours; the chief distinction of which is a full and critical observation and arrangement of grammatical forms, and a correct and analogical explanation of them. The various excellences of his elementary works, both grammars and lexicons, have been acknowledged in foreign countries; and by his version of Isaiah, with a commentary, philological, critical, and historical, he completed his contributions to the diffusion of a correct mode of studying the scriptures. The original has been copied in the translation with the utmost possible regard to form and meaning, and the commentary is a very satisfactory illustration of the text; but, besides the philological illustrations, Gesenius also bestowed great pains upon the historical and antiquarian parts in order to connect the study of the Bible more closely with that of the classical and oriental writers. He illustrated many other important particulars of Hebrew and other oriental antiquities in the "Universal Encyclopædia of Ersch and Gruber," and particularly enriched biblical geography in his notes to the German translation of Burckhardt's "Travels in Syria and Palestine."

**GESNER, CONRAD**, surnamed the Pliny of Germany, was born of poor parents at Zurich in 1516, where he studied, as he did also at Strasburg, Bourges, and Paris. Hoping to raise himself from his needy condition he went to Basle, and devoted himself particularly to the study of medicine. He became afterwards professor of the Greek language at Lausanne, and after a short residence at Montpellier he was made professor of philosophy, and practised as a physician at Zurich, where he died of the plague in 1565. Medicine, botany, philology, and the history of literature, were his principal departments. He commenced his labours in the last branch by his "Bibliotheca Universalis," a full catalogue of all writers extant in three languages, Greek, Latin, and Hebrew. This work is a monument of immense learning and industry. Natural history was awakened by him from its slumber of centuries. He collected matter in every quarter, either from his own observations or from the works of the ancients; and his history of animals must be regarded as the foundation of modern zoology. He also rendered a service to science by a complete translation of Ælian. As a botanist he surpassed all his predecessors or contemporaries.



raries; travelled through almost all parts of Europe to see and to collect; established, notwithstanding his slender resources, a botanic garden of rare plants; supported an artist to draw and paint, and formed the first cabinet of natural history. He may be said to have been the inventor of botanical arrangement since he distributed the vegetable kingdom into classes, genera, and species, according to the characters of the seeds and flowers. The medicinal properties of plants were not neglected by him, and he made experiments, first upon himself and then upon others. He wrote also on mineral springs, medicines, the nature and relation of languages, and edited and commented upon several ancient writers. He was as modest and obliging as he was learned. For his various and great merits he was politically ennobled the year before his death.

**GESNER, JOHN MATTHEW.**—This celebrated scholar was born at Roth, in Anspach, in 1691. After he had completed his studies at Jena, he became in 1715 co-rector and librarian at Weimar, in 1728 rector of the gymnasium at Anspach, in 1730 rector of the school of St. Thomas at Leipsic, and in 1734 professor of rhetoric, and subsequently librarian in the newly-erected university of Göttingen. He laboured with equal judgment and zeal to improve the course of instruction and the study of the ancient languages. By his editions of the ancient writers on agriculture, of Quintilian, Pliny the Younger, Claudian, Horace, and Orpheus, he introduced an instructive mode of illustrating the ancient classics, and by his "*Primæ Linæe Isagoges in Eruditionem Universam*" he prepared the way for a general study of the sciences. He rendered great service to the study of the Roman language and literature by his edition of Faber's "*Thesaurus*," and still more by his "*New Thesaurus of the Roman Language and Literature*," in which he collected the whole vocabulary of the Latin language. His death took place at Göttingen in 1761.

**GESNER, SOLOMON.**—This distinguished Swiss writer was born at Zurich in 1730, where his father was a bookseller and a member of the great council. In his early youth he made great advances in the Latin language, and his intercourse with the most eminent scholars in Zurich served to correct and extend his knowledge and to enlighten his conceptions. Gessner's father desired that he should undertake the business of a bookseller, and sent him in 1749 to Berlin that he might prepare himself for this occupation. He entertained, however, so decided a dislike for the business that he left his master. As his father endeavoured to compel his return by withholding the money necessary to his support, he maintained himself by executing landscapes, which were well received, and he in 1762 published, in four volumes, the poems which he had previously given to the world on different occasions. In 1772 he published another volume of idyls. Their quiet amiable character pleased many in Germany and in France, where they were translated by Huber; they were received with enthusiasm, and the author was regarded as a poet of the first rank. He is, in fact, the only German writer whom the French poets have repeatedly translated and imitated. From France his fame spread over all Europe. The most popular of his idyls is the "*Death of Abel*," which has been translated into many foreign languages. In the mean time he was married, and, for the sake of sup-

port, devoted himself seriously to painting. His advances were rapid and his success splendid. His works brought high prices, and enchanted by the most delightful representations of nature. The remainder of his life passed quietly and pleasantly till an apoplectic attack, in March 1787, brought it to a close. A certain tenderness and a melodious tone of language are the sources of the success of Gessner's writings; but he is deficient in depth and strength. In landscape painting he has merits which no age will diminish. His etching is light and powerful; his views are select, wild, and romantic; and his trees are particularly fine. All who were acquainted with Gessner describe him as an amiable, modest, high-minded, and patriotic man, who was as simple, natural, and true in his manners as he appears in his works. His eldest son, Conrad Gessner, who distinguished himself, first by his pictures of horses and by his battle-pieces, and afterwards by his landscapes, studied at Dresden and Rome. From 1796 to 1804 he lived in this country, then in his native town of Zurich, where he died in 1826.

**GESUALDO, CARLO**, prince of Venosa, a celebrated Neapolitan musician, who flourished about the latter end of the sixteenth century. He was the nephew of Cardinal Alphonso Gesualdo, archbishop of Naples, and received his instructions in music, in which science he greatly excelled from Pomponio Nenna. The writers of all countries give to this prince the character of being an extremely learned, ingenious, and artificial composer of madrigals. He is generally supposed to have imitated and improved that plaintive kind of air which distinguishes the Scottish melodies, and which had been brought to considerable perfection in the preceding century. Dr. Burney, however, says that in a very attentive perusal of the whole six books of the prince of Venosa's madrigals he was utterly unable to discover the least similitude to, or imitation of, the Caledonian airs; and, instead of giving to his compositions the unlimited praise that has been so liberally bestowed by others, he says, that "so far from Scots melodies, they seem to contain no melodies at all; nor, when scored, can we discover the least regularity of design, phraseology, rhythm, or indeed any thing remarkable, except unprincipled modulation, and the perpetual embarrassments and inexperience of an amateur in the arrangement and filling up of the parts." Notwithstanding this opinion of Dr. Burney, which indeed few persons would venture to question, it is well known that Geminiani frequently declared that "he laid the foundation of his studies on the works of the prince de Venosa." The first five books of his madrigals were published in parts in 1585 by Simon Molinaro, and in the year 1593 the madrigals of the prince of Venosa, in six books, were published together by the same person. The date of this composer's decease is not known with any degree of certainty.

**GHERARDESCA**, a distinguished family which plays an important part in the history of the Italian republics of the middle ages. It originated from Tuscany, where the counties of Gherardesca, Donoratico, and Montescudaio (in the Maremma between Pisa and Piombino) belonged to it. About the beginning of the thirteenth century the counts of Gherardesca united themselves with the powerful and rich republic of Pisa, and placed themselves at the head of the people, in opposition to the aristocracy



In the great contest between the Ghibelines and Guelfs they joined the party of the Suabian emperors, and fought not less bravely than faithfully under the Ghibeline banner. Two of this family—the counts Gherardo and Galvano Donoratico—accompanied Conradin of Hohenstaufen in his unfortunate expedition to Naples, and died with him on the scaffold. This adherence to the interests of the emperors involved the Gherardescas as early as 1237 in hostilities with the Visconti, who belonged to the party of the Guelfs; and all Pisa was divided between the two parties. At length the head of this powerful family, Ugolino Gherardesca, resolved to make himself master of his native city Pisa. Being first magistrate in the republic, and head of the Ghibelines in the city, he expected to find but little difficulty in attaining his object. Contrary, however, to the politics of his house and the spirit of his age, he so far coalesced with the Guelfs as to give his sister in marriage to John Visconti, judge of Gallura, and chief of the Guelfs in Pisa. This measure made him suspected by all, and indeed the Pisans had a right to look with displeasure on an alliance the secret conditions of which were the overthrow of the freedom of the city. Visconti agreed to secure to Ugolino the support of the Guelfs in Tuscany, and to furnish him secretly with several bands of mercenaries whom he had collected in Sardinia for his own ambitious purposes. The plan, however, was not successful on account of the vigilance of the Pisans. Gallura was banished in 1274, and Ugolino imprisoned. The former armed the Guelfs against Pisa; but his early death at San-Miniato freed the republic from its dangerous adversary. Ugolino, however, who was likewise banished soon after, joined the Florentines and the people of Lucca, at the head of whom he gained several victories over the Pisans, and compelled them to recall him in 1276.

Returning to his former plans, he endeavoured to secure the friendship of the Ghibelines in the city as well as that of the Guelfs abroad, and his prudence and riches enabled him to proceed but too well. The once vigilant republicans suffered themselves to be lulled into security, and in 1282 the war with Genoa, so unfortunate for Pisa, afforded Ugolino an opportunity for breaking the power of the people. In the battle of Meloria, which took place in August 1284, memorable for the final destruction of the Pisan fleet, and in which 11,000 Pisans were made prisoners by the Genoese, Ugolino betrayed his country, and by his premeditated desertion gave the signal for general flight; the rest, giving up all for lost, followed him in confusion. The old enemies of Pisa, the Florentines, Luccanese, Siennese, the cities of Pistoia, Prato, Volterra, San-Geminiano, and Colla—in a word, all the Guelfs of Tuscany—on receiving intelligence of this misfortune, determined, by a decisive blow, to annihilate the ancient city of Pisa, the principal support of the Ghibelines in Italy. The state, on the brink of destruction, now saw itself compelled to throw itself into the arms of him whose treachery had reduced it to this situation. Ugolino, for a long time secretly connected with the chiefs of the Guelfs, undertook the negotiation with the enemies of the city, which he managed in such a manner that he at length saw himself almost at the summit of his wishes. The leaders of the Ghibelines were banished, the Florentines took possession of many castles, and Ugolino, under the protection of

the enemies of Pisa, ruled the fallen state. He reduced it still further by the surrender of certain castles to the Luccanese, which gave them access to the gates of the city, and by avoiding the conclusion of a peace with Genoa, which would have set at liberty the prisoners captured at Meloria.

While he thus oppressed his native country and gratified his hatred against his enemies by banishing them, a conspiracy was formed against him in his own family. Nino di Gallura, his nephew, disgusted with his tyranny, united the principal families, both of the Ghibelines and Guelfs, the Gualandi, Sismondi, Lanfranchi, and others, to rescue Pisa from the degradation into which she was sunk. After a contest of nearly three years the intrigues of Ugolino succeeded, with the assistance of the archbishop of Pisa, Roger de' Ubaldini, in dissolving this league and regaining the Ghibelines. The Lanfranchi and others forsook Nino di Gallura, who was banished, together with many of his friends. Ubaldini was rewarded for his services by being driven from the public palace by Ugolino, who had promised to share with him the dominion of Pisa. The ambition of the usurper now knew no bounds. The people were oppressed, the lives of his own relations were threatened, and he murdered, with his own hands, a nephew of the archbishop. Such crimes united all against him; and Ubaldini, no less ambitious, artful, and cruel than Ugolino, was at the head of the conspirators. He artfully concealed the plan from the tyrant till it was fully matured, and Ugolino's refusal to finish the war with Genoa afforded the opportunity for the breaking out of the conspiracy. On the 1st of July, 1288, Ubaldini caused the tocsin to be sounded. Ugolino was attacked on all sides, and after an obstinate resistance, which continued till evening, was made prisoner with two of his sons, Gaddo and Uguccone, and two of his grandsons, Nino, surnamed le Brigata, and Aurelio Nuncio. These are the five persons whose horrible death Dante describes in his "Inferno." Roger or Rugieri de' Ubaldini caused these unfortunate persons to be carried to the castle of Gualandi, since called "Torre della Fame," and setting no bounds to his vengeance, after some months he threw the keys into the Arno, and doomed the prisoners to die by hunger. Poets and artists have often described or represented the terrible end of Ugolino and his companions, and posterity has forgotten his crimes in his horrible punishment.

G H I B E R T I, L O R E N Z O, a celebrated Florentine artist, who devoted himself almost exclusively to the art of chasing in metal. He was engaged in painting in fresco at Rimini, in the palace of Prince Pandolfo Malatesta, when the *priori* of the society of merchants at Florence invited artists to propose models for one of the bronze doors which still adorns the baptistery of St. John. The Offering up of Isaac was to be executed in gilt bronze as a specimen of the work. The judges selected the work of the celebrated Brunelleschi, that of Donatello, and that of Ghiberti, as the three best; but the two first voluntarily withdrew their claims, giving the preference to Ghiberti. After twenty-one years' labour, Ghiberti completed the door, and, at the request of the *priori*, executed a second, after almost as long a period. Michael Angelo said of these, that they were worthy of adorning the entrance to paradise. During these forty years, Ghiberti also completed a statue of John the



Baptist for the church of San-Michele, two bas-reliefs for the baptistery of the cathedral of Sienna, a statue of St. Matthew, and one of St. Stephen, for the church of San-Michele, and, for the church Santa-Maria del Fiore, the bronze reliquary of St. Zenobius, bishop of Florence. All these works are still preserved, and serve to show the progress of Ghiberti. But the dryness of the school of Giotto appears in his early works; the latter are an imitation of the Greeks, and are marked by continually increasing vigour and firmness. The reliquary of Zenobius and the two doors are, to this day, among the finest specimens of art in modern Italy. Ghiberti also executed some excellent paintings on glass for the churches San-Michele and Santa-Maria del Fiore, and a work by him on sculpture is extant, a fragment only of which has been published by Cicognara. He died about the year 1455.

GHIRLANDAIO, DOMENICO, one of the elder Florentine painters, who was particularly distinguished for fertility of invention, and has therefore been imitated by latter artists. He was born at Florence in 1449, and distinguished himself by a more accurate perspective than his predecessors, although he could not divest himself of the habit of using gold, particularly in the ornaments of his drapery. Several of his larger works may be found in the chapel Sassetti, and in the Trinity church at Florence, particularly his historical works from the life of St. Francis. His Truth is in the Giustiniani collection. Ghirlandaio had the honour of being the teacher of Michael Angelo.

GIANNI, FRANCESCO, a poet and improvisatore, who was born in the states of the church in 1760, and was educated for the trade of a tailor, and read Tasso, Ariosto, and other poets, on his workbench. With an excellent memory, and a lively imagination, nature formed him for an improvisatore, and he made his first appearance as such at Genoa. His imagination was kindled by the prospects of Italian independence held out by Bonaparte, the founder of the Cisalpine republic, and in 1796 he went to Milan, where he was chosen a member of the legislative council. In this capacity, Gianni, who had already charmed as a poet, distinguished himself so much as a legislator that his portrait was ordered to be engraved for the republic. The Spartan expression of his countenance corresponded to his republican ardour. The Russians confined him in Cattaro, but, after his release in 1800, he went to Paris, where Bonaparte granted him a pension of 6000 francs, with the title of *imperial improvisatore*. In the society which the counsellor of state, Gorvetto, assembled at his house, Gianni, inspired by the victories of the hero of France, exhibited his talents for improvisation with great applause. Many of these productions were printed with the French translation. Monti, who was jealous of all poetical celebrity, said "that nature had done every thing to make him a poet," but he maliciously added, "Gianni has not fulfilled her design."

GIANNONE, PIETRO, an author equally celebrated by his fate and by his writings, who was born in May 1676, at Ischitella, in the province of Capitanata, kingdom of Naples. His talents gained him access to the house of the learned lawyer Gaetano Argento, in Naples, in which almost all the distinguished men of the capital were at that time accustomed to assemble. Here he conceived the plan of his most

celebrated work, which determined the destiny of his whole life, his "*Storia Civile del Regno di Napoli*," in the composition of which he spent twenty years, and in which the work of Angelo di Costanzo on Naples served him as a guide. The severity with which Giannone treated the church drew upon him the persecutions of the court of Rome and of the clergy in general; and neither the authority of the viceroy of Naples, nor the protection of the municipality of Naples, of which Giannone had been elected advocate, were able to avert the storm. The priests instigated the people of the city against the man who had exposed the spiritual oppression of the Romish court. The offensive publication was burnt, and the author excommunicated. Giannone therefore quitted Naples in 1723 and took refuge in Vienna. Here the protection of Prince Eugene, and the intercession of the chancellor Zinzendorf, of Count Bonneval, who afterwards became so celebrated, and the chevalier Garelli, then physician to the emperor, procured him a pension. He died in 1748.

GIARDINI, FELICE, a distinguished Piedmontese, who was originally a chorister in the *Duomo* at Milan, under Paladini, of whom he learned singing, the harpsichord, and composition; but having previously manifested a disposition and partiality for the violin, his father recalled him to Turin in order to receive instructions on that instrument of the celebrated Somis. But though his preference to the violin, upon which he soon became the greatest performer in Europe, seems a fortunate circumstance, yet he had talents which would have made him a superior harpsichord player had he continued to practise that instrument. He went to Rome early in life and afterwards to Naples, where, having obtained a place in the opera orchestra, he used to flourish and change passages much more frequently than he ought to have done. "However," says Giardini, "I acquired great reputation among the ignorant for my impertinence; yet, one night during the opera, Jomelli, who had composed it, came into the orchestra, and seating himself close by me, I determined to give the *maestro di capella* a touch of my taste and execution; and in the symphony of the next song, which was in a pathetic style, I gave loose to my fingers and fancy, for which I was rewarded by the composer with a violent slap in the face; which," adds Giardini, "was the best lesson I ever received from a great master in my life." Jomelli after this was, however, very kind, in a different way, to this young and wonderful musician. Giardini came to England in 1750. His first public performance in London was at a benefit concert for Cuzzoni, who sang in it with a thin cracked voice, which almost frightened out of the little theatre in the Haymarket the sons of those who had, perhaps, heard her at the great theatre of the same street with ecstasy. But when Giardini played a solo and concerto, though there was very little company, the applause was so long, loud, and furious, as nothing but that bestowed on Garrick had ever equalled. Dr. Burney had met him the night before at a private concert, with Guadagni and Frasi, at the house of — Franks, Esq., who was himself one of the best dilettanti performers on the violin at that time, and says, "We were all equally surprised and delighted with the various powers of Giardini at so early a period of his life; when, besides solos of his own composition of the most brilliant kind, he played



several of Tartini's in manuscript at sight, and at five or six feet distance from the notes, as well as if he had never practised any thing else. His tone, bow, execution, graceful carriage of himself and instrument; playing some of my own music, and making it better than I intended, or had imagined it in the warm moments of conception; and, lastly, playing variations extempore, during half an hour, upon a new but extraordinary kind of birthday minuet, which accidentally lay on the harpsichord; all this threw the whole company into astonishment, who had never been accustomed to hear better performers than Festing, Brown, and Collet." Such was the celebrity which Giardini acquired in London from his talents, that in 1754 he was placed at the head of the opera orchestra. Two years afterwards he joined Mingotti in the management of the opera, but although they acquired much fame their management was not attended with much success. During this period Giardini composed several of the dramas which were performed. After the year 1763 Giardini retired from his situation with considerable loss, and entered upon the occupation of teaching in families of rank and fortune, at the same time continuing unrivalled as a leader, a solo player, and a composer for his favourite instrument. He resided in England till the year 1784, when he went to Naples under the patronage of Sir William Hamilton. Here he continued five years, and then returned to this country, but his reception was not what it had formerly been. His health being greatly impaired, and, sinking fast under a confirmed dropsy, all his former excellence was lost. Instead of leading in all the most difficult pieces he now played in public only the tenor in quartets which he had recently composed. He attempted, but without success, a burletta opera at the theatre in the Haymarket, and at length, in 1793, was induced to go to Petersburg, and afterwards to Moscow, with his burletta performers. But he experienced only the most cruel disappointment in each of these cities. The general capricious character and splenetic disposition of Giardini were his bane through life. He spoke well of few, and quarrelled with many of his most valuable friends. Nothing but his very superior musical talents could have upheld him during the time he was in favour with the public. Careless of his own interest, and inattentive to all those means which would have promoted his success in the world, he at length sunk under misfortunes of his own creating, and died at Moscow at the latter end of the same year, weighed down by penury and distress.

GIBBON, EDWARD, a distinguished English historian, who was born at Putney in 1737. He was the only surviving child of Edward Gibbon, a gentleman of independent fortune, and was so delicate in his health during his infancy that his life was frequently despaired of. At the age of twelve he was sent to Westminster school, but his infirm health prevented him making much progress in the classical studies of the school. After several changes of situation, in which he was chiefly the object of medical care, his constitution suddenly acquired firmness, and he entered as a gentleman commoner at Magdalen College, Oxford. He remained there about fourteen months, a period which he characterizes in his Memoirs as most unprofitably spent, and his censure of that university is very strong and unequivocal. At the age of sixteen his reading became

of the religious kind, and after bewildering himself in the errors of the church of Rome, he was converted to its doctrines, if that can be called a conversion which was rather the adoption of certain opinions by a boy who had never studied those of his own church. This change, in whatever light it may be considered, he imputes principally to the works of Parsons the Jesuit. Fortified with these, in June 1753 he solemnly abjured what he calls the errors of heresy and immediately announced the important event to his father in a very laboured epistle. His father regretted the change, but divulged the secret, and thus rendered his return to Magdalen College impossible.



His father was now advised to send him for some time to Lausanne in Switzerland, where he was placed, with a moderate allowance, under the care of Mr. Pavilliard, a Calvinist minister. Mr. Pavilliard was instructed to reclaim his pupil from the errors of popery; but as he could not speak English, nor Mr. Gibbon French, some time elapsed before much conversation of any kind became practicable. When their mutual industry had removed this obstacle, Mr. Pavilliard first secured the attention and attachment of his pupil by kindness, then directed his studies into a regular plan, and placed within his power such means of information as might remove the errors into which he had fallen. This judicious method soon proved successful; for on Christmas-day 1754, after "a full conviction," Mr. Gibbon received the sacrament in the church of Lausanne; and here it was, he informs us, that he suspended his religious inquiries, acquiescing with implicit belief in the tenets and mysteries which are adopted by the general consent of Catholics and Protestants.

His advantages in other respects were so important during his residence at Lausanne, that here, for the first time, he appears to have commenced that regular process of instruction which laid the foundation of all his future improvements. His thirst for general knowledge returned, and while he was not hindered from gratifying his curiosity in his former desultory manner, certain hours were appropriated for regular studies. His reading had now a fixed object, and, that attained, he felt the value of the acquisition, and became more reconciled to regu-

larity and system. He opened new stores of learning and taste by acquiring a knowledge of the Greek, Latin, and French languages. Of this proficiency, although his tutor ought not to be robbed of his share of the merit, it is evident that Mr. Gibbon's unwearied industry and laudable avidity of knowledge were at this time uncommon, and bespoke a mind capable of the highest attainments, and deserving of the highest honours within the compass of literature.

In 1758 he was permitted to return to England after an absence of nearly five years. His father received him with more kindness than he expected, and rejoiced in the success of the plan of his education. He published his essay on literary study in 1761. Part of this had been written at Lausanne, and the whole completed in London. He consulted Dr. Maty, a man of extensive learning and judgment, who encouraged him to publish the work; but this he would have probably delayed for some time had not his father insisted upon it, thinking that some proof of literary talents might introduce him to public notice. The design of this essay was to prove that all the faculties of the mind may be exercised and displayed by the study of ancient literature, in opposition to D'Alembert and others of the French encyclopedists. This essay accordingly was praised in the foreign journals, but attracted very little notice at home, and was soon forgotten. Of its merits he speaks in his *Memoirs* with a mixture of praise and blame, but the former predominates, and with justice. Had the French language been then as common in the literary world as it is now, so extraordinary a production from a young man would have raised very high expectations. About the time when this essay appeared, Mr. Gibbon was induced to embrace the military profession. He was appointed captain of the south battalion of the Hampshire militia, and for two years and a half endured "a wandering life of military servitude." It is seldom that the memoirs of a literary character are enlivened by an incident like this. Mr. Gibbon, as may be expected, could not divest his mind of its old habits, and therefore endeavoured to unite the soldier and the scholar.

He snatched some hours from his military duties for study, and upon the whole, although he does not look back with much pleasure on this period of his life, he permits the reader to smile at the advantages which the historian of the Roman empire derived from the captain of the Hampshire grenadiers. At the peace in 1762-3 his regiment was disbanded, and he resumed his studies. In 1764 he set out for Italy, after having studied the geography and ancient history of the seat of the Roman empire with such attention as might render his visit profitable. Although he disclaims that enthusiasm which takes fire at every novelty, the sight of Rome appears to have conquered his apathy and at once fixed the source of his fame. "It was at Rome, on the 15th of October, 1764, as he sat musing amidst the ruins of the Capitol, while the bare-footed friars were singing vespers in the temple of Jupiter (now the church of the Zoccolants, or Franciscan friars) that the idea of writing the *Decline and Fall* of the city first started to his mind." But it was not till after the death of his father in 1770 that he set to work in earnest. In 1776 the first volume was published, and was received by the public with such avidity

that a second edition in June, and a third soon after, were scarcely adequate to supply the demand. To use his own language, his book was on every table, and almost on every toilette—the historian was crowned by the taste or fashion of the day. From the ample praises of Dr. Robertson and of Mr. Hume he appears to have derived more substantial satisfaction. Hume anticipates the objections that would be made to the fifteenth and sixteenth chapters. He says, "When I heard of your undertaking (which was some time ago) I own I was a little curious to see how you would extricate yourself from the subject of your two last chapters. I think you have observed a very prudent temperament; but it was impossible to treat the subject so as not to give grounds of suspicion against you, and you may expect that a clamour will arise. This, if any thing, will retard your success with the public; for in every other respect your work is calculated to be popular. But, among many other marks of decline, the prevalence of superstition in England prognosticates the fall of philosophy and decay of taste; and though nobody be more capable than you to revive them, you will probably find a struggle in your first advances." Mr. Gibbon's reflections on this subject in his *Memoirs* are not very intelligible unless we consider him as employing irony. He affects not to have believed that the majority of English readers were so fondly attached even to the name of Christianity, and not to have foreseen that the pious and the prudent would feel, or affect to feel, with such exquisite sensibility. If he had foreseen all this, he condescends to inform us that "he might have softened the two invidious chapters." He seems to rejoice that "if the voice of our priests was clamorous and bitter, their hands were disarmed from the power of persecution;" and adhered to the resolution of trusting himself and his writings to the candour of the public until Mr. Davis of Oxford presumed to attack, "not the faith, but the fidelity of the historian." He then published his "Vindication," which, he says, "expressive of less anger than contempt, amused for a while the busy and idle metropolis." Of his other antagonists he speaks with equal contempt—"A victory over such antagonists was a sufficient humiliation." It is not, however, quite certain that he obtained this victory; the silence of an author is nearly on a par with the flight of a warrior, and it is evident that the contempt which Mr. Gibbon has so lavishly poured on his antagonists in his *Memoirs* has more of passionate resentment than of conscious superiority. Of his first resentment and his last feelings he thus speaks:—"Let me frankly own that I was startled at the first discharge of ecclesiastical ordnance; but, as soon as I found that this empty noise was mischievous only in the intention, my fear was converted into indignation; and every feeling of indignation or curiosity has long since subsided into pure and placid indifference."

The prosecution of his history was for some time checked by an employment of a different nature, but for which his talents were thought preferable to that of any writer connected with the administration. At the request of the minister of state he was induced to answer a manifesto which the French court had issued against Britain, preparatory to war. This Mr. Gibbon ably accomplished in a "*Memoire Justificatif*," composed in French, which was delivered as a state paper to the courts of Europe. For this service



he was appointed one of the lords commissioners of trade and plantations, a place worth about 700*l.* or 800*l.* a year, the duties of which were not very arduous.

In April 1781 he published the second and third volumes of his history, which excited as much attention, although less controversy, than his first volume. On the retirement of Lord North's administration he lost his appointment by the dissolution of the board of trade, and immediately formed the resolution of retiring to his favourite retreat at Lausanne, which plan he put in execution in 1783; and becoming joint possessor with his friend Deyverdun of a handsome house, he commenced a mode of living happily compounded of the man of letters and the gentleman of easy fortune.

He remained at Lausanne about a year before he resumed his history, which he concluded in 1787. This event is recorded by him in language personally characteristic:—"I have presumed to mark the moment of conception: I shall now commemorate the hour of my final deliverance. It was on the day, or rather night, of the 27th of June, 1787, between the hours of eleven and twelve, that I wrote the last lines of the last page in a summer-house in my garden. After laying down my pen, I took several turns in a *berceau*, or covered walk of acacias, which commands a prospect of the country, the lake, and the mountains. The air was temperate, the sky was serene, the silver orb of the moon was reflected from the waters, and all nature was silent. I will not dissemble the first emotions of joy on the recovery of my freedom, and, perhaps, the establishment of my fame. But my pride was soon humbled, and a sober melancholy was spread over my mind by the idea that I had taken an everlasting leave of an old and agreeable companion, and that whatsoever might be the future date of my History, the life of the historian might be short and precarious. I will add two facts, which have seldom occurred in the composition of six, or at least of five quartos:—My rough manuscript, without any intermediate copy, has been sent to press; and, secondly, not a sheet has been seen by any human eyes excepting those of the author and the printer; the faults and merits are exclusively my own."

The remainder of Mr. Gibbon's life was that of a private gentleman. The storms of the French revolution, which he regarded from the first with extreme fear and aversion, gradually lessened his attachment to Lausanne; but his return to England was hastened by his anxiety to sympathize with his friend Lord Sheffield under domestic calamity. He left Lausanne in May 1793, and arrived in June at Lord Sheffield's house in Downing Street, and soon after settled for the summer with that nobleman at Sheffield Place. In October he went to Bath to pay a visit of affection to Mrs. Gibbon, the widow of his father, and to Althorp, the seat of Lord Spencer, from which he returned to London, and for the first time avowed to his friend Lord Sheffield, by letter, the cause of the decay of his health, which he had hitherto concealed from every human being, except a servant, although it was a complaint of about thirty-three years' standing. This was originally a rupture, and now required immediate chirurgical aid. He died on the 16th of January, 1794, in the sixty-seventh year of his age.

GIBBONS, EDWARD, a distinguished professor

of music at the university of Cambridge. In 1604 he was appointed a gentleman of the Chapel Royal; and it is said that in the rebellion he furnished the king with the sum of a thousand pounds, for which act of loyalty he was afterwards very severely treated by those in power, who deprived him of a considerable estate; and, though at that time more than eighty years of age, he and three grandchildren whom he maintained were actually turned out of their home. He was musical preceptor to Matthew Locke, and Anthony Wood says that several of his compositions were deposited in the music school at Oxford.

GIBBONS, ORLANDO, one of the most celebrated English musicians of his time, who was born in the year 1583. At the age of twenty-one he was appointed organist of the Chapel Royal, and in 1622 obtained the degree of doctor of music in the university of Oxford. Three years after this, being ordered to go to Canterbury for the purpose of attending the marriage solemnity between King Charles I. and Henrietta of France, for which he had composed the music, he was seized with the small-pox, and died there at the age of forty-five, and was buried in the cathedral church of that city. In 1612 he published "Madrigals in Four Parts, for Voices and Viols;" but the most excellent of his works are his compositions for the church, namely, his services and anthems, of which there are many extant in the cathedral books. His anthem of "Hosanna" is one of the most perfect models for composition in the church style now to be found. He composed the airs to the "Hymns and Songs of the Church, translated by George Withers," and some of his lessons for the virginal are preserved in the collection entitled "Parthenia." The compositions of Orlando Gibbons are for the most part truly excellent, and the study of them cannot be too strongly recommended. The characteristics of his music are fine harmony, unaffected simplicity, and an almost unexampled grandeur. For choice of subjects, for skill in the management of them, and for flow of melody in all the parts, this great master was inferior to none of his contemporaries, and infinitely superior to most of them. He died at an advanced age.

GIBBONS, GRINLING, an eminent English sculptor, who was born in London about the middle of the seventeenth century. He was for many years a member of the board of works under Charles II. and James II. Evelyn in his Diary mentions with evident satisfaction his first meeting with this clever artist, who at that period did not rank very high in his profession. He says, "This day I first acquainted his Ma<sup>y</sup> with that incomparable young man Gibbon, whom I had lately met with in an obscure place by meer accident as I was walking neere a poore solitary thatched house in a field in our parish, nere Says Court. I found him shut in, but looking in at the window I perceiv'd him carving that large cartoon or crucifix of Tintoret, a copy of which I had myself brought from Venice, where the original painting remains. I asked if I might enter; he open'd the door civilly to me, and I saw him about such a work as for y<sup>e</sup> curiosity of handling, drawing, and studious exactnesse, I never had before seene in all my travells. I questioned him why he worked in such an obscure and lonesome place; he told me it was that he might apply himselfe to his profession without interruption, and wondred not a little how I had found him out. I asked if he was



unwilling to be made knowne to some greate man, for that I believed it might turn to his profit; he answer'd he was yet but a beginner, but would not be sorry to sell off that peice. On demanding the price, he said 100*l*. In good earnest the very frame was worth the money, there being nothing in nature so tender and delicate as the flowers and festoons about it, and yet the worke was very strong; in the peice were more than 100 figures of men, &c. I found he was likewise musical, and very civil, sober, and discrete in his discourse. There was onely an old woman in the house. So desiring leave to visite him sometimes, I went away.

“Of this young artist, and the manner of finding him out, I acquainted the king, and begg'd that he would give me leave to bring him and his worke to Whitehall, for that I would adventure my reputation with his ma<sup>ty</sup> that he had never seene any thing approach it, and that he would be exceedingly pleased, and employ him. The king said he would himselfe go see him.”

From that period he rose rapidly, and was employed in the ornamenting of several of the most splendid English edifices. The font in St. James's Church, Westminster, the archbishop's throne in Canterbury cathedral, and the choirs of St. Paul's and Windsor, are among the most celebrated of his works. His death took place in 1721.

**GIBBONS, CHRISTOPHER.**—This clever musician was the son of the celebrated Orlando Gibbons, and was from his childhood educated to the profession of music under his uncle, Ellis Gibbons, organist of Bristol. He had been a chorister in the chapel of Charles II., organist in private to his majesty, and organist of Westminster Abbey. The king had so great a partiality for this musician that he was induced to give him a personal recommendation to the university of Oxford, requesting that he might be admitted to the degree of doctor in music. This he was in consequence honoured with in 1664. Gibbons was more celebrated for his skill in playing the organ than for his compositions. There are, however, many of his anthems extant, though we know of none that have been less printed; and it is said that he assisted in the work entitled “*Cantica Sacra*,” containing English and Latin hymns and anthems, published in 1674. He died in the year 1676.

**GIBBS, JOHN.**—This extraordinary individual rendered himself as celebrated by his piracies at the beginning of the present century as Paul Jones did at the close of the last. He was a native of Rhode Island, of religious and wealthy parents; and, after having received a liberal education, this daring spirit was apprenticed to the sea. Through various adventures he is first recognised as commencing a career of piracy in a privateer cruising out of Buenos Ayres—one of those numberless marauders who, since the recognition of the independence of the South American States, have roamed over the Gulf of Mexico for the purpose of indiscriminate robbery and murder. In this privateer he first distinguished himself by heading a mutiny against the officers of the vessel, which proved successful; the officers were landed upon the coast of Florida, and Gibbs assuming the command, stood out to sea to commence his terrific career. After proceeding for some time in merely detaining vessels for the purpose of robbing them of their valuables, his crew grew weary of these incomplete operations, and, consisting for the most

part of Spaniards, it was agreed upon that as dead men can carry no tales, thenceforth no quarter should be shown, and the vessel now hoisted the black flag of the pirate. In the course of four years, during which this vessel infested the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, thirteen merchant vessels were boarded, captured, and all on board indiscriminately slaughtered, Gibbs himself having been present at the murder of 400 human beings. The vessels and cargoes were regularly carried to Cape Antonio, a piratical station upon the north-western extremity of the island of Cuba, the merchandise being thence transmitted by coasting vessels to the harbour of Havannah, to agents in correspondence with the pirates, from whom were received in return ammunition, provisions, and other supplies.

At Cape Antonio was a regular encampment and a battery mounting four guns; and during four years, owing to the supineness of the authorities of Cuba, these desperadoes reigned without disturbance at that extremity of the island. During this period their correspondence with the Havannah and other stations enabled the pirates to elude the cruisers of England and America; and Gibbs appears to have made frequent visits to the Havannah, where his fine manners and dashing expenditure brought him into the society of the officers of the vessels of war, from whom he frequently learned the track of their ensuing voyages in search of piratical vessels. It is also a circumstance to be regretted that regulations should exist in our naval service, which, by conferring upon the officers of our vessels the immense gains arising from the transportation of specie, contribute to divert them from the active duties of watching these piratical seas so fatal to our commerce; and at this period the commanders of the vessels of war in the service of England and America were busily engaged in carrying gold and silver across the Gulf of Mexico whilst the pirates of Cuba were ravaging the seas.

Amongst the adventures of Gibbs and his associates at this period was the following most melancholy and truly dramatic occurrence. A large ship bound from Curacoa to Holland was intercepted and captured in the Gulf of Mexico, and the crew and a number of passengers, in all twenty-eight persons, were murdered and thrown into the sea. Amongst the passengers was the family of a Dutch gentleman returning to Holland, consisting of himself, his wife, servants, and an only daughter, a young lady in the bloom of youth and beauty. After witnessing the slaughter of her parents, the unfortunate girl fell upon her knees to the captain of the pirates, and entreated him to save her from destruction in a manner so moving that, at the hazard of endangering his own life from the jealousy of his ruffian associates, Gibbs undertook to preserve her, and she was carried off to the encampment at Cape Antonio. Here this miserable female lived for six weeks amongst these ferocious monsters, in a course of life unutterably dreadful, and to all the horrors of remembrance of her murdered parents, her own desolation and hopelessness of ever regaining her home and country, was added the perpetual dread of death from men whose policy it was to allow no human witness to escape. Frequent dissensions respecting her arose amongst the pirates, and upon one occasion her brains were about to be dashed out with the handle of a pump by one of the most desperate of the gang,



to prevent which Gibbs was compelled to shoot the ruffian dead upon the spot. At length so alarming were the consequences of preserving her that a council of war was held upon her fate, when Gibbs was compelled to consent to her destruction; whereupon this miserable lady was carried off by poison—a dreadful termination of an agonizing life. Her melancholy end was declared by Gibbs to have caused him more horror than all the atrocities of his sanguinary life; it is the one redeeming circumstance in his history, that in the midst of his brutal associates all natural affection was not banished from his breast; and his persevering efforts to preserve the life of this unfortunate female form the one bright spot in his dark career.

After various adventures, and many times being closely pursued by vessels of war, the pirate was at length encountered by the United States brig *Enterprise*, under the command of Lieutenant Kearney; and the retreat to the port being now cut off, the vessel was abandoned, and the pirates, escaping in boats to the shore, defended themselves for some hours behind the four-gun battery; but this being eventually carried, the gang were thus dispersed into the woods and to the various harbours of the island. Here Gibbs found himself in possession of the sum of thirty thousand dollars, the proceeds of his accumulated share of the booty of the various expeditions; and with this sum he now embarked for England from the harbour of Havannah, determined, in the enjoyment of his ill-gotten wealth, to banish the remembrance of its criminal acquisition. But this was in vain; conscience haunted him in the midst of his career of sensuality, and, sinking into habits of drunkenness and waste, he found himself at length in circumstances of poverty in the port of Liverpool. Compelled again to resume his profession of the sea, but determined to return to his lawless pursuits, Gibbs appears to have sailed for Gibraltar, and thence to the city of Algiers, with the intention of offering his services to the dey, then engaged in war against the French; but finding the harbour so closely invested by the fleets of France that no entrance could possibly be effected, he was compelled to abandon the enterprise, and, returning to Gibraltar, sailed thence to the port of New Orleans in America. Here his poverty left him no alternative but to engage as a seaman in the brig *Vineyard*, bound to Philadelphia; and in this voyage were perpetrated the murders which terminated his career of crime.

When at sea it became known to Gibbs and his fellow seamen that amongst the cargo of the brig was the sum of 50,000 dollars, in boxes of specie consigned to Mr. Stephen Gerard, the wealthy banker of Philadelphia, whose recent decease and magnificent donations to the public institutions of Pennsylvania are well known in this country. To secure this treasure, with the vessel and cargo, by the murder of the officers, was now determined upon; and the conspirators, of whom Gibbs, with a youth and the mulatto steward of the vessel, were the principals, proceeded upon a certain night to the quarter-deck, where stood the captain, who was brought down by the blow of a pump handle, and immediately, whilst still alive, thrown into the sea. Descending to the cabin the mate was there murdered in a similar manner, and the mutineers were now in possession of the vessel. Gibbs assuming the command, and steering to the north, from ignorance of

the true position of the vessel at that time, it appears that in the following night the brig went ashore upon Long Island, at a point distant about nine miles from the city of New York. It now became necessary to abandon the vessel, and the 50,000 dollars being secured, the party descended to the boats, and stood towards the shore; a rough sea rising, however, at the time, compelled them to throw overboard boxes containing 35,000 dollars, and a landing was with difficulty effected with the remaining 15,000. This amount the pirates buried in the sand upon the beach, and, proceeding to a neighbouring tavern, were soon immersed in those scenes of debauchery always attendant upon a life of crime. Here one of the party, whose participation in the mutiny and murder had been compulsory and unwilling, revealed the particulars of the deed, whereupon the whole party were apprehended, conveyed to New York, and committed to prison. In the month of June 1835 they were tried, when Gibbs, with the youth and the mulatto steward, being convicted upon the evidence of their associates, were condemned to death, and executed upon Long Island, near the scene of their landing from the brig. The particulars of this narrative are from the confessions of Gibbs previous to his death; and an important document is said to have been furnished by him, containing the names of many of his former associates in his career of piracy, from which it appears that many of the highest authorities of the island of Cuba had been for years connected with piratical adventurers.

**GIBBS, SIR VICARY.**—This distinguished lawyer was born in 1750, in the city of Exeter, and was educated at Cambridge. On leaving that university, which it was afterwards his good fortune to represent in parliament, he came to London and entered himself in one of the inns of court. He did not however acquire any degree of celebrity as a lawyer until the state trials in 1794. On that occasion he was selected as the colleague of a very popular pleader, and having obtained an acquittal for Mr. Hardy, the liberation of Mr. Tooke was contemplated as a matter of course, and the two able speeches delivered by Mr. Gibbs on those occasions were soon after published. The latter of his two clients always spoke of his counsel with high respect, and was accustomed to add, "that when he undertook this cause, he was utterly ignorant of the details of the common law, but that he was an apt scholar, and soon acquired an astonishing degree of proficiency."

Such was the ability of the defence, as conducted by Mr. Gibbs, that from this moment his practice increased, and his rise became certain. Having hitherto pleaded under a stuff gown, his majesty's ministers, considering his growing talents as an acquisition not to be omitted, immediately presented him with a silk one. Being now a king's counsel, the career of the subject of this memoir, if not rapid, was at least brilliant, for he soon obtained the high and respectable office of chief justice of Chester. In 1805 he was knighted on becoming solicitor general. At length, in 1807 he was called on to fill the important station of attorney-general—an office, indeed, beset with cares, and abounding with difficulties, but which placed him high in his professional avocations, and was then, as now, accompanied with an income, arising from fees, briefs, and emoluments, that renders it inferior in this point of view to the woollack alone.



Finally, in 1813, Sir Vicary was elevated to the bench; but premature age and infirmities prevented him from holding the office of chief justice of the common pleas more than a very few years.

Sir Vicary Gibbs, as a member of the House of Commons, was always listened to with great attention, more especially on legal questions. But he did not possess that species of eloquence which is alone popular in St. Stephen's chapel. As a pleader, he was candid in his opinions, profound in his legal knowledge; and as he excelled in a reply, so on those occasions he generally was sarcastic and acrimonious. As he sometimes assumed more than ordinary consequence, this gave rise to a severe reprimand on the part of a brother advocate, who told him, in the language of Shakspeare, that he "bestrode the bar like a Colossus." As a judge, the conduct of the subject of this memoir was beyond suspicion; equal-handed justice was always to be met with at his tribunal. Sir Vicary Gibbs died at his house in Russell Square on the 8th of February, 1820, and his remains were deposited in the family vault at Hayes in Kent.

GIBSON, EDMUND, a learned ecclesiastic who was born in the county of Westmorland in 1669, and was educated at Queen's College, Oxford. He had an early and strong inclination to search into the antiquities of his country; and having laid a necessary foundation in the knowledge of its original languages, he applied himself to them for some years with great diligence, which produced his edition of Camden's "Britannia," and other works, noticed hereafter; and he concluded in this branch of learning with "Reliquiæ Spelmannianæ, or the Posthumous Works of Sir Henry Spelman, relating to the Laws and Antiquities of England," which, with a life of the author, he published at Oxford in 1698. This he dedicated to Dr. Tenison, then archbishop of Canterbury, and probably about that time he was taken as domestic chaplain into the archbishop's family: nor was it long after that we find him both rector of Lambeth and archdeacon of Surrey. In 1713 appeared his "Codex," which is still much admired.

Tenison dying in 1715, Wake, bishop of Lincoln, succeeded him, and Gibson was appointed to the see of Lincoln. After this advancement he went on indefatigably in defence of the government and discipline of the church of England; and on the death of Robinson in 1720 was promoted to the bishopric of London. Gibson's talents seem to have been perfectly suited to the particular duties of this important station, upon the right management of which the peace and good order of the civil as well as the ecclesiastical state of the nation so much depend. He had a particular turn for business; which he happily transacted by means of a most exact method that he used on all occasions; and this he pursued with great advantage, not only in the affairs of his own diocese in England, which he governed with the most precise regularity, but in promoting the spiritual affairs of the church of England colonies in the West Indies. The ministry at this time were so sensible of his great abilities in transacting business that there was committed to him a sort of ecclesiastical ministry for several years; and almost every thing that concerned the church was in a great measure left to his care. He died after a painful illness on the 6th of September, 1748, with great Christian fortitude.

GIBSON, RICHARD, an English portrait painter of considerable eminence, who in point of stature was only a dwarf, being but three feet ten inches in height. He was originally a page to a lady residing at Mortlake, who, observing his genius for painting, had him instructed in the rudiments of that art. He devoted himself to Sir Peter Lely's style, and copied his pictures to admiration, especially his portraits; his paintings in water-colours were also esteemed. He was in great favour with Charles I., who made him his page of the back-stairs; and he had the honour to instruct in drawing Queen Mary and Queen Anne when they were princesses. He married a lady who was also a dwarf; on which occasion King Charles I. honoured their marriage with his presence, and gave away the bride. Waller wrote a poem on this occasion, entitled "The Marriage of the Dwarfs," in which are these lines:—

"Design or chance make others wive,  
But nature did this match contrive;  
Eve might as well have Adam fled,  
As she denied her little bed  
To him, for whom Heav'n seem'd to frame  
And measure out this only dame."

Mr. Fenton, in his notes on this poem, observes that he had seen this couple painted by Sir Peter Lely, and that they were of an equal stature, each being three feet ten inches high. However, they had several children. But what nature denied this couple in stature she gave them in length of days, for Mr. Gibson died in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and his wife, who survived him nearly twenty years, attained the age of eighty-nine.

GIFFORD, JOHN.—The real name of this well-known historical and biographical writer appears to have been Richards Green, and he was born about 1758. He was sent to Oxford in 1775, but, having expended all his property in a very extravagant career, he was obliged to seek an asylum in France shortly afterwards, and it was perhaps at this period that, perceiving the necessity of concealment, he changed his original name Richards Green for that of John Gifford, which he retained ever after.

Having repaired to Flanders, he settled in the city of Lisle, where he remained for a considerable time. He afterwards appears to have returned to England for a short time; and thence, after crossing the channel a second time, to have repaired to Normandy. He now took up his abode in the vicinity of Rouen, and there is every reason to suppose that his time was profitably occupied in rendering himself well acquainted with French literature. This exile proved advantageous in many points of view, for he laid in a fund of information which proved highly serviceable to him in future. It was during this period indeed that he became an adept in French history, by the perusal of Mezeray, Daniel, and the other annalists of that nation. This afterwards enabled him to compile a work of the same kind, some years after, when he had again returned to England.

Mr. Gifford returned to this country in 1788, and resided for some time in the parish of Stepney. Here he commenced his career as a man of letters, and henceforth applied all his time and talents to pursuits of this kind. The materials for the first work which he published were collected in the kingdom he had just left. The occurrences of 1789 had rendered every thing concerning France of great importance. It became desirable and even necessary



for those who witnessed the origin and progress of the revolution to become acquainted with antecedent events, to read the annals of the civil wars, to obtain a knowledge of the motives that led to the famous league, and the disturbances in the time of the Fronde. The exploits of the famous provost of Paris had now found a parallel in modern events, but there was no Richelieu on the side of the crown to bear down all resistance to royal authority, to overwhelm the Protestants a second time, and to rivet the chains of despotism anew. The epoch, indeed, was exceedingly favourable to Mr. Gifford, who commenced his labours at a period when all the sovereigns on the continent and all the emigrant nobility of France implored our assistance, and he did not finish them until we ourselves had engaged as principals in the revolutionary contest.

The zeal and writings of Mr. Gifford on this occasion at length recommended him to the notice of ministers. His pen was found to be keen and serviceable; he himself was always among the first to advocate their measures, on one hand, while he rode in the foremost ranks of the battle, and hewed down their political adversaries on the other.

To combat Paine with his own arms, Mr. Gifford now published "An Address to the People of England," to which he annexed "An Abstract of Paine's Life and Writings." This was published in 1792, and circulated every where. As his assertions were bold, his language bitter, and his zeal warm, and even fiery, he had a number of readers and admirers; and doubtless found his advantage in the air of sincerity and enthusiasm infused into his writings. It is a well-known fact, that the press at this period was hostile to ministers, and that the speeches of the Opposition in parliament, together with the books and pamphlets then in circulation, had produced considerable effect on the public mind.

When war was declared with France his writings assumed a still fiercer aspect. He termed all those who considered themselves merely as advocates for Gallic liberty traitors and upholders of sedition, while the French nation was denominated "our common and hereditary enemies." Soon after this he attacked the earl of Lauderdale and the Honourable Thomas Erskine on account of their doubts relative to the justice of the contest on our part with no inconsiderable degree of asperity. He lived long enough however to see the one an ambassador to France and the other a peer of parliament and chancellor of Great Britain, and that too before the conclusion of this very war. Nor, on the other hand, was he wanting in his partiality to the French emigrants, whom he considered as so many gallant and unfortunate men who had been sacrificed on account of their attachment to their God and their loyalty to their king. He was accordingly induced to translate the celebrated pamphlet written by Lally Tolendal in their vindication, while he tried to overwhelm their enemies, both here and in France, by an English version of General Danican's little volume entitled "The Banditti Unmasked." To support the government at home by an address in praise of the "loyal associations" was the next object of Mr. Gifford's zeal, and no fewer than 100,000 copies were published; as these were at first, in no great favour with the people, and their chairman was afterwards prosecuted by the House of Commons for a libel, his praise was considered as well timed, and

his panegyrics quoted by his admirers with applause.

In 1796 Mr. Gifford undertook the management of two newspapers; the one a morning, the other an evening one; and on the cessation of the "Anti-Jacobin, or Weekly Examiner," in 1798, he established the "Anti-Jacobin Review." The last, and perhaps his most important work, was "The Political Life of the Right Honourable William Pitt, including some Account of the Times in which he lived." This first appeared in a quarto size, but on the publication of a second edition it assumed the octavo form with a dedication to Earl Spenser, who had held a high office under that minister. To Mr. Pitt Mr. John Gifford was indeed greatly indebted. His labours in the political vineyard first recommended him to his notice, and he at length obtained an office in the magistracy, which, if it did not produce all the luxuries of life, yet assured a certain and respectable income. He continued in the performance of his magisterial duties till the time of his death, which occurred in 1818.

**GIFFORD, WILLIAM.**—The history of modern literature furnishes no parallel to the extraordinary rise of this individual. Originally placed in the humblest walk of life, he raised himself to the rank of arbiter of the literary taste of the land that gave him birth. As, however, Mr. Gifford was the chronicler of the early events of his own life, we cannot do better than present it to our readers as the memoir appeared in the translation of Juvenal, published in 1802.

"I know but little of my family, and that little is not very precise. My great-grandfather (the most remote of it that I ever recollect to have heard mentioned) possessed considerable property at Halsworthy, a parish in the neighbourhood of Ashburton; but whether acquired or inherited I never thought of asking, and do not know. He was probably a native of Devonshire, for there he spent the last years of his life; spent them, too, in some sort of consideration, for Mr. T. (a very respectable surgeon at Ashburton) loved to repeat to me, when I first grew into notice, that he had frequently hunted with his hounds. My grandfather was on ill terms with him; I believe not without sufficient reason, for he was extravagant and dissipated. My father never mentioned his name, but my mother would sometimes tell me that he had ruined the family. That he spent much I know; but I am inclined to think that his undutiful conduct occasioned my great-grandfather to bequeath a part of his property from him.

"My father, I fear, revenged, in some measure, the cause of my great-grandfather. He was, as I have heard my mother say, 'a very wild young man, who could be kept to nothing.' He was sent to the grammar-school at Exeter, from which he made his escape, and entered on board a man-of-war. He was soon reclaimed from his situation by my grandfather, and left his school a second time to wander in some vagabond society. He was now probably given up, for he was, on his return from this notable adventure, reduced to article himself to a plumber and glazier, with whom he luckily staid long enough to learn the business. I suppose his father was now dead, for he became possessed of two small estates, married my mother (the daughter of a carpenter at Ashburton), and thought himself rich enough to set

up for himself, which he did with some credit at South Molton. Why he chose to fix there I never inquired; but I learned from my mother that after a residence of four or five years he was again thoughtless enough to engage in a dangerous frolic, which drove him once more to sea. This was an attempt to excite a riot in a Methodist chapel; for which his companions were prosecuted, and he fled, as I have mentioned. My father was a good seaman, and was soon made second in command in the *Lyon*, a large armed transport in the service of government, while my mother (then with child of me) returned to her native place, Ashburton, where I was born, in April 1757. The resources of my mother were very scanty. They arose from the rent of three or four small fields, which yet remained unsold. With these; however, she did what she could for me; and as soon as I was old enough to be trusted out of her sight, sent me to a schoolmistress of the name of Parret, from whom I learned in due time to read. I cannot boast much of my acquisitions at this school; they consisted merely of the contents of the "Child's Spelling Book;" but from my mother, who had stored up the literature of a country town, which about half a century ago amounted to little more than what was disseminated by itinerant ballad-singers, or rather readers, I had acquired much curious knowledge of "Catskin," and the "Golden Bull," and the "Bloody Gardener," and many other histories equally instructive and amusing;

"My father returned from sea in 1764. He had been at the siege of the Havannah, and though he received more than a hundred pounds for prize-money, and his wages were considerable, yet, as he had not acquired any strict habits of economy, he brought home but a trifling sum. The little property yet left was therefore turned into money; a trifle more was got by agreeing to renounce all future pretensions to an estate at Totness, and with this my father set up a second time as a glazier and house-painter. I was now about eight years old, and was put to the free-school (kept by Hugh Smerdon) to learn to read, and write, and cipher. Here I continued about three years, making a most wretched progress, when my father fell sick and died. He had not acquired wisdom from his misfortunes, but continued wasting his time in unprofitable pursuits to the great detriment of his business. He loved drink for the sake of society, and to this love he fell a martyr, dying of a decayed and ruined constitution before he was forty. The town's-people thought him a shrewd and sensible man, and regretted his death. As for me, I never greatly loved him; I had not grown up with him; and he was too prone to repulse my little advances to familiarity with coldness or anger. He had certainly some reason to be displeased with me, for I learned little at school and nothing at home, though he would now and then attempt to give me some insight into the business. As impressions of any kind are not very strong at the age of eleven or twelve, I did not long feel his loss; nor was it a subject of much sorrow to me that my mother was doubtful of her ability to continue me at school, though I had by this time acquired a love for reading. I never knew in what circumstances my mother was left; most probably they were inadequate to her support without some kind of exertion, especially as she was now burdened with a second

child, about six or eight months old. Unfortunately she determined to prosecute my father's business; for which purpose she engaged a couple of journeymen, who, finding her ignorant of every part of it, wasted her property and embezzled her money. What the consequence of this double fraud would have been there was no opportunity of knowing, as in somewhat less than a twelvemonth my poor mother followed my father to the grave. She was an excellent woman, bore my father's infirmities with patience and good humour, loved her children dearly, and died at last exhausted with anxiety and grief more on their account than on her own.

"I was not quite thirteen when this happened; my little brother was hardly two; and we had not a relation nor a friend in the world. Every thing that was left was seized by a person of the name of C—, for money advanced to my mother. It may be supposed that I could not dispute the justice of his claims, and as no one else interfered, he was suffered to do as he liked. My little brother was sent to the almshouse, whither his nurse followed him out of pure affection, and I was taken to the house of the person I have just mentioned, who was also my godfather. Respect for the opinion of the town (which, whether correct or not, was that he had repaid himself by the sale of my mother's effects) induced him to send me again to school, where I was more diligent than before, and more successful. I grew fond of arithmetic, and my master began to distinguish me; but these golden days were over in less than three months. C— sickened at the expense; and as the people were now indifferent to my fate, he looked round for an opportunity of ridding himself of a useless charge. He had previously attempted to engage me in the drudgery of husbandry. I drove the plough for one day to gratify him, but I left it with a firm resolution to do so no more; and, in despite of his threats and promises adhered to my determination. In this I was guided no less by necessity than will. During my father's life, in attempting to clamber up a table I had fallen backward and drawn it after me; its edge fell upon my breast, and I never recovered the effects of the blow, of which I was made extremely sensible on any extraordinary exertion. Ploughing, therefore, was out of the question, and, as I have already said, I utterly refused to follow it. As I could write and cipher (as the phrase is), C— next thought of sending me to Newfoundland to assist in a storehouse. For this purpose he negotiated with a Mr. Holdsworth of Dartmouth, who agreed to fit me out. I left Ashburton with little expectation of seeing it again, and indeed with little care, and rode with my godfather to the dwelling of Mr. Holdsworth. On seeing me, this great man observed, with a look of pity and contempt, that I was too small, and sent me away sufficiently mortified. I expected to be very ill received by my godfather, but he said nothing. He did not, however, choose to take me back himself, but sent me in the passage boat to Totness, from whence I was to walk home. On the passage the boat was driven by a midnight storm on the rocks, and I escaped with life almost by miracle.

"My godfather had now humbler views for me, and I had little heart to resist any thing. He proposed to send me on board one of the Torbay fishing boats;



I ventured, however, to remonstrate against this, and the matter was compromised by my consenting to go on board a coaster. A coaster was speedily found for me at Brixham, and thither I went when little more than thirteen. My master, whose name was Full, though a gross and ignorant, was not an ill-natured man, at least not to me; and my mistress used me with unvarying kindness, moved perhaps by my weakness and tender years. In return I did what I could to requite her, and my good-will was not overlooked.

"Our vessel was not very large, nor our crew very numerous. On ordinary occasions, such as short trips to Dartmouth, Plymouth, &c., it consisted only of my master, an apprentice nearly out of his time, and myself: when we had to go farther, to Portsmouth for example, an additional hand was hired for the voyage. In this vessel (the Two Brothers) I continued nearly a twelvemonth; and here I got acquainted with nautical terms, and contracted a love for the sea, which a lapse of thirty years has but little diminished. It will be easily conceived that my life was a life of hardship. I was not only a "ship-boy on the high and giddy mast," but also in the cabin, where every menial office fell to my lot; yet, if I was restless and discontented, I can safely say, it was not so much on account of this as of my being precluded from all possibility of reading, as my master did not possess, nor do I recollect seeing, during the whole time of my abode with him, a single book of any description except the "Coasting Pilot." As my lot seemed to be cast, however, I was not negligent in seeking such information as promised to be useful; and I therefore frequented, at my leisure hours, such vessels as dropt into Torbay. On attempting to get on board one of these, which I did at midnight, I missed my footing and fell into the sea. The floating away of the boat alarmed the man on deck, who came to the ship's side just in time to see me sink. He immediately threw out several ropes, one of which providentially (for I was unconscious of it) entangled itself about me, and I was drawn up to the surface till a boat could be got round. The usual methods were taken to recover me, and I awoke in bed the next morning, remembering nothing but the horror I felt when I first found myself unable to cry out for assistance.

"This was not my only escape, but I forbore to speak of them. An escape of another kind was now preparing for me, which deserves all my notice as it was decisive of my future fate. On Christmas-day, 1770, I was surprised by a message from my godfather, saying, that he had sent a man and horse to bring me to Ashburton, and desiring me to set out without delay. My master as well as myself supposed it was to spend the holidays there, and he therefore made no objection to my going. We were, however, both mistaken. Since I had lived at Brixham I had broken off all connection with Ashburton. I had no relation there but my poor brother, who was yet too young for any kind of correspondence; and the conduct of my godfather towards me did not entitle him to any portion of my gratitude or kind remembrance. I lived, therefore, in a sort of sullen independence on all I had formerly known, and thought without regret of being abandoned by every one to my fate. But I had not been overlooked. The women of Brixham, who travelled to Ashburton twice

a week with fish, and who had known my parents, did not see me without kind concern running about the beach in a ragged jacket and trowsers. They mentioned this to the people of Ashburton, and never without commiserating my change of condition. This tale often repeated awakened at length the pity of their auditors, and, as the next step, their resentment against the man who had reduced me to such a state of wretchedness. In a large town this would have had little effect, but in a place like Ashburton, where every report speedily becomes the common property of all the inhabitants, it raised a murmur which my godfather found himself either unable or unwilling to withstand; he therefore determined, as I have just observed, to recall me, which he could easily do as I wanted some months of fourteen, and consequently was not yet bound. All this I learned on my arrival; and my heart, which had been cruelly shut up, now opened to kinder sentiments and fairer views.

"After the holidays I returned to my darling pursuit, arithmetic; my progress was now so rapid that in a few months I was at the head of the school and qualified to assist my master (Mr. E. Furlong) on any extraordinary emergency. As he usually gave me a trifle on those occasions, it raised a thought in me, that by engaging with him as a regular assistant and undertaking the instruction of a few evening scholars I might, with a little additional aid, be enabled to support myself. God knows, my ideas of support at this time were of no very extravagant nature. I had, besides, another object in view. Mr. Hugh Smerdon (my first master) was now grown old and infirm; it seemed unlikely that he should hold out above three or four years; and I fondly flattered myself that, notwithstanding my youth, I might possibly be appointed to succeed him. I was in my fifteenth year when I built these castles; a storm, however, was collecting, which unexpectedly burst upon me and swept them all away. On mentioning my little plan to C., he treated it with the utmost contempt, and told me in his turn, that as I had learned enough and more than enough at school, he must be considered as having fairly discharged his duty (so indeed he had): he added that he had been negotiating with his cousin, a shoemaker of some respectability, who had liberally agreed to take me without a fee as an apprentice. I was so shocked at this intelligence that I did not remonstrate, but went in sullenness and silence to my new master, to whom I was soon afterwards bound till I should obtain the age of twenty-one. The family consisted of four journeymen, two sons about my own age, and an apprentice somewhat older. In these there was nothing remarkable, but my master himself was the strangest creature! He was a Presbyterian, whose reading was entirely confined to the small tracts published on the Exeter controversy. As these (at least his portion of them) were all on one side he entertained no doubt of their infallibility, and being noisy and disputatious was sure to silence his opponents; and became in consequence of it intolerably arrogant and conceited. He was not, however, indebted solely to his knowledge of the subject for his triumph: he was possessed of Fenning's dictionary, and he made a most singular use of it. His custom was to fix on any word in common use, and then to get by heart the synonyme or periphrasis by which it was explained in the book; this he constantly substituted for the



other, and as his opponents were commonly ignorant of his meaning his victory was complete.

"With such a man I was not likely to add much to my stock of knowledge, small as it was; and, indeed, nothing could well be smaller. At this period I had read nothing but a black-letter romance, called "*Parismus* and *Parismenus*," and a few loose magazines which my mother had brought from South Molton. The Bible, indeed, I was well acquainted with; it was a favourite study of my grandmother, and reading it frequently with her had impressed it strongly on my mind; these then, with the imitation of Thomas á Kempis, which I used to read to my mother on her death-bed, constituted the whole of my literary acquisitions.

"As I hated my new profession with a perfect hatred, I made no progress in it; and was consequently little regarded in the family, of which I sunk by degrees into the common drudge. This did not much disquiet me, for my spirits were now humbled. I did not, however, quite resign the hope of one day succeeding to Mr. Hugh Smerdon, and therefore secretly prosecuted my favourite study at every interval of leisure. These intervals were not very frequent, and when the use I made of them was found out they were rendered still less so. I could not guess the motives for this at first, but at length I discovered that my master destined his youngest son for the situation to which I aspired.

"I possessed at this time but one book in the world; it was a *Treatise on Algebra*, given me by a young woman, who had found it in a lodging house. I considered it as a treasure, but it was a treasure locked up, for it supposed the reader to be well acquainted with simple equation, and I knew nothing of the matter. My master's son had purchased *Fennig's Introduction*: this was precisely what I wanted, but he carefully concealed it from me, and I was indebted to chance alone for stumbling upon his hiding-place. I sat up for the greatest part of several nights successively, and before he suspected that his treatise was discovered had completely mastered it. I could now enter upon my own, and that carried me pretty far into the science. This was not done without difficulty; I had not a farthing on earth nor a friend to give me one; pen, ink, and paper, therefore (in spite of the flippant remark of Lord Orford), were for the most part as completely out of my reach as a crown and sceptre. There was indeed a resource, but the utmost caution and secrecy were necessary in applying to it. I beat out pieces of leather as smooth as possible, and wrought my problems on them with a blunted awl; for the rest, my memory was tenacious, and I could multiply and divide by it to a great extent.

"Hitherto I had not so much as dreamt of poetry, indeed I scarce knew it by name, and whatever may be said of the force of nature, I certainly never "lisp'd in numbers." I recollect the occasion of my first attempt; it is like all the rest of my non-adventures, of so unimportant a nature that I should blush to call the attention of the idlest reader to it but for the reason alleged in the introductory paragraph. A person, whose name escapes me, had undertaken to paint a sign for an ale-house; it was to be a lion, but the unfortunate artist produced a dog. On this awkward affair one of my acquaintance wrote a copy of what we called verses; I liked it, but fancied I could compose something more to the purpose; I

tried, and by the unanimous suffrage of my shop-mates was allowed to have succeeded. Notwithstanding this encouragement I thought no more of verse till another occurrence as trifling as the former furnished me with a fresh subject, and so I went on till I had got together about a dozen of them; certainly nothing on earth was ever so deplorable; such as they were, however, they were talked of in my little circle, and I was sometimes invited to repeat them even out of it. I never committed a line to paper for two reasons—first, because I had no paper, and secondly, perhaps I might be excused from going further, but, in truth, I was afraid, for my master had already threatened me for inadvertently hitching the name of one of his customers into a rhyme.

"The repetitions of which I speak were always attended with applause, and sometimes with favours more substantial; little collections were now and then made, and I have received sixpence in an evening. To one who had long lived in the absolute want of money such a resource seemed like a Peruvian mine. I furnished myself by degrees with paper, &c., and, what was of more importance, with books of geometry, and of the higher branches of algebra, which I cautiously concealed. Poetry, even at this time, was no amusement of mine; it was subservient to other purposes, and I only had recourse to it when I wanted money for my mathematical pursuits.

"But the clouds were gathering fast. My master's anger was raised to a terrible pitch by my indifference to his concerns, and still more by the reports which were daily brought to him of my presumptuous attempts at versification. I was required to give up my papers, and when I refused my garret was searched, my little hoard of books discovered and removed, and all future repetitions prohibited in the strictest manner. This was a very severe stroke, and I felt it most sensibly; it was followed by another severer still, a stroke which crushed the hopes I had so long and so fondly cherished and resigned me at once to despair. Mr. Hugh Smerdon, on whose succession I had calculated, died, and was succeeded by a person not much older than myself, and certainly not so well qualified for the situation.

"I look back to that part of my life which immediately followed this event with little satisfaction—it was a period of gloom and savage unsociability. By degrees I sunk into a kind of corporeal torpor, or, if roused into activity by the spirit of youth, wasted the exertion in splenetic and vexatious tricks, which alienated the few acquaintances compassion had yet left me. So I crept on in silent discontent, unfriendly and unpitied, indignant at the present, careless of the future, an object at once of apprehension and dislike. From this state of abjectness I was raised by a young woman of my own class. She was a neighbour, and whenever I took my solitary walk with my *Wolffius* in my pocket, she usually came to the door, and by a smile or a short question put in the friendliest manner endeavoured to solicit my attention. My heart had been long shut to kindness, but the sentiment was not dead in me; it revived at the first encouraging word, and the gratitude I felt for it was the first pleasing sensation I had ventured to entertain for many dreary months. Together with gratitude, hope, and other passions still more enlivening, took place of that uncomfortable gloominess which so lately possessed me: I returned to my companions, and by every winning art



in my power strove to make them forget my former repulsive ways. In this I was not unsuccessful; I recovered their good will, and came by degrees to be somewhat a favourite. My master still murmured, for the business of the shop went on no better than before; I comforted myself, however, with the reflection that my apprenticeship was drawing to a conclusion, when I determined to renounce the employment for ever and to open a private school.

"In this humble and obscure state, poor beyond the common lot, yet flattering my ambition with day-dreams, which, perhaps, would never have been realized, I was found in the twentieth year of my age by Mr. William Cookesley, a name never to be pronounced by me without veneration. The lamentable doggerel which I have already mentioned, and which had passed from mouth to mouth among people of my own degree, had by some accident or other reached his ear, and gave him a curiosity to enquire after the author. It was my good fortune to interest his benevolence. My little history was not untinged with melancholy, and I laid it fairly before him: his first care was to console, his second, which he cherished to the last moment of his existence, was to relieve and support me.

"Mr. Cookesley was not rich: his eminence in his profession, which was that of a surgeon, procured him indeed much employment, but in a country town men of science are not the most liberally rewarded; he had, besides, a very numerous family, which left him little for the purposes of general benevolence; that little, however, was cheerfully bestowed, and his activity and zeal were always at hand to supply the deficiencies of his fortune.

"On examining into the nature of my literary attainments, he found them absolutely nothing; he heard, however, with equal surprise and pleasure, that amidst the grossest ignorance of books I had made a very considerable progress in the mathematics. He engaged me to enter into the details of this affair; and when he had learned that I had made it in circumstances of discouragement and danger he became more warmly interested in my favour as he now saw a possibility of serving me. The plan that occurred to him was naturally that which had so often suggested itself to me. There were, indeed, several obstacles to be overcome; I had eighteen months yet to serve, my hand-writing was bad, and my language very incorrect; but nothing could slacken the zeal of this excellent man; he procured a few of my poor attempts at rhyme, dispersed them amongst his friends and acquaintance, and when my name was become somewhat familiar to them, set on foot a subscription for my relief. I still preserve the original paper; its title was not very magnificent though it exceeded the most sanguine wishes of my heart, it ran thus,—"A subscription for purchasing the remainder of the time of William Gifford, and for enabling him to improve himself in writing and English grammar." Few contributed more than five shillings, and none went beyond ten and sixpence; enough, however, was collected to free me from my apprenticeship (the sum my master received was six pounds), and to maintain me for a few months, during which I assiduously attended the Rev. Thomas Smerdon.

"At the expiration of this period I found that my progress (for I will speak the truth in modesty) had been more considerable than my patrons expected;

I had also written in the interim several little pieces of poetry, less rugged I suppose than my former ones, and certainly with fewer anomalies of language; my preceptor too spoke favourably of me, and my benefactor, who was now become my father and my friend, had little difficulty in persuading my patrons to renew their donations and continue me at school for another year. Such liberality was not lost upon me; I grew anxious to make the best return in my power, and I redoubled my diligence. Now, that I am sunk in indolence, I look back with some degree of scepticism to the exertions of that period. In two years and two months from the day of my emancipation I was pronounced by Mr. Smerdon fit for the university. The plan of opening a writing-school had been abandoned almost from the first, and Mr. Cookesley looked round for some one who had interest enough to procure me some little office at Oxford. This person, who was soon found, was Thomas Taylor, Esq., of Denbury, a gentleman to whom I had already been indebted for much liberal and friendly support. He procured me the place of Bib. Lect. at Exeter College, and this, with such occasional assistance from the country as Mr. Cookesley undertook to provide, was thought sufficient to enable me to live, at least, till I had taken a degree.

"During my attendance on Mr. Smerdon I had written, as I observed before, several tuneful trifles, some as exercises, others voluntarily, (for poetry was now become my delight,) and not a few at the desire of my friends. When I became capable, however, of reading Latin and Greek with some degree of facility that gentleman employed all my leisure hours in translations from the classics; and indeed I do not know a single school-book of which I did not render some portion into English verse. Among others "Juvenal" engaged my attention, or rather my master's, and I translated the tenth satire for a holiday task. Mr. Smerdon was much pleased with this, (I was not undelighted with it myself,) and as I was now become fond of the author, he easily persuaded me to proceed with him, and I translated in succession, the third, the fourth, the twelfth, and I think the eighth satires. As I had no end in view but that of giving a temporary satisfaction to my benefactors, I thought little more of these than of many other things of the same nature, which I wrote from time to time, and of which I never copied a single line.

"On my removing to Exeter College, however, my friend, ever attentive to my concerns, advised me to copy my translation of the tenth satire, and present it on my arrival to the Rev. Dr. Stinton (afterwards rector), to whom Mr. Taylor had given me an introductory letter: I did so, and it was kindly received. Thus encouraged, I took up the first and second satires (I mention them in the order in which they were translated), when my friend, who had sedulously watched my progress, first started the idea of my going through the whole, and publishing it by subscription, as a means of increasing my means of subsistence. To this I readily acceded, and finished the thirteenth, eleventh, and fifteenth satires; the remainder were the work of a much later period.

"When I had got thus far we thought it a fit time to mention our design: it was very generally approved of by my friends; and on the 1st of January, 1781, the subscription was opened by Mr. Cookesley

at Ashburton, and by myself at Exeter College. So bold an undertaking, so precipitately announced, will give the reader, I fear, a higher opinion of my conceit than of my talents; neither the one nor the other, however, had the smallest concern with the business, which originated solely in ignorance; I wrote verses with great facility, and I was simple enough to imagine that little more was necessary for a translator of Juvenal! I was not, indeed, unconscious of my inaccuracies: I knew that they were numerous, and that I had need of some friendly eye to point them out, and some judicious hand to rectify or remove them; but for these, as well as for every thing else, I looked to Mr. Cookesley, and that worthy man, with his usual alacrity and kindness, undertook the laborious task of revising the whole translation. My friend was no great Latinist, perhaps I was the better of the two, but he had taste and judgment which I wanted. What advantages might have been ultimately derived from them there was unhappily no opportunity of ascertaining, as it pleased the Almighty to call him to himself by a sudden death before we had quite finished the first satire. He died with a letter of mine unopened in his hands.

"This event, which took place on the 15th of January 1781, afflicted me beyond measure. I was not only deprived of a most faithful and affectionate friend, but of a zealous and ever-active protector, on whom I confidently relied for support; the sums that were still necessary for me he always collected; and it was to be feared that the assistance which was not solicited with warmth would insensibly cease to be afforded. In many instances this was actually the case; the desertion, however, was not general, and I was encouraged to hope by the unexpected friendship of Servington Savery, a gentleman who voluntarily stood forth as my patron, and watched over my interests with kindness and attention. Some time before Mr. Cookesley's death we had agreed that it would be proper to deliver out with the terms of the subscription a specimen of the manner in which the translation was executed. To obviate any idea of selection a sheet was accordingly taken from the beginning of the first satire. My friend died while it was in the press.

"After a few melancholy weeks I resumed the translation, but found myself utterly incapable of proceeding. I had been so accustomed to connect Mr. Cookesley's name with every part of it, and I laboured with such delight in the hope of giving him pleasure, that now, when he appeared to have left me in the midst of my enterprise, and I was abandoned to my own efforts, I seemed to be engaged in a hopeless struggle without motive or end; and this idea, which was perpetually recurring to me, brought such bitter anguish with it that I shut up the work with feelings bordering on distraction. To relieve my mind I had recourse to other pursuits. I endeavoured to become more intimately acquainted with the classics, and to acquire some of the modern languages: by permission, too, or rather recommendation, of the rector and fellows, I also undertook the care of a few pupils: this removed much of my anxiety respecting my future means of support. I have a heartfelt pleasure in mentioning this indulgence of my college; it could arise from nothing but the liberal desire inherent, I think, in the members of both our universities, to encourage

every thing that bears the most distant resemblance to talents, for I had no claims on them from any particular exertions.

"The lapse of many months had now soothed and tranquillized my mind, and I once more returned to the translation, to which a wish to serve a young man surrounded with difficulties had induced a number of respectable characters to set their names; but, alas, what a mortification! I now discovered, for the first time, that my own inexperience, and the advice of my too, too partial friend, had engaged me in a work, for the due execution of which my literary attainments were by no means sufficient. Errors and misconceptions appeared in every page. I had, indeed, caught something of the spirit of Juvenal, but his meaning had frequently escaped me, and I saw the necessity of a long and painful revision, which would carry me far beyond the period fixed for the appearance of the work. Alarmed at the prospect, I instantly resolved (if not wisely, yet I trust honestly) to renounce the publication for the present. In pursuance of this resolution, I wrote to my friend in the country (the Rev. Servington Savery), requesting him to return the subscription money in his hands to the subscribers. He did not approve of my plan; nevertheless he promised, in a letter which now lies before me, to comply with it; and, in a subsequent one, added that he had already begun to do so. For myself, I also made several repayments; and trusted a sum of money to make others with a fellow collegian, who not long after fell by his own hands in the presence of his father. But there were still some whose abode could not be discovered, and others on whom to press the taking back of eight shillings would neither be decent nor respectful; even from these I ventured to flatter myself that I should find pardon, when on some future day I presented them with the work (which I was still secretly determined to complete) rendered more worthy patronage, and increased by notes, which I now perceive to be absolutely necessary to more than double its proposed size. In the leisure of a country residence I fancied this might be done in two years; perhaps I was not too sanguine: the experiment, however, was not made, for about this time a circumstance happened which changed my views, and indeed my whole system of life.

"I had contracted an acquaintance with a person of the name of —, recommended to my particular notice by a gentleman of Devonshire, whom I was proud of an opportunity to oblige. This person's residence at Oxford was not long, and when he returned to town I maintained a correspondence with him by letters. At his particular request, these were inclosed in a cover, and sent to Lord Grosvenor. One day I inadvertently omitted the direction, and his lordship, necessarily supposing it to be meant for himself, opened and read it. There was something in it which attracted his notice; and when he gave the letter to my friend, he had the curiosity to inquire about his correspondent at Oxford; and, upon the answer he received, had the kindness to desire he might be brought to see him on his coming to town: to this circumstance, purely accidental on all sides, and to this alone, I owe my introduction to this nobleman.

"On my first visit he asked me what friends I had, and what were my prospects in life; and I told him that I had no friends and no prospects of any



kind. He said no more; but when I called to take leave, previous to returning to college, I found that this simple exposure of my circumstances had sunk deep into his mind. At parting he informed me that he charged himself with my present support and future establishment, and that till this last could be effected to my wish I should come and reside with him. These were not words of course; they were more than fulfilled in every point. I did go and reside with him, and I experienced a warm and cordial reception, a kind and affectionate esteem that has known neither diminution nor interruption from that hour to this, a period of twenty years!"

Our space will not permit us to conclude this highly interesting narrative in the language of its author, and it may be enough to state, that at the time of its publication he had attained comparative affluence. "The Baviad" and "Mæviad" created the most intense interest in the literary world. The former of those works was aimed at a tribe of poetasters, whose origin are thus described in his preface:—

"In 1785 a few English of both sexes, whom chance had jumbled together at Florence, took a fancy to while away their time in scribbling high panegyrics on themselves and complimentary canzonettas on two or three Italians, who understood too little of the language to be disgusted with them. In this there was not much harm; but, as folly is progressive, they soon wrought themselves into an opinion that they really deserved the fine things which were mutually said and sung of each other. About the same period a daily paper, called 'The World,' was in fashion, and much read. This paper was equally lavish of its praise and abuse, and its conductors took upon themselves to direct the taste of the town by prefixing a short panegyric to every trifle that appeared in their own columns. The first cargo of Della Cruscan poetry was given to the public through the medium of this paper. There was a specious brilliancy in these exotics which dazzled the native grubs, who had scarce ever ventured beyond a sheep, and a crook, and a rose-tree grove, with an ostentatious display of 'blue hills,' and 'crashing torrents,' and 'petrifying suns.' From admiration to imitation is but a step. Honest Yenda tried his hand at a descriptive ode, and succeeded beyond his hopes; Anna Matilda followed.

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"While the epidemic malady was spreading from fool to fool, Della Crusca came over and immediately announced himself by a sonnet to love. Anna Matilda answered it; and the 'two great luminaries of the age,' as Mr. Bell calls them, fell desperately in love with each other. From that period not a day passed without an amatory epistle fraught with thunder, lightning, *et quicquid habent telorum armamentaria cæli*. The fever turned to frenzy; Laura-Maria, Carlos, Orlando, Adelaide, and a thousand other nameless names, caught the infection, and from one end of the kingdom to another all was nonsense and Della Crusca. Even then I waited with a patience which I can better account for than excuse, for some one (abler than myself) to step forth to correct this depravity of the public taste, and check the inundation of absurdity that was bursting upon us from a thousand springs. As no one appeared, and as the evil grew every day more alarming (for now bed-ridden old women and girls at

their sampler began to rave), I determined, without much confidence of success, to try what could be effected by my feeble powers; and accordingly wrote the following poem."

Mr. Gifford's literary and political celebrity acquired him the editorship of the "Anti-Jacobin Review." It was, however, as the editor of "The Quarterly" that he was most generally known. On its establishment in 1809 he was appointed to conduct it; and it remained under his direction until about two years before his decease. Of the unwearied industry, extensive knowledge, and varied talent, exhibited by Mr. Gifford in the management of this excellent and popular publication, during the long course of between fifteen and sixteen years, it is wholly unnecessary to speak. At times his pen was at least sufficiently severe; but it merits observation, that none of the various parties, poetical, religious, or political, that occasionally felt the castigation bestowed upon their productions in the "Quarterly Review," ever ventured to recriminate by attacking the moral character of that editor.

It is, however, no less true, that many young and promising authors suffered in their literary reputation for their political views, of which Keats and Hazlitt may be quoted as striking examples.

Mr. Gifford also edited the works of several of the earlier dramatic writers, and he successfully employed himself till the time of his death in similar pursuits. This occurred on the 31st of December 1826, and he was interred in Westminster Abbey.

GILBERT, SIR HUMPHREY, a distinguished English navigator, who was born in 1539, and his mother soon after becoming a widow, married Mr. Raleigh, and became the mother of the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh. Having completed his education, he adopted the military profession, and served with great distinction on several occasions. He was afterwards sent over to Ireland to assist in suppressing a rebellion, and for his signal services he was made commander in chief and governor of Munster, and knighted by the lord-deputy in 1570. He returned soon after to England, where he married a rich heiress. In 1572 he sailed with a squadron of nine ships to re-inforce Colonel Morgan, who at that time meditated the recovery of Flushing; and when he came home he published his "Discourse to Prove a Passage by the North-west to Cathaia, and the East Indies." This treatise, which is a masterly performance, is preserved in "Hakluyt's Voyages." The style is superior to most writers of that age and shows the author to have been a man of considerable reading. In 1578 Sir Humphrey obtained from the queen a very ample patent, empowering him to discover and possess in North America any lands then unsettled. He accordingly sailed to Newfoundland, but soon returned to England without success; yet, in 1583, he embarked a second time with five ships, and landing at Newfoundland, he took possession of the harbour of St. John's. By virtue of his patent he granted leases to several families, but though none of them remained there at that time, they settled afterwards in consequence of these leases, so that Sir Humphrey deserves to be remembered as the real founder of our American possessions. His half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, was a joint adventurer on this expedition. On the 20th August, 1583, Sir Humphrey put to sea again, on board of a small sloop, for the purpose of exploring the coast. After this he



steered homeward, and on the 9th of September, 1583, his small bark foundered at sea and all on board perished.

GILBERT, SIR JEFFREY, an English judge and law writer, who was born in Devonshire in 1674. In 1714 he was appointed one of the judges of the court of king's bench in Ireland, and shortly after was promoted to the dignity of chief baron of the exchequer in that kingdom, which office he held till the beginning of 1722, when he was recalled. During his residence there he was engaged in a contest respecting the ultimate judicial tribunal to which the inhabitants were to resort, which was disputed between the English House of Lords and the Irish House of Lords; and he appears to have been taken into custody by the order of the latter for having enforced an order of the English house in the case of *Annesley versus Sherlock*, "contrary to the final judgment and determination of that house." That shortly after a tender was made to him of the great seal, which he declining, returned to England. Here he was first called to the degree of an English serjeant at law, preparatory, according to ancient usage, to his taking his seat as one of the barons of the exchequer, in which he succeeded Sir James Montague, in June, 1722. Having remained in that station three years he was in 1724 appointed one of the commissioners of the great seal. The great seal continued in commission till June 1725, when Sir Peter King was constituted lord keeper, and on the same day Sir Jeffrey Gilbert became lord chief baron of the exchequer, which office he filled until his death, which took place in October, 1726. He was the author of several valuable judicial works.

GILBERT, WILLIAM, a learned physician and experimental philosopher, who was born in 1540 at Colchester in Essex, of which borough his father was recorder. Having completed his education, and taken his degree of M.D. at a foreign university, he returned to England, and was chosen fellow of the College of Physicians. Shortly after he was appointed physician in ordinary to Queen Elizabeth, who gave him in addition an annual pension. He was continued in his post by James I., but died shortly after the accession of that monarch. He has perpetuated his name by a work entitled "*De Magnete*." It contained the history of all that had been previously written on the subject of magnetical bodies, and is a highly interesting work.

GILCHRIST, OCTAVIUS, a well-known literary character, who was born at Twickenham in 1779, and was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford. The principal productions of this author are an "*Examination of the Assertions of Ben Jonson's Enmity to Shakspeare*," and an edition of the poems of Bishop Corbet with notes, and a life of the author. Mr. Gilchrist died in June 1823.

GILCHRIST, DR. EBENEZER, an eminent Scottish physician, who was born at Dumfries in 1707. He began the study of medicine at Edinburgh, which he afterwards prosecuted at London and Paris. He obtained the degree of doctor of medicine from the university of Rheims; and in the year 1732 he returned to the place of his birth, where he afterwards constantly resided, and continued the practice of medicine till his death. It may with justice be said, that few physicians of the present century exercised their profession more successfully than Dr. Gilchrist, and few have contributed more to the im-

provement of the healing art. Several of the improvements which he introduced have procured him great and deserved reputation both at home and abroad; and his practice, in ordinary cases, placed him high in the confidence and esteem of his friends. The works of Dr. Gilchrist which are most admired are his two dissertations on Nervous Fevers, in the Medical Essays and Observations published by a society in Edinburgh; and a treatise on the Use of Sea-voyages in Medicine, which first made its appearance in the year 1757, and was afterwards reprinted in 1771. His treatise on sea-voyages points out their utility in various complaints, particularly in consumptions. Dr. Gilchrist died in 1774.

GILDAS, surnamed the Wise, a British historian, who was born in Wales in the year 511. Where he was educated is uncertain but it appears from his own writings that he was a monk. Some writers say that he went over to Ireland; others that he visited France and Italy. They all, however, agree in asserting that after his return to England he became a celebrated and most assiduous preacher of the gospel. Gildas is the only British author of the sixth century whose works are printed; they are therefore valuable on account of their antiquity, and as containing the only information we have concerning the times of which he wrote. His "*History of Britain*" is, however, a very unsatisfactory performance, and his style obscure and inelegant. He died in the monastery of Glastonbury in 570.

GILL, JOHN, a Protestant dissenting divine, who was born in 1697 at Kettering in Northamptonshire. He was particularly distinguished for learning, and at the early age of nineteen became pastor of a congregation in his native town. Shortly after he removed to Higham Ferrers, from which he was, in 1719, invited to come to London to superintend a congregation at Horsleydown, where he remained for nearly fifty years. He was the author of a most laborious commentary, in nine volumes, entitled an "*Exposition of the Bible*." This work procured him the honorary degree of doctor of divinity from the University of Aberdeen. In addition to this he was also the author of several other highly interesting theological works. Dr. Gill died in October 1771.

GILLIES, JOHN, a learned Scottish historian, who was born in 1750 at Brechin in Forfarshire. He was educated at the University of Glasgow, and afterwards became tutor to one of the sons of the earl of Hopetown, with whom he travelled for several years on the continent. On his return to England he settled in London, and having distinguished himself by his writings, he received the diploma of LL.D., and was chosen fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian societies; in addition to which he was appointed historiographer to his majesty for Scotland. Dr. Gillies died in 1824. Among the most celebrated of his works we may enumerate his "*History of Greece*," "*History of the World from the Age of Alexander to that of Augustus*," a "*View of the Reign of Frederic II. of Prussia, with a Parallel between that Prince and Philip of Macedon*." In addition to which he published the "*Orations of Lysias and Isocrates translated from the Greek, and Aristotle's Ethics and Politics from the Greek, with Notes*," and an "*Analysis of his Speculative Works*," also a "*Supplement to the Analysis of Aristotle's Speculative Works*."

GILPIN, BERNARD, a celebrated reformer, who



was many years rector of Houghton, and distinguished by his extraordinary piety and hospitality. He was descended from an ancient and honourable family in Westmoreland, and born in 1517. As he was educated in the Catholic religion, so he for some time defended it against the reformers, and at Oxford held a disputation with Hooper afterwards bishop of Worcester, but was staggered in another disputation with Peter Martyr, and began seriously to examine the contested points by the best authorities. Being presented to the vicarage of Norton in the diocese of Durham, he afterwards resigned it and went abroad to consult eminent professors on both sides; and after three years absence returned a little before the death of Queen Mary, satisfied of the truth of the general doctrines of the reformation. He was kindly received by his uncle Dr. Tostall, bishop of Durham, who soon after gave him the archdeaconry of Durham, to which the rectory of Easington was annexed. When repairing to his parish, though the persecution was then at its height, he boldly preached against the vices and corruptions of the times, especially in the clergy, on which a charge was drawn up against him, and presented in form to the bishop. But Dr. Tostall dismissed the cause and soon after presented him to the rich living of Houghton-le-spring. He was a second time accused to the bishop, and again protected; when his enemies, enraged at this second defeat, laid their complaint before Bonner, bishop of London, who immediately gave orders to apprehend him. Upon which Mr. Gilpin prepared his defence and set out for London. Luckily, however, he broke his leg on the journey, which protracted his arrival until the news of the queen's death freed him from all further apprehensions.

His hospitable manner of living was the admiration of the whole country. Every Sunday from Michaelmas till Easter was a sort of public day with him. During this season he expected to see all his parishioners and their families. For their reception, he had three tables well covered; the first was for gentlemen, the second for husbandmen and farmers, and the third for day-labourers. Even when he was absent from home no alteration was made in his family-expences; the poor were fed as usual, and his neighbours entertained.

But notwithstanding Mr. Gilpin's industry, and the scope it had in so extended a parish, he was induced to supply, as far as he could, what was wanting in others. For this purpose, every year he used regularly to visit the most neglected parishes in Northumberland, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland; and that his own parish might not suffer, he was at the expence of a well informed assistant. In each place he staid two or three days; and his method was to call the people about him, and lay before them in as plain a way as possible the danger of leading wicked or even careless lives,—explaining to them the nature of true religion,—instructing them in the duties they owed to God, their neighbour, and themselves, and showing them how greatly a moral and religious conduct would contribute to their present as well as future happiness.

Mr. Gilpin died, deeply regretted, in 1583, in the sixty-sixth year of his age.

GILPIN, WILLIAM, a writer of considerable celebrity, who was born at Carlisle in 1724, and received his education at Queen's College, Oxford, where he

took his degree of M.A. in 1748. After having for many years kept a grammar school at Cheam in Surrey, he at length obtained the vicarage of Boddle in the New Forest, Hampshire, where he died in 1804. He was the author of several works on theology and ecclesiastical biography, which were all well received by the public; but his literary reputation is principally founded on his picturesque tours through various parts of the kingdom. His principal works are entitled "Lectures on the Catechism of the Church of England," "The Lives of John Wicliffe, &c.," "Remarks on Forest Scenery," "Observations relative to Picturesque Beauty made in 1772, on Several Parts of England, particularly the Mountains and Lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland," and "Observations relative to Picturesque Beauty made in 1776, on Several Parts of Great Britain, particularly the Highlands of Scotland."

GINGUENE, PETER LOUIS, was born at Rennes in Brittany in 1748. He early acquired the ancient and living languages with great facility, and discovered much taste for painting, poetry, and music. At Paris he was obliged to divide his time between labours in one of the Bureaux du Contrôle Général and his studies. His punctuality and skill in the duties of his office, and free and elegant penmanship, acquired him the esteem of his employers; and an anonymous poem, "Confession de Zulme," inserted in the "Almanac des Muses," gained him much reputation. He studied the foundation of the French language in the old grammarians and poets, especially in Rabelais and Malherbe. Both writers were his favourites, especially the last. In the contest between the musical partisans of Gluck and Piccini he took the side of Piccini and the Italian music the more zealously as he was Piccini's particular friend. In his notice, however, of the life and works of Nicholas Piccini, published in Paris in 1800, notwithstanding all his predilection for Piccini, he recognized Gluck as a man of taste and science. A poem upon the death of Prince Leopold of Brunswick, and a eulogy upon Louis XII., were rewarded with prizes by the academy, and met everywhere with a favourable reception. His letters upon the confessions of Rousseau attracted much attention. By the rigid impartiality with which he examined his life he did more for his defence than would have been effected by the most laboured panegyric. The revolution in which he took an active part, as a friend of liberty, brought him into a wider circle of literary and official labour. Without neglecting his studies, to which belonged his contributions to the "Moniteur" and the "Mercure de France," his labours upon the "Dictionnaire de Musique," in company with Framery, as a part of the "Encyclopédie Méthodique," and his contributions to a "Nouvelle Grammaire Raisonnée," he associated himself with the more moderate and judicious writers upon the affairs of the times, by his share in the "Feuille Villageoise," and also by commencing and editing, from 1794 to 1807, the "Décade Philosophique Littéraire et Politique." The "Décade" neither sounded the trumpet for Robespierre in the commencement, nor for Bonaparte afterwards, and was one of the few journals kept up through the whole revolution without loss of reputation.

He was not less industrious in the duties of his office as director-general of the public schools, and, after resigning this office in February 1798, as am-



bassador to the court of Turin. On his return he became a member of the tribunate. But as he esteemed it his duty to oppose some of the regulations of the government, he was one of the tribunes rejected by the senate in 1802. He then commenced the valuable work to which he is chiefly indebted for his fame—his “*Histoire Littéraire d’Italie*.” Tiraboschi, in his enquiries, had in view rather the particulars than the general subject; Ginguené, on the other hand, endeavoured to illustrate the general course and history of Italian literature from the time of Constantine to the eighteenth century. He draws from the best sources, and writes generally without prejudice. There is nothing splendid, either in the thoughts or style, but we are captivated by the unpretending strong sense which prevails in the whole work, by his striking characters of individuals, and by his noble language, notwithstanding a certain monotony. Besides his labours as a member of the institute, the sessions of which he regularly attended, he wrote many fables, chiefly after Italian models, translated Catullus’ Marriage of Thetis and Peleus into French verse, and contributed a good deal to the “*Biographie Universelle*,” and to the thirteenth and fourteenth volumes of the “*Histoire Littéraire de la France*.” A fortunate independence, happy domestic relations, and the respect of the best of his countrymen, shed happiness upon the evening of his life. He died at Paris on the 16th of November, 1816.

GIOJA, FLAVIO, by some called also Gira and Giri, a celebrated navigator, who was born in the vicinity of Amalfi at the end of the thirteenth century. He was long considered as having first applied the loadstone to the purposes of navigation, and therefore as the inventor of the compass. Later inquiries upon this subject have proved that European navigators of the twelfth century made use of the compass or magnetic needle. The merit therefore, of the navigator of Amalfi can only be that of having perfected what was already invented, which, however, is enough to entitle him to the gratitude of posterity. Till his time the needle was laid upon a couple of pieces of straws, or small split sticks, in a vessel of water, and thus pointed out the parts of the heavens; but this instrument must evidently have been unserviceable, except when the sea was still and the vessel without much motion. Gioja introduced the improvement of suspending the needle in such a manner that it will point north under all circumstances, and the importance of this fact may be inferred from this, that the whole nautical science assumed from this moment a new form, and the vessels, which before rarely left sight of the coast, now launched out upon the wide ocean. Thus Gioja may be considered the father of modern navigation, and posterity is indebted to him for the advantages it derives from it. His discovery has subsequently been much improved.

GIORDANO, LUKE, a painter, born at Naples in 1632. He was a scholar of Spagnoletto, went to Rome to study the great Italian masters, and became the pupil of Peter of Cortona, whom he assisted in his great works. Paul Veronese had afterwards a great influence on his manner. He imitated the greatest masters so well that even connoisseurs were imposed upon, and he acquired the name of *Luca fa presto* on account of the incredible celerity of his execution, or, more probably, because his father, from avarice, often urged him by this phrase to expedition. He was rich in invention, his colour-

ing was soft and harmonious, his pencil free and rapid, and he was well grounded in perspective. He was much employed at Naples after his return. In 1679 he was employed by Charles II. to ornament the Escorial; and as he was of an ardent temperament, and amused the court with his sallies of wit, the queen once expressed a wish to see his wife, and the painter executed a portrait of her on the spot, and showed it to the queen, who was so delighted with it that she took off her pearl necklace and sent it to the wife. The king once showed him a work by Bassano, and expressed much regret at not possessing the pendant. A few days after Giordano showed him a picture, which the king supposed to be by Bassano, and for a long time continued to do so till Giordano made himself known as the artist. Besides this picture, he also executed two other works in imitation of the style of that painter, which are in the Carthusian convent at Naples. There is also in the same convent a work in which he imitated the manner of the chevalier Maximo Stanzioni. After the death of Charles II. he returned to his native country, where he died in 1704. His most celebrated works are his frescoes in the Escorial at Madrid, Florence, and Rome.

GIORGIONE DI CASTELFRANCO was born in 1477 at Castelfranco in the Venetian territory, and was one of the most celebrated painters of the Venetian school. His master was Giovanni Bellini, who is said to have dismissed him from envy of his merits. In Venice he ornamented the façades of several large buildings, as was the fashion of that period, with frescoes, which have mostly perished. His portraits are reckoned among the finest of the Italian school; and in order to decide practically the dispute concerning the relative merits of the two imitative arts he painted, according to Vasari’s account, an undressed figure, of which the back was to the spectator, and the front represented as seen in a clear fountain. Upon a polished cuirass, which lay on one side, was the left profile, while the right was reflected from a mirror upon the opposite side, that he might show in this way that painting deserves the preference to sculpture since it can exhibit more parts of the body in a single view. At Milan, and in the galleries at Vienna and Dresden, some are still to be seen of his most celebrated works. He died in 1511.

GIOTTO.—This celebrated painter, and friend of Petrarch, was named Ambrogiotto Burdone. Being the son of a peasant in the Florentine village of Vespignano, he was employed in tending cattle; but having been once seen by Cimabue, as he was drawing figures of his sheep upon a piece of slate with a stone, the artist obtained leave from his father to take him with him, carried him to Florence, and taught him painting. His natural talent, and especially the gracefulness so peculiar to him, developed themselves so rapidly that he became a master in a short time and soon surpassed all contemporary artists. He represented human figures in his pieces with truth and nature and surpassed all others in the dignity of his figures, a pleasing arrangement of them, and a regard to correct proportions and natural disposition of the drapery. His figures have more life and freedom than those of his predecessor, Cimabue, as he particularly avoided the stiff style. Among his most celebrated works is the Navicella at Rome (a picture of Peter walking upon the waves, in Mosaic),



some fresco paintings at Florence, (the Crowning of the Holy Virgin, in the church of Santa Croce, and the Burial of the Virgin so much admired by Michael Angelo and Mengs,) also the History of St. Francis at Assisi, and several miniatures. This extraordinary man was equally successful as a statuary and architect. He died in 1336.

GIRARDON, FRANCIS, an eminent statuary and architect, who was born in 1628 at Troyes in Champagne, and was a pupil of Laurence Mazière. After he had completed his studies with Francis Anguier, he acquired such celebrity that Louis XIV. sent him to Rome, with a pension, to study the ancient and modern masters in the art, and on his return he ornamented the royal palaces with his works, both in marble and bronze. On Lebrun's death he obtained the office of overseer of all the works in statuary. His works are remarkable for purity of design and beauty of arrangement. The most celebrated are the following:—the splendid monument of Cardinal Richelieu, formerly in the church of the Sorbonne, afterwards in the museum of the Petits Augustins; the equestrian statue of Louis XIV., which was his masterpiece, and which was thrown down and broken to pieces on the 12th of August, 1792; the rape of Proserpine, in the garden of Versailles; and the masterly groups which ornament the Apollo baths also at Versailles. As he was too constantly occupied to work much himself on his marbles, he left this portion of the labour to artists, who, although respectable, had not the talents of their master. He died at Paris in 1715.

GIRODET, TRIOSON NICHOLAS, who was born in 1767 at Montargis, was one of the most original, versatile, and scientific of the modern school of French painters. A decided inclination to the ancient style and the fulness of statuary is very perceptible in his works; but they are also distinguished for life, nature, and beauty. His drawing is correct and of great precision; his colouring is rich, transparent, and harmonious. His Deluge is celebrated, and shows marks of the gigantic genius of Buonarroti. He painted Napoleon receiving the keys of Vienna. He painted in 1824 the full length portraits of the Vendean leaders, Bonchamp and Cathelineau, the first from a miniature, and the latter from the features of his son, who resembled him. His last great picture represents Saint Louis in Egypt. He died at Paris on the 9th of December, 1824.

GLANVIL, JOSEPH, a miscellaneous writer, who was born in April 1636, and was educated at Exeter College, Oxford, where he took the degree of M.A. in June 1658. Shortly after he entered into holy orders and became chaplain to Dr. Francis Rouse; but as his patron died soon after, he returned to Oxford, and pursued his studies there during the political struggle which then agitated the country. On the formation of the Royal Society after the Restoration, he was chosen one of the fellows, and distinguished himself as a zealous and an active, if not a very efficient, member of that body. In 1662 he obtained the vicarage of Frome in Somersetshire, which he shortly after exchanged for the rectory of the abbey church at Bath, where he continued to reside till his death, which took place in 1680. He was the author of a work entitled "Some Philosophical Considerations touching the Being of Witches and Witchcraft." This treatise is remarkable for the credulity displayed by its author.

BIOGRAPHY.—VOL. I.

GLANVIL, RANULPH DE, a very eminent English lawyer of the twelfth century. He also figured as a warrior in the reign of Henry the Second. Glanvil contributed largely to the crusade of that period, and perished before Acre with Richard I. in 1190. His work "On the Laws and Customs of England" has been much quoted.

GLAREANUS, HENRY LORIS, so called because he was of Glaris in Switzerland, was born in 1488. He first taught music at Cologne, and afterwards at Bâle, Paris, and lastly at Friburg, where he died in 1563. His music-master was J. Cochlaeus, and his preceptor in literature the celebrated Erasmus, with whom he was united in the strictest friendship. Erasmus, in his letters, represents Glareanus as a man of profound and universal learning, joining to the knowledge of philosophy, theology, and mathematics, that of poetry, geography, and history. The emperor Maximilian I. gave him a crown of laurel and a ring, as a mark of his esteem for his person and poetry. It is known that the Swiss assembled at Zurich recompensed magnificently the "Panegyrique de l'Alliance des Cantons," which Glareanus put into verse. In 1547 his "Dodecachordon," in one volume, appeared at Bâle. This work, which has now become scarce, is of great importance, in as much as it shows the state of practical music about the year 1500, that is to say, at the epoch of the Flemish school. The author establishes the twelve tones of the ecclesiastical chant, and gives on each of them a choice of musical pieces, for two, three, four, and frequently more parts, selected from the chef-d'œuvres of the best masters of his time. In this work are to be found documents respecting many of the best composers. Choron has re-published much from this writer in his great work on music.

GLAUBER, JOHN RODOLPH, a celebrated chemist, who was born in Germany in the beginning of the sixteenth century. He travelled much in the pursuit of chemical knowledge, and his experiments contributed to throw much light on the science of chemistry. He did not always see the proper application of his own experiments, and vainly fancied that he had discovered the universal panacea and the philosopher's stone, which were at that time objects of pursuit; and the disappointment of many persons who had been seduced by his promises contributed to bring the science of chemistry into contempt. Glauber published about twenty treatises; in some of which he appears in the character of a physician, in others in that of a metallurgist; in the latter he most particularly excelled. However, it would be unjust not to give him the praise of acuteness of mind, and of extensive chemical knowledge. He was the inventor of a salt which to this day retains his name in the shops of our apothecaries. The works of Glauber have appeared in different languages; the majority of editions are in German, some in Latin, and others in French.

GLEICHEN, LOUIS, COUNT.—This nobleman sprang from a celebrated German family now extinct, and went on a crusade to Palestine, fought against, and was taken prisoner by, the Turks. The following story is related of him. One day, as the unfortunate man was at work on the road, the sultan's daughter saw him, and, moved by pity and love, offered him his freedom if he would fly with her and make her his wife. In vain did he plead



to her, that he had a wife and children at home. The princess, used only to the customs of her own country, saw no obstacle in that. They escaped and arrived by sea at Venice. The count here learned that his wife and children were yet living, and anxiously awaiting his return. He hastened to Rome, and after his sultana was baptized, he obtained permission from the pope to keep both his wives, with whom he lived thenceforth in happiness; and his first wife had the generosity to divide her husband's love with her, without whose help she would never again have seen his face. The count's monument, upon which he was represented with both his wives, was formerly to be seen in the Benedictine church upon the Petersberg at Erfurt, and is now at Gotha.

GLEIM, JOHN WILLIAM LOUIS, a German poet, who was born at Ermsleben, a small town in the principality of Halberstadt, in April 1719, where he was for many years secretary to the cathedral chapter, and at the same time canon of the chapter of Waldeck. In 1738 he went to the university of Halle, after having been maintained up to that time by charitable persons. In 1740 Gleim left the university, and after some time became secretary to Prince William, son of the margrave of Brandenburg-Schwedt. At this period he made the acquaintance of Kleist, another German poet, and became his intimate friend; the two poets are mentioned in German literature like two brothers. With Sulzer, Ramler, Graun, &c., they joined the party of Bosmer against that of Gottsched. The second Silesian war in 1744 separated the two friends; and Gleim, after many vicissitudes of fortune, was appointed secretary of the cathedral chapter of Halberstadt in 1747. Gleim corresponded with all the principal wits in Germany, and enjoyed the friendship of all. His correspondence is therefore very interesting. He acquired the greatest reputation by his martial songs, which appeared, under the name and in the character of an old grenadier, at the time when Frederic the Great filled all Europe with the fame of his achievements. He was buried in his garden in Halberstadt, and, according to his last will, some simple urns, with the names of his friends who died before him, are arranged around his own.

GLENDOWER, OWEN, sometimes called the Wallace of Wales.—The precise date of this celebrated prince's birth is uncertain, some fixing it in 1349, others in 1354. The place of his nativity was Trefgarn in Pembrokeshire, where he was born of Ellen, a lineal descendant from Catharine, daughter and heiress to Llewellyn, last prince of Wales. At an early age he was sent to London for education, and entering himself of one of the inns of court, studied for the English bar, but relinquished the profession on being appointed scutiger to Richard II. Jolo Goch, a contemporary bard, gives a splendid description of his family mansion or rather palace; and indeed he appears at this time to have exercised considerable feudal influence, carrying on with great spirit a contest of some duration with Reginald, Lord Grey de Ruthyn, respecting an estate called Croesau, in which he was for a time successful; but on the deposition of his royal patron by Henry of Bolingbroke, his old antagonist took advantage of the unsettled state of the country to renew his usurpation. Nor did his evil practices end there; for Grey, being charged with the delivery of a summons

to Owen, from the new king to attend him on his Scotch expedition, purposely neglected to deliver it. Glendower was in consequence outlawed for disaffection; his enemy seized upon all his lands, and the parliament treated his remonstrances with neglect. Glendower, forcibly dispossessed Grey of his lands, and having succeeded in raising a considerable force, caused himself to be proclaimed prince of Wales in September 1400. To this measure he is said to have been incited by some traditionary prophecies of Merlin; and certain it is that many of his countrymen of consideration were induced by the same motives to join his standard. He defeated the king's troops under Sir Edward Mortimer, and Henry put in motion against him three grand divisions of his army; but Owen, retiring to the mountains foiled all attempts to bring him to action; and the rebellion of the Percys breaking out he joined the coalition, causing himself at the same time to be formally crowned at Machynlaeth in Montgomeryshire, "sovereign of Wales." The rashness of Henry Percy brought on the fatal battle of Shrewsbury before all his Welsh auxiliaries had come up. Their prince, however, is said to have been so near as to have reconnoitred the action from the top of a lofty tree; but, seeing all was lost, directly retreated and continued his marauding warfare. This he kept up with various degrees of success, occasionally assisted by Charles VI. of France, with whom a treaty of his is yet extant, dated 1404, in which he is styled "Owenus, Dei Gratiâ Princeps Walliæ." Finding it impossible to subdue him, Henry in 1415 condescended to treat with him; but Owen died during the negotiation, which was, however, continued and ratified by his son Meredyd ap Owen, on the 24th of February, 1416.

GLOVER, RICHARD, an eminent English poet, who was born in London in 1712, and was educated at a private school at Cheam, in the county of Surrey. At the age of sixteen he wrote a poem of considerable merit to the memory of Sir Isaac Newton, which was well received by the public, but as his father intended his son to follow the mercantile profession, Richard Glover early in life engaged in the Hamburg trade. This, however, did not prevent his devoting a considerable portion of his time to literature, and he was considered one of the best and most accurate Greek scholars of his day. In 1737 he published a poem entitled "Leonidas," which was dedicated to Lord Cobham, and in the following year it passed through three editions. In 1744 he was nominated in the will of the duchess of Marlborough to write the duke's life, in conjunction with Mallet. Her grace bequeathed 500*l.* to each on this condition, but Glover immediately renounced his share. His rejection of this legacy is the more honourable, as at this time his affairs became much embarrassed. In 1753 Mr. Glover produced the tragedy of "Boadicea," which was performed at Drury Lane Theatre. On the accession of George III. Mr. Glover was chosen member of parliament for Weymouth, and made a considerable figure in the many debates to which the confused state of affairs in India gave rise. In 1772 we find him an intelligent and active agent in adjusting the affairs of the bank of Douglas, Heron, and Company, of Scotland, which failed about that time; and on other occasions, where the mercantile interests of London were concerned, he distinguished himself,



not only by his eloquence, but by that general knowledge of commerce which inclines to enlarged and liberal measures. In 1775 the West India merchants testified the sense they entertained of his services in their affairs by voting him a piece of plate of the value of 300*l*. The speech which he delivered in the House of Commons, on the application of these merchants, was afterwards printed, and appears to have been the last of his public services. In 1770 he republished his "*Leonidas*" in two volumes, being extended from nine books to twelve; and the attention now bestowed on it recalling his youthful ideas, strengthened by time and observation, probably suggested "*The Athenaid*," which, however, he did not live to publish. Soon after 1775 he retired from public business, but kept up an intimacy with many of the most eminent scholars of the day, by whom he was highly respected. After experiencing for some time the infirmities of age, he departed this life, November 25, 1785.

GLUCK, THE CHEVALIER CHRISTOPHER.

—This musical composer, to whom the opera is indebted for its greatest splendour and dramatic perfection, sprung from a respectable family in the palatinate of Bavaria, where he was born in the village of Weissenwangen, on the Bohemian border, in the year 1714. From his earliest youth he devoted himself to the study of music, and discovered talents of a high order; but it was not till after his fortieth year that he gave his immortal masterpieces to the world. Gluck studied the elements of music in Prague, was singer in a choir of that city, and soon became a skilful performer on several instruments. In 1738 he visited Italy, and studied composition under San Martini. His first opera, "*Artaxerxes*," was written and performed in Milan, and another, entitled "*Demetrius in Venice*," in 1742. A third, called "*The Fall of the Giants*," he composed for the Italian Opera in London, to which he came in the year 1745. During his residence here the society of Doctor Arne and his wife had a great influence on the simplicity of his productions.

This period was the most fruitful in respect to the number of his works. In the space of eighteen years he composed about forty-five operas, but none of these as yet exhibited that power and depth which he was to unfold in his later efforts. Gluck had hitherto followed the then fashionable style and taste of the Italian opera, but he was sensible of its defects, and felt how little his music, as a whole, could lay claim to real dramatic merit. The chief obstacle to the attainment of true dramatic perfection by the composer was the empty and disconnected character of the poetry. It was not till accident made him acquainted with a man, who had the boldness and energy to strike out an independent path in the poetical department, that Gluck was enabled to do the same in the musical. This man was the Florentine Ranieri di Calsabigi, with whom Gluck became acquainted in Vienna, and who furnished him with a series of texts, in which the unity of the whole and the necessary connexion of the different parts contrasted strongly with the loose, disconnected airs, duets, and dialogues of former works, in which no attention had been paid to dramatic unity, but every thing was sacrificed to momentary effect, or to the vanity of a singer who was anxious to shine in particular scenes and airs at the expense of the whole. The operas, "*Alceste*," "*Orpheus*," and

"*Helena and Paris*," which Gluck composed in Vienna between the years 1762 and 1769, and which were there published, produced an overwhelming effect by their boldness and originality, and served, together with the later ones, "*Armida*" and the two "*Iphigenias*," to establish the fame of their author. Even in Italy, where the taste of the people had long been perverted, the severe and lofty muse of the German artist was received with enthusiasm, and the theatres of Rome, Parma, Naples, Milan, and Venice, hastened to give his "*Helen and Orpheus*." "*Alceste*" was not at that time attempted in Italy, as Gluck himself says, on account of the difficulty of the execution. So popular were these operas that the theatre in Bologna alone took 900,000 lire in one winter, and by one play.

Still greater was the triumph of the later works. Durollet, who during his residence in Vienna had become acquainted with Gluck, undertook to convert Racine's "*Iphigenia*" into an opera, and offered his friend the text for composition, an offer which Gluck more readily accepted as he was impressed with the idea that the French language was better adapted to the expression of strong, deep, and manly feeling, even in music, than the Italian—an opinion which, as far as it regarded music, was directly contrary to Rousseau's, and which, notwithstanding the popularity of Gluck's music on the French stage, time has not confirmed. With a degree of care, which he had never before given, Gluck now began his task. Instead of the two or three weeks which he had formerly occupied in the composition of an opera, a whole year was given to the completion of the masterpiece which he designed for Paris. But here the German artist met with almost insuperable obstacles, thrown in his way by national vanity and deep rooted prejudice. As soon as it was known that a work of his pen was to be offered to the great Parisian opera, the whole host of professional musicians and amateurs exclaimed against it; and he would never have attained his object had not his former pupil and present patroness, the queen Maria Antoinette, commanded his piece to be received.

In the beginning of the year 1774 Gluck himself, now sixty years of age, arrived in Paris; and at length, on the 19th April in that year the long promised opera was represented for the first time. The house was filled to overflowing with spectators from all classes, and the impression which the whole produced was immense. At the very outset (a thing unparalleled in the musical annals of France), the overture was encored, and with each part the enthusiasm increased. In the two first years this piece was performed 170 times. Soon after the "*Orpheus*," the words of which were translated into French, was brought upon the stage, and received with equal applause. Two other operas, "*L'Arbre Enchanté*" and "*La Cythère Assiégée*," which were performed in the following year, were unsuccessful. Not so, however, the celebrated "*Alceste*," in which, as in the choruses of furies in "*Orpheus*," the hearer seems to be surrounded with the horrors of Tartarus. "*Armida*," which was produced in 1777, met with still greater applause; though formerly, when represented with Lully's effeminate music, it had not been popular. This great opera was repeated thirty times in succession, and the reputation which it procured its author was only exceeded by that of his two last great masterpieces,



"Iphigenia in Tauris," and "Echo and Narcissus." Two other operas, "Roland" and the "Danaides," were not completed. Gluck threw the rough sketch of the former into the fire, having heard that his rival in music, Piccini, had undertaken to compose the same subject; and death prevented the completion of the latter. In 1787 Gluck returned to Germany with a large fortune, and died in Vienna on the 15th of November in the same year. We must here notice the contest that arose between the admirers of Gluck, whose compositions, by their high and finished style, produced a reformation in the music of France, and the followers of the old Italian and French school, at whose head stood Piccini, unquestionably a man of great genius. All Paris took sides; and for a long time the Gluckists and Piccinists contended with the same bitterness as did formerly the Jansenists and Jesuits, and more lately the Royalists and Jacobins. Gluck and Piccini themselves—to their honour be it said—shared this feeling but for a short time; and in consequence of the mutual esteem which, notwithstanding the difference of their opinions, they could not but entertain for each other, had long become reconciled, while their blind disciples still maintained the warfare. It ought to be mentioned, that in this musical contest J. J. Rousseau, Arnaud, and Suard sided with Gluck, and Laharpe and Marmontel with Piccini. It was natural that the victory should fall to those who attached themselves to the reformer. In dramatic music Gluck stands unrivalled in his art; and it is impossible to describe in words the depth and truth of expression which he knew how to give the most overpowering as well as the gentlest scenes, without any of the vulgar embellishments of trills, cadences, &c. Contrary to the custom of most composers, Gluck strictly adhered to the genius of the language, and never allowed himself improperly to lengthen or shorten words in favour of any particular passage. In the dedication of his "Alceste" to Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany his excellent views of dramatic music are beautifully and simply expressed. He introduced the trombone into the French orchestra; and the rare and judicious use of that instrument then served to heighten the effect of his great music pieces as much as the ridiculous abuse of it at the present time in many compositions entirely destroys the grandeur of effect intended to be produced.

GMELIN, SAMUEL GOTTLIEB, was born in 1744 at Tubingen, where he studied physic, and in 1763 took the degree of doctor of medicine. He afterwards visited Holland and France, and in 1767 received an invitation to a professorship in the academy at Petersburg. The year following, by the command of the empress, he commenced together with Pallas, Gûldenstadt, and Lepechin, a scientific tour through Russia. In 1769 he travelled along the western side of the Don, and passed the winter in Astrachan; in 1770 and 1771 examined the Persian provinces on the south and south-west side of the Caspian sea; in 1772, returned again to Astrachan, and there surveyed the regions on the Wolga, and, in 1773 the dangerous countries east of the Caspian sea. On his return, however, in 1774 he was imprisoned by the Khan of the Chaitaks, and died in confinement in July 1774 of the dysentery. His widow received from the Russian empress 2000 rubles. His most important works are his "Historia Furorum" and his "Travels in Russia."

GMELIN, WILLIAM FREDERIC, a distinguished engraver, who was born at Badenweiler in the Brisgau in 1745. Having completed his education he commenced the profession of painting, and at the close of 1790 he settled at Rome, and there actively engaged in painting from nature, for the most part in Indian ink. He did not diminish the effect by descending to minute detail, but knew how to seize upon the peculiar characteristics of every view, and his style evinces a deep study of nature. His engravings are among the finest productions of the art. In some of his later productions, indeed, a hardness and an exaggerated expression are perceptible. As he cut his plates very deep, probably to enable him to take many impressions, Gmelin amassed a considerable fortune as his engravings were in great demand. He died at Rome in 1821.

GNEISENAU, NEIDHARD, COUNT OF, and general field-marshal of Prussia, was born in 1760 at Schilda, while his mother, an officer's wife, was passing through that place. As his parents died when he was young, he received his education under the care of his grandmother in Würzburg; and having entered the Prussian service, the campaign of 1805 brought his talents into notice. In 1807 he distinguished himself by his valiant defence of Colberg, and was made colonel. After the peace of Tilsit he was sent to England as a secret agent of his court. He returned in 1810, and was for some time connected with the ministry. In 1813 he became major-general and quarter-master general, and in this capacity he conducted the celebrated retreat from Lützen to Breslau in so masterly a manner that the pursuing foe lost forty cannon without taking one from the allies. He was subsequently made chief of the general staff, and attached to Field-marshal Blücher. The destruction of Macdonald's corps on the Katzbach, the passage of the Elbe near Wartenburg, and the issue of the battle of Möchern, which made part of the great battle of Leipsic, were in a great measure the results of his plans. In 1814 he distinguished himself at Brienne, Paris, and Montmirail, and after the peace of Paris he was made general of infantry, received the rank of count, with a grant from the crown lands to the amount of 8000 dollars yearly income. He rallied the broken Prussians at Ligny in 1815, and his services at Waterloo were of the greatest importance. He pursued the enemy to Paris, and took part in the negotiation of the peace. After which he was made governor of the Rhenish provinces belonging to Prussia, and in 1818 of Berlin. With the accurate knowledge which is necessary to the commander, Gneisenau combined a quick perception and a penetrating mind. He has evinced entire self-possession in the most difficult circumstances, and some of his most hastily formed plans bear the impress of precision, prudence, and calmness. Count Gneisenau died at his estate in Silesia in 1829.

GODDARD, JONATHAN, a learned chemist, who was born in 1617, and educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, but received his degree as doctor of medicine at Catherine Hall, Cambridge. During the Commonwealth he stood very high in the estimation of the protector, and in the parliament of 1653 he was the sole representative for Oxford. In 1668 he published a tract, entitled "A Discourse Setting Forth the Unhappy Condition of the Practice of Physic in London," the object of which was to induce his



brother physicians to follow his example of always mixing his own prescriptions without the intervention of apothecaries. His plan was not, however, adopted. Dr. Goddard is believed to have been the first English constructor of a telescope constructed on scientific principles. He died of apoplexy on the 24th of March, 1674.

**GODFREY OF BOUILLON.**—This celebrated crusader was the son of Eustace the second count of Boulogne, and in his mother's right was heir to Lower Lorraine. When the first crusade was formed Godfrey was one of the first and noblest princes who took the cross, and the command of the principal army was placed in his hands. He was accompanied to the East by his brothers Eustace and Baldwin. In 1096 he commenced his march, and led his army through Germany, Hungary, and Bulgaria, and arriving at Philippolis in Thrace, he sent to the Greek emperor Alexius Comnenus, to enter into arrangements with him, and after a considerable period they concluded a treaty which enabled Godfrey to proceed to the great object of his enterprise—the conquest of Jerusalem, previous to which, however, Godfrey took Nice and Antioch.

In this last city the crusaders were not long after themselves besieged, and being destitute of provisions, they were reduced to extreme necessity. While they were in this state, a Provencal priest, pretending that he had been favoured with a revelation, instructed them where to find the holy lance, which was accordingly discovered. This circumstance inspired the crusaders with such courage that they repulsed the Turks and gained a splendid victory. In the following year Godfrey took Jerusalem itself after a five weeks' siege, and the infidels were indiscriminately massacred, notwithstanding the endeavours of Godfrey, whose mildness was equal to his bravery, to put a stop to the slaughter. Eight days after the capture of Jerusalem the leaders of the army elected him king of the city and the territory; but the pious Godfrey would not wear a crown in the place where Christ was crowned with thorns; and he declined the kingly title, contenting himself with that of duke and guardian of the holy sepulchre.

The sultan of Egypt having learned that of the 300,000 Christians who had assisted in the capture of Antioch, only 20,000 now survived, raised an army of 400,000 men for the purpose of expelling them from their new conquests. Godfrey gave him battle in the plain of Ascalon, on which occasion 100,000 men were left dead upon the field. This victory placed him in the entire possession of the Holy Land, two or three places only excepted. Godfrey now turned his attention to the organization of his newly established government. He appointed a patriarch, founded two cathedral chapters, and built a monastery in the valley of Jehoshaphat. He subsequently gave his new subjects a code of laws, but soon after died in July 1100, just one year after the capture of Jerusalem. He was interred on Mount Calvary, near the sepulchre of the Saviour. Tasso's beautiful epic poem sets the character of this great prince and general, whom history has handed down to us as a pattern of piety, bravery, and all princely virtues, in a just light.

**GODFREY OF STRASBURG**, one of the most distinguished of the old German poets, who was not, like most of the Minnesingers or minstrels of his age, a noble. He lived in the most distinguished

period of the German chivalric poetry, at the end of the twelfth century and beginning of the thirteenth. Besides many lays in the collection of Manesse, we are indebted to him for the great chivalric poem, "Tristan und Isolde," derived from the legends of the round table from a Welsh original, but possessing as much originality of character as any other German classical work. For grace, loveliness, and vivacity of description, richness of colouring, and melody of versification, the work of Godfrey stands alone in old German literature, and a soft and almost elegiac strain of sentiment pervades his poetry.

**GODFREY, THOMAS.**—This clever mathematician is said to have been the real inventor of the quadrant commonly called Hadley's. He was born at, and pursued the trade of a glazier in, Philadelphia. Having accidentally met with a mathematical book, he became so delighted with the study, that by his own unaided industry he soon made himself master of the treatise and of every other English work of the kind that he could procure, and afterwards acquired a tolerable proficiency in Latin in order to be able to peruse the mathematical works in that language. Anxious to read Sir Isaac Newton's "Principia," he went to James Logan, secretary of the Commonwealth, who then stood very high as a mathematician, and requested him to lend him the work. Mr. Logan had never seen or heard of Godfrey before, but, after some conversation, bade him welcome to that or any other book he possessed. Not long afterwards Godfrey communicated to Logan the improvement he had made in Davis's quadrant, by which Logan was so much struck, that in May 1732 he addressed a letter on the subject to Dr. Edmund Halley, then resident in England, in which he described fully the construction and uses of Godfrey's instrument. In the same year Godfrey himself also prepared an account of his invention, addressed to the Royal Society of London; but it was not then transmitted from the expectation which he entertained of the effect of the letter to Halley. No notice, however, was taken of it by that *savant*, and after an interval of a year and a half, Logan resolved to have the matter submitted immediately to the Royal Society. For this purpose he transmitted a copy of the letter, together with the paper of Godfrey, to Mr. Peter Collinson, an eminent botanist and member of the society, engaging him to lay them before that body. This was accordingly done; but Mr. Hadley, the vice president of the society, had already presented them a paper dated May 13, 1731, containing a full description and *rationale* of a reflecting quadrant of the same character, which he claimed as his invention, and the paper was inserted in the volume of the "Philosophical Transactions" for that year. Thus there were two claimants to the invention of the instrument; but it was decided that they both were entitled to the honour of it, and the society sent to Godfrey, as a reward, household furniture to the value of 200*l.* instead of money on account of his habits of intemperance. Mr. Godfrey died in December 1749. Dr. Franklin says of him, "Among the first members of our junto was Thomas Godfrey, a self-taught mathematician, great in his way, and afterwards inventor of what is now called Hadley's quadrant. But he knew little out of his way, and was not a pleasing companion, as, like most great mathematicians I have met with, he expected universal precision in every thing said, and was for ever denying

or distinguishing upon trifles, to the disturbance of all conversation. I continued to board with Godfrey who lived in part of my house, with his wife and children, and had one side of the shop for his glaziers business, though he worked little, being always absorbed in mathematics."

**GODFREY, THOMAS, JUN.**, the son of Thomas Godfrey, the mathematician of the same name, was born in Philadelphia in 1736. Disliking the drudgery of a mechanical occupation, he abandoned the trade of his father as well as the art of watchmaking, to which he had been apprenticed, and obtained a lieutenancy in the provincial troops raised in 1758 for an expedition against fort Du Quesne. This station he retained until the forces were disbanded. He then established himself as a factor in North Carolina, where he died in August 1763, in the twenty-seventh year of his age, in consequence of violent exercise on a very warm day. Little attention was paid to Mr. Godfrey's education, but he was ever ardent in the pursuit of knowledge, and became exceedingly well versed in the works of the English poets. His own poetical talents were early manifested by his publications in the "American Magazine," printed in Philadelphia. His principal poem is the "Court of Fancy," and among his minor pieces his "Epistle from Fort Henry" may be cited with eulogy; and many of his pastorals and elegies possess also a degree of beauty, but he is principally distinguished as the author of the first American drama. This production is called "The Prince of Parthia," a tragedy, which, with various defects, has some redeeming merits.

**GODFREY, SIREDMUNDBURY**, a magistrate, who was active in the discovery of the Popish plot in the reign of Charles II. He was soon after found dead, pierced with his own sword. His death was imputed to the resentment of the Catholics, and therefore his remains were buried with great pomp. His death took place in October 1678.

**GODMAN, DR. JOHN**, an eminent American lecturer and writer, who was born at Annapolis, in Maryland, and having lost his parents at a very early age was bound apprentice to a printer in Baltimore. Disliking his business, he abandoned it after a few years, and in the Autumn of 1813 entered as a sailor boy, on board the flotilla stationed in Chesapeake Bay. At the end of the war, when about fifteen, he commenced the study of medicine. He then removed to Baltimore, where he prosecuted his studies with such success in the house of an eminent physician, that he was chosen to fill the place of his preceptor, who was professor of anatomy in the university of Maryland, whilst the latter was disabled by sickness from attending to his duties. His lectures gave so much pleasure to those who heard him that strong symptoms of regret were manifested when he was obliged to relinquish the station. He afterwards was induced to remove to Cincinnati, on the Ohio, by an offer of the chair of anatomy in a medical school which was about to be established in that town. But as the school did not succeed, he returned after a year, and settled in Philadelphia as a physician and private teacher of anatomy, and for some time assisted in editing Dr. Chapman's "Medical Journal." It was about this time that he published his popular "Natural History of American Quadrupeds," in three volumes octavo. Having been solicited to accept the professorship of Anatomy in Rutgers' Medical

College at New York, he removed thither; and at last his affairs assumed a prosperous aspect. He acquired an extensive practice as a surgeon, and the college flourished; but in the midst of his second course of lectures, a severe cold settled on his lungs, accompanied by a copious hemorrhage, which obliged him to relinquish his pursuits. After having visited Santa Cruz without permanent benefit to his health, he removed in 1829 to Philadelphia, where he died, in April 1830, in the thirty-second year of his age.

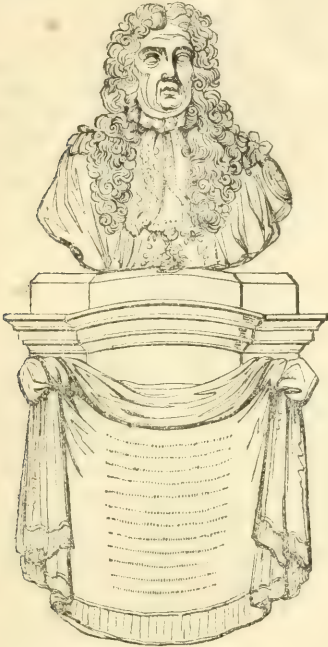
Though Dr. Godman's early education had been greatly neglected, yet by his indefatigable industry he made himself master of Latin, French, and German, besides acquiring a considerable knowledge of Greek, Italian, and Spanish. His learning as a physician and naturalist was very extensive, and there were few subjects of general literature in which he was not well versed. Among other pursuits to which he turned his attention, was the study of ancient coins, of which he acquired a critical knowledge. Natural history, however, was his favourite pursuit, and it is as a naturalist that he has left behind him the greatest reputation. His "American Natural History" and his "Rambles of a Naturalist" are works of high merit. Dr. Godman possessed a retentive memory, unwearied industry, great quickness of perception, and remarkable power of concentrating all the energies of his mind upon any given subject. He was of an enthusiastic temperament, and his thirst for knowledge was never satisfied.

**GODOLPHIN, SIDNEY.**—This distinguished statesman and scholar was born at Yarlinton in Somersetshire. He entered early into the service of Charles the Second, who made him one of the grooms of his bed-chamber. In 1678 he was sent to Holland as envoy on matters of great political importance, and his majesty was so well pleased with his success that in the following year he was created one of the commissioners of the treasury and also became a member of the privy council. On the accession of James the Second to the throne, he was appointed lord chamberlain to the queen, and on the removal of the earl of Rochester was again made one of the commissioners of the treasury, a post which he had previously resigned.

On the landing of the prince of Orange he was one of the commissioners sent by King James to treat with that prince, and in the debate, which took place respecting the vacancy of the throne after the abdication of King James, his lordship voted for a regency; yet, when King William was advanced to the throne, his majesty appointed him one of the lords commissioners of the treasury and a privy-councillor, and in 1690 he was appointed first lord of the treasury. In 1695 he was one of the seven lords justices for the administration of the government during the king's absence, as he was also in the year following, and again in 1701. On the accession of Queen Anne, he was constituted lord high treasurer, which post he had long refused to accept, till the earl of Marlborough pressed him in so positive a manner that he declared he could not go to the continent to command the armies unless the treasury was put into his hands; for then he was sure that remittances would be punctually made to him. Under his lordship's administration of this high office, the public credit was raised and the war carried on with success; as he omitted nothing that could engage the people to bear the burden of



the war with cheerfulness; and it was owing to his advice that the queen contributed 100,000*l.* out of her civil list towards it. He was also one of those counsellors, who advised her majesty to declare in council against the selling of offices and places in her household and family. In July 1704 he was made knight of the garter; and in December 1706 advanced to the dignity of earl of Godolphin and Viscount Rialton. But, notwithstanding all his public services, he was removed in August 1710 from his post of lord high treasurer, and he then retired from public life. His death took place in 1712, and a monument was erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey, a view of which is furnished in the annexed sketch.



**GODWIN, MARY.**—This lady is better known by her maiden name of Wolstonecraft. She was a writer of considerable talent, and was born in or near London in 1759. Her parents, whose circumstances were humble, afterwards removed to a farm near Beverly in Yorkshire, where she attended a day-school. In her twenty-fourth year she set up a school in conjunction with her sisters, with whom she removed to Newington Green, and wrote a pamphlet, entitled "Thoughts on the Education of Daughters." She was subsequently employed for some time as governess in the family of an Irish nobleman; after which she produced "Mary," a fiction; "Original Letters from Real Life," and the "Female Reader." She was one of the first to answer Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution," which answer was followed by her celebrated "Vindication of the Rights of Women." The eccentricity of her theory was equalled by the singularity of her practice, which led her first into the indulgence of a romantic but fruitless attachment to Mr. Fuseli the painter, although a married man, and to one more intimate with an American, of the name of Imbay, whose desertion

caused her to attempt suicide. This ardent passion like the former, was however overcome by a succeeding one, the object of which was Mr. Godwin, author of "Political Justice," &c. As the bonds of wedlock were deemed a species of slavery in her theory, it was only to legitimize the forthcoming fruits of the union that a marriage between the parties took place. She died in child-bed, after being delivered of a daughter in August 1797. Besides the works above mentioned, Mrs. Godwin published a "Moral and Historical View of the French Revolution," and "Letters from Norway."

The husband of this lady was the son of a dissenting minister, and studied at the dissenting college at Hoxton, where he was five years under the tuition of Dr. Rees and Dr. Kippis. He entered the dissenting church in 1778, and preached near London, whence he removed to take charge of a congregation at Stowmarket in Suffolk. He adopted the opinions of Calvin. In 1782 he removed to London, resolving to trust to literature for a subsistence. His first publication was "Sketches of History, in Six Sermons." He is said to have had the conducting of the "New Annual Register." A sketch, which he wrote for the "Register," he enlarged, and published under the title of "The Political Events of the United Provinces"—a work of considerable merit.

Mr. Godwin was in 1782 a strictly orthodox dissenting divine, but in 1792 we find him appear as the author of "Political Justice," in which he inculcated some doctrines, both on religion and politics, which gave great offence. This work placed him at the head of a new sect, which was, however, not very numerous, nor did it last long. Indeed Mr. Godwin himself helped much to destroy it by recanting in a second edition many of his first principles. In 1794 his novel of "Caleb Williams" came from the press, a work of very considerable merit, but open to many objections. In 1796 he published a volume of miscellaneous essays under the title of "The Inquirer." Both his great works soon reached a third edition. In 1799 he published "St. Leon," a tale of the sixteenth century, and in 1801 he brought on the stage "Antonio," a tragedy, but it did not succeed. In 1807 his "Falkener," a tragedy, had no better success. In 1801 he published "Thoughts on Dr. Parr's Spital Sermon," being a reply to the attacks of Dr. Parr, Mr. Mackintosh, and others. In 1803 appeared his "History of the Life and Age of Geoffrey Chaucer." In this work Mr. Godwin has borrowed much from Stowe's "Survey of London," but has contrived to give us a most entertaining account of the manners and customs of Chaucer's age. After the loss of his first wife he married again, and wrote many books for the instruction of children, under the name of "Edward Baldwin, Esquire." His other acknowledged works are, "Fleetwood, or the New Man of Feeling," a novel; an "Essay on Sepulchres;" the "Lives of Edward and John Phillips;" "Letter of Verax, on the Assumed Grounds of the Present War;" "Mandeville, a Tale of the Seventeenth Century;" an attack on Mr. Malthus's "Theory of Population;" and a "History of the Commonwealth."

**GODOY, DON MANUEL DE,** duke of Alcudia, prince of peace. This celebrated favourite of King Charles IV. of Spain was born in 1764 at Badajoz. When young he was only a poor nobleman, who sang well, played on the guitar, and was distinguished

by a tall handsome figure. He accompanied his elder brother, Don Luis Godoy, to Madrid, and soon entered the body guard of the king. The same accomplishments gained his brother the acquaintance of an attendant of the queen, who recommended him to her mistress. The queen learned from him, that his brother sung and played still better, and Don Manuel was summoned to her presence. The king also heard him, and was delighted with the style of his performance, and Godoy now became a favourite at court. Here his handsome person, easy and agreeable conversation, together with his rare talent for intrigue, procured him, in quick succession, the following posts. In 1788 he was created an adjutant, in 1791 adjutant-general of the body guard and grand cross of the order of Charles III., in 1792 lieutenant-general, duke of Alcudia, major of the body guard, premier in the place of Aranda, and knight of the order of the golden fleece; lastly, in 1795, as a reward for his pretended services in making peace with France, he was created prince of peace, and grandee of the first class, and presented with an estate that gave him an income of 50,000 dollars. He signed on the 19th of August, 1796, at St. Ildefonso, an alliance, defensive and offensive, with the French republic, and in September 1797 he married Donna Maria Theresia of Bourbon, a daughter of the infant Don Luis, brother of King Charles III. In 1798 he resigned his post of prime minister, but was in the same year appointed general-in-chief of the Spanish forces. He commanded in 1801 the army sent against Portugal, and signed the treaty of Badajoz, by which he obtained, according to a previous secret stipulation, one half of the 30,000,000 of francs to be paid by the prince of Brazil. By a decree of October 1804 he was made generalissimo of the Spanish military and naval force, kept a body guard of 120 men, and his income was increased by the addition of 100,000 piastres. A new decree in 1807 bestowed on him the title of highness, and unlimited power over the whole monarchy.

It was not long, however, before he fell from his proud elevation through the influence of various causes, partly foreign and partly domestic. The power of Napoleon had raised his suspicion; and in 1806, a short time before the war with Prussia, he thought the time had arrived to break the might of France. He called the nation to arms, and although he did not avow the object of his preparations, and after the unfortunate turn of the war with Prussia pretended to have been providing against danger from the Barbary states, yet Napoleon had seen through his design, and from that moment determined to dethrone the Bourbons in Spain. In the meantime the hatred of the people against the overbearing favourite was excited to the highest degree, and Godoy saw too late the abyss open before his feet. The insurrection of Aranjuez, which took place in March 1808, baffled his plan of fleeing to America with the royal family; and to escape the fury of the populace, the prince of peace concealed himself in a loft of his house, but was discovered, roughly handled, and would have lost his life, if the prince of Asturias had not exerted himself to save him, at the instance of the king and queen, on condition that he should be tried. The important occurrences at Bayonne, however, intervened. Napoleon, who wished to employ the influence of the prince of peace with Charles IV., procured his release from prison, and summoned him

to Bayonne, where he became the moving spring of every thing done by the king and the queen of Spain. After that period he lived in France, and still later in Rome, where he enjoyed the favour of the king and queen until the death of both.

The following is one of the many anecdotes told of him. An old officer, of the name of Tudo, sought for more than six months to obtain audience of the prince. At last he asked for it through his daughter. Immediately both were admitted, and the father received the place of governor in Buen-Retiro, whither the prince frequently went to visit the daughter, Josephine Tudo. She captivated him so much that he is said to have married her secretly. The queen herself, according to the story, knew of it; but no one dared to say any thing in the presence of the king to disparage the prince. His enemies, acquainted with the fact, urged the marriage of the prince with the daughter of the infant Don Luis, then fifteen years old. Josephine, according to report, heard of the nuptials only the evening before they took place. She ran into the palace, and entered the apartment of the prince, exclaiming, "He is my husband, the father of my children! I call upon God and man for justice!" Godoy fled through the garden. The unfortunate woman swooned, and was carried back to her own house. After a few days, however, a reconciliation took place, as the prince persuaded her that he had been obliged to obey the orders of the king.

GÆCKINGK, LEOPOLD FREDERIC GUNTHER VON, a German poet, who was born at Groningen in the territory of Halberstadt in 1748. He studied law at the university in Halle, and there, in conjunction with his friend, and countryman Burger, tried his powers in the art of poetry. He afterwards filled several important stations in the Prussian service. He wrote songs, epigrams, and epistles, the last of which, especially, were received with universal approbation. Besides many other poems, which evince deep feeling, and a great command of language, his "Songs of Two Lovers," first published in 1777, and again in 1779, procured him the greatest reputation. His prose writings were published at that place, in one volume, in 1784. Gæckingk died in February 1828.

GÆRTZ, GEORGE HENRY.—This nobleman early in life joined Charles XII. at Stralsund on his return from Turkey. His activity and intelligence induced Charles to take him into his service, and he was soon placed at the head of affairs. The desperate state of Sweden seemed only to render his projects for its rescue more vast, and his activity more unabating. His policy grasped at all possible resources, and he endeavoured, by the active prosecution of war, to obtain favourable conditions of peace. The impoverished condition of the country left the government without resources, and he endeavoured to create a fictitious capital by giving to a copper currency the nominal value of silver and pledging the faith of the government for its redemption. His negotiations with Russia had almost reached a happy termination, when Charles, encouraged by new hopes, invaded Norway. But scarcely had Charles fallen before Frederickshall, when the foreign minister fell a sacrifice to the hatred of the nobility and of the successor to the throne. He was arrested, and accused of having prejudiced the king against the senate and all his colleagues, of having induced him to un-



dertake ruinous enterprises, especially the unfortunate expedition into Norway,—of having put bad coin into circulation,—and of having mismanaged the sums entrusted to him. He was condemned and beheaded, without a hearing, in February 1719. Gøertz composed his own epitaph, and died with firmness. He was a statesman of distinguished talent, but unscrupulous in the choice of means for effecting his ends.

GOETHE, or GOTHE, JOHN WOLFGANG.—This extraordinary poet and philosopher was born at Frankfort in 1749. He has described his own life, in which, with a master hand, he unfolds the secret springs of the human character, and gives us the key to the most important periods of his life, and consequently to the productions by which they were respectively distinguished. Goethe's father was an admirer of the fine arts, and surrounded by pictures, which early developed in the son the nice discrimination and the active observation for which he was remarkable.



The seven years' war broke out when Goethe was eight years old, and count de Thorane, *lieutenant du roi* of the French army in Germany, was quartered in the house of his father. The count, who was a man of taste, soon gave employment to the artists of Frankfort. Young Goethe was often present at the conversations of the count with the artists respecting the plans of pictures, the way of executing them, &c. These conversations had a great influence upon the mind of the young poet. The count was fond of him, and allowed him to take part freely in the conversations; and some pictures, relating to the story of Joseph, were actually painted from his suggestions. At the same time he learned the French language practically, and a French company then performing in Frankfort awakened his taste for dramatic performances. Drawing, music, natural science, the elements of jurisprudence, and the languages, occupied him alternately. To assist his progress in the languages, he formed the plan of a novel, in which seven brothers and sisters correspond with each other in different languages. The youngest of these fictitious persons used Jewish-German, which led Goethe to study a little Hebrew, in which he never indeed became a great adept, but which, nevertheless, had an influence on him in his childhood, and may have

had a tendency to encourage his inclination for oriental poetry in his later years. By his study of Hebrew, Goethe became more intimately acquainted with the Old Testament, and the "History of Joseph" was his first poetical work. His love for spectacles attracted his attention to a puppet-show, and in the beginning of his "Wilhelm Meister" he undoubtedly took from his own life the motives of Meister's love for puppet-shows, which he dwells upon in a way not very palatable to the taste of foreigners. Goethe very early fell in love with a girl much older than himself, who, of course, treated him like a child. Her name was Margaret, the name which Goethe afterwards gave to the mistress of Faust. Though he was then a mere boy, his passion was so violent as to deprive him of sleep and appetite, so that he fell seriously sick. With returning health he acquired a firmer character, and applied himself with more zeal to his preparation for the university. He went to Leipsic, where Gottsched still lived; but Ernesti and Gellert chiefly attracted his attention. The young poet did not follow any regular course of studies. His mind was always active, but the subjects of his study were regulated by his feelings. German poetry was then in a critical state. It was generally felt that the old bombastic manner must be shaken off before poetry could make any important progress. Precision and conciseness were then the great desiderata, and Goethe soon learned to feel their importance. The English poets were now imitated instead of the French, who had previously been servilely copied.

Goethe began at this period, what he practised throughout his life, to embody in a poem, or in a poetical form, whatever delighted or grieved, pleased or displeased him; in a word, whatever occupied his mind intensely; and no one, perhaps, was ever more in need of such an exercise, as his nature continually hurried him from one extreme to another. Several dramatic pieces were projected by him at this period, when he first realized the immense difference between the form and the substance of religion, law, morals,—in short, of all the great subjects which most deeply affect the well-being of man. The fine arts were not neglected, and he zealously studied the first authors on this subject. He always had a taste for drawing, and while at Leipsic also attempted engraving. Improper diet and other causes now brought on a disease, from which he had hardly recovered when he left Leipsic in 1768. His health was much impaired, and on his return home he was affectionately nursed by a lady named Von Klettenberg. At the same time, this connexion led him to the study of mystico-alchemical books (the traces of which are so apparent in "Faust,") and also to chemistry. He was also led, by the reading of several religious works, to construct for himself a strange theological system, of which New Platonism was the groundwork. He subsequently went to the university of Strasburg to pursue the study of law, according to the wish of his father, but gave, in fact, more attention to the study of chemistry and anatomy than to that of law.

At Strasburg Goethe became acquainted with Herder—a decisive circumstance in his life. Herder made him more acquainted with the Italian school of the fine arts, and inspired his mind with views of poetry more congenial to his character than any which he had hitherto conceived. While here, in the immediate presence of the renowned minister of Strasburg, Goethe wrote a short treatise on Gothic



architecture. The treatise contains some views which he afterwards abandoned. Here, on French ground, and so near to the confines of the French language, he shook off all his predisposition for the French character. In 1771 he took the degree of doctor of jurisprudence, and wrote a dissertation on a legal subject. He then went to Wetzlar, where he found in his own love for a betrothed lady, and in the fate of a young man named Jerusalem, the subjects for his "Werther."

The attention of the public was first attracted to him in 1770 by his "Götz." "Werther" or "Werter" appeared in 1774.

"It would be difficult," observes a writer on this subject, "to name a book which has exercised a deeper influence on the subsequent literature of Europe than this performance of a young author; his first-fruits, the produce of his twenty-fourth year. 'Werter' appeared to seize the hearts of men in all quarters of the world, and to utter for them the word which they had long been waiting to hear. As usually happens too, this same word, once uttered, was soon abundantly repeated, spoken in all dialects, and chanted through all notes of the gamut, till the sound of it had grown a weariness rather than a pleasure. Sceptical sentimentality, view-hunting, love, friendship, suicide, and desperation, became the staple of literary ware; and though the epidemic, after a long course of years, subsided in Germany, it re-appeared with various modifications in other countries, and every where abundant traces of its good and bad effects are still to be discerned. The fortune of Berlichingen with the Iron Hand, though less sudden, was by no means less exalted. In his own country, Götz became the parent of an innumerable progeny of chivalry plays, feudal delineations, and poetico-antiquarian performances; which, though long ago deceased, made noise enough in their day and generation: and with ourselves his influence has been perhaps still more remarkable. Sir Walter Scott's first literary enterprise was a translation of "Götz von Berlichingen;" and if genius could be communicated like instruction, we might call this work of Goethe's the prime cause of 'Marmion' and the 'Lady of the Lake,' with all that has followed from the same creative hand. Truly, a grain of seed that has lighted on the right soil; for, if not firmer and fairer, it has grown to be taller and broader than any other tree; and all the nations of the earth are still yearly gathering of its fruit.

"But, overlooking these spiritual genealogies, which bring little certainty and little profit, it may be sufficient to observe of Berlichingen and 'Werther,' that they stand prominent among the causes, or, at the very least, among the signals of a great change in modern literature. The former directed men's attention with a new force to the picturesque effects of the past; and the latter, for the first time, attempted the more accurate delineation of a class of feelings deeply important to modern minds, but for which our elder poetry offered no exponent, and perhaps could offer none, because they are feelings that arise from passion incapable of being converted into action, and belong chiefly to an age as indolent, cultivated, and unbelieving, as our own. This, notwithstanding the dash of falsehood which may exist in 'Werter' itself, and the boundless delirium of extravagance which it called forth in others, is a high praise which cannot justly be denied it."

Of the philosophy which reigns in "Werter" we have a specimen in the following accurate translation:—

"That the life of man is but a dream, has come into many a head; and with me, too, some feeling of that sort is ever at work. When I look upon the limits within which man's powers of action and inquiry are hemmed in; when I see how all effort issues simply in procuring supply for wants, which again have no object but continuing this poor existence of ours; and then, that all satisfaction on certain points of inquiry is but a dreaming resignation, while you paint, with many coloured figures and gay prospects, the walls you sit imprisoned by,—all this, Wilhelm, makes me dumb. I return to my own heart, and find there such a world! Yet a world, too, more in forecast and dim desire than in vision and living power. And then all swims before my mind's eye; and so I smile, and again go dreaming on as others do.

"That children know not what they want, all conscientious tutors and education philosophers have long been agreed: but that full-grown men, as well as children, stagger to and fro along this earth; like these, not knowing whence they come or whither they go; aiming, just as little, after true objects; governed just as well by biscuit, cakes, and birch-rods,—this is what no one likes to believe; and yet, it seems to me, the fact is lying under our very nose.

"I will confess to thee, for I know what thou wouldst say to me on this point, that those are the happiest, who, like children, live from one day to the other, carrying their dolls about with them, to dress and undress; gliding also, with the highest respect, before the drawer where mamma has locked the gingerbread; and when they do get the wished-for morsel, devouring it with puffed-out cheeks, and crying, 'More!' These are the fortunate of the earth. Well is it likewise with those who can label their rag-gathering employments, or perhaps their passions, with pompous titles, and represent them to mankind as gigantic undertakings for its welfare and salvation. Happy the man who can live in such wise. But he who, in his humility, observes where all this issues, who sees how feately any small thriving citizen can trim his patch of garden into a paradise, and with what unbroken heart even the unhappy crawls along under his burden, and all are alike ardent to see the light of this sun but one minute longer; yes, he is silent, and he too forms his world out of himself, and he too is happy because he is a man. And then, hemmed in as he is, he ever keeps in his heart the sweet feeling of freedom, and that this dungeon can be left when he likes."

What Goethe's own temper and habit of thought must have been, while the materials of such a work were forming themselves within his heart, might be in some degree conjectured, and he has himself informed us. We quote the following passage from his "Dichtung und Wahrheit."

"Such weariness of life," he says, "has its physical and its spiritual causes; those we shall leave to the doctor, these to the moralist, for investigation; and in this so trite matter touch only on the main point when that phenomenon expresses itself most distinctly. All pleasure in life is founded on the regular return of external things. The alternations of day and night, of the seasons, of the blossoms and fruits, and whatever else meets us from epoch to



epoch with the offer and command of enjoyment,—these are the essential springs of earthly existence. The more open we are to such enjoyments, the happier we feel ourselves; but should the vicissitude of these appearances come and go without our taking interest in it, should such benignant invitations address themselves to us in vain, then follows the greatest misery, the heaviest malady; one grows to view life as a sickening burden. We have heard of the Englishman who hanged himself, to be no more troubled with daily putting off and on his clothes. I knew an honest gardener, the overseer of some extensive pleasure grounds, who once splenetically exclaimed, ‘Shall I see these clouds for ever passing, then, from east to west?’ It is told, of one of our most distinguished men, that he viewed with dissatisfaction the spring again growing green, and wished that, by way of change, it would for once be red. These are specially the symptoms of life-weariness, which not seldom issues in suicide, and, at this time, among men of meditative, secluded character, was more frequent than might be supposed.

“Nothing, however, will sooner induce this feeling of satiety than the return of love. The first love, it is said justly, is the only one; for in the second, and by the second, the highest significance of love is in fact lost. That idea of infinitude, of everlasting endurance, which supports and bears it aloft, is destroyed; it seems transient, like all that returns.\* \* \*

“Further, a young man soon comes to find, if not in himself, at least in others, that moral epochs have their course as well as the seasons. The favour of the great, the protection of the powerful, the help of the active, the good will of the many, the love of the few, all fluctuates up and down; so that we cannot hold it fast any more than we can hold sun, moon, and stars. And yet these things are not mere natural events; such blessings flee away from us by our own blane or that of others, by accident or destiny; but they flee away, they fluctuate, and we are never sure of them.

“But what most pains the young man of sensibility is the incessant return of our faults; for how long is it before we learn, that in cultivating our virtues we nourish our faults along with them! The former rest on the latter as on their roots; and these ramify themselves in secret as strongly and as widely as those others in the open light. Now, as we for the most part practise our virtues with forethought and will, but by our faults are overtaken unexpectedly, the former seldom give us much joy, the latter are continually giving us sorrow and distress. Indeed, here lies the subtlest difficulty in self-knowledge, the difficulty which almost renders it impossible. But figure, in addition to all this, the heat of youthful blood, an imagination easily fascinated and paralyzed by individual objects; further, the wavering commotions of the day, and you will find that an impatient striving to free oneself from such a pressure was no unnatural state.

“However, these gloomy contemplations, which, if a man yield to them, will lead him to boundless lengths, could not have so decidedly developed themselves in our young German minds, had not some outward cause excited and forwarded us in this sorrowful employment. Such a cause existed for us in the literature, especially the poetical literature, of England, the great qualities of which are accom-

panied by a certain earnest melancholy, which it imparts to every one that occupies himself with it.

\* \* \* \* \*

“In such an element, with such an environment of circumstances, with studies and tastes of this sort, harassed by unsatisfied desires, externally nowhere called forth to important action, with the sole prospect of dragging on a languid, spiritless, mere civic life, we had recurred, in our disconsolate pride, to the thought that life, when it no longer suited one, might be cast aside at pleasure, and had helped ourselves hereby, stintedly enough, over the crosses and tediums of the time. These sentiments were so universal, that ‘Werter’ on this very account could produce the greatest effect; striking in every where with the dominant humour, and representing the interior of a sickly, youthful heart in a visible and palpable shape. How accurately the English have known this sorrow might be seen from these few significant lines, written before the appearance of ‘Werter’:—

\* To griefs congenial prone,  
More wounds than nature gave he knew,  
While misery’s form his fancy drew  
In dark ideal hues, and horrors not its own.”

“Self-murder is an occurrence in men’s affairs which, how much soever it may have already been discussed and commented upon, excites an interest in every mortal, and at every new era must be discussed again. Montesquieu confers on his heroes and great men the right of putting themselves to death when they see good, observing that it must stand at the will of every one to conclude the fifth act of his tragedy whenever he thinks best. Here, however, our business lies not with persons who in activity have led an important life, who have spent their days for some mighty empire, or for the cause of freedom; and whom one may forbear to censure, when seeing the high ideal purpose which had inspired them vanish from the earth, they meditate pursuing it to that other undiscovered country. Our business here is with persons to whom, properly from want of activity, and in the peaceablest condition imaginable, life has nevertheless, by their exorbitant requisitions on themselves, become a burden. As I myself was in this predicament, and know best what pain I suffered in it, what efforts it cost me to escape from it, I shall not hide the speculations I from time to time considerably prosecuted as to the various modes of death one had to choose from.

“It is something so unnatural for a man to break loose from himself, not only to hurt, but to annihilate himself, that he for the most part catches at means of a mechanical sort for putting his purpose in execution. When Ajax falls on his sword, it is the weight of his body that performs this service for him. When the warrior adorns his armour-bearer to slay him, rather than that he come into the hands of the enemy, this is likewise an external force which he secures for himself, only a moral instead of a physical one. Women seek in the water a cooling for their desperation; and the highly mechanical means of pistol-shooting insures a quick act with the smallest effort. Hanging is a death one mentions unwillingly, because it is an ignoble one. In England it may happen more readily than elsewhere, because from youth upwards you there see that punishment frequent without being specially ignominious. By poison, by opening of veins, men aim but at parting slowly from life; and the most refined,

the speediest, the most painless death, by means of an asp, was worthy of a queen who had spent her life in pomp and luxurious pleasure. All these, however, are external helps, are enemies with which a man, that he may fight against himself, makes league.

"When I considered these various methods, and, further, looked abroad over history, I could find among all suicides no one that had gone about this deed with such greatness and freedom of spirit as the emperor Otho. This man, beaten indeed as a general, yet nowise reduced to extremities, determines for the good of the empire, which already in some measure belonged to him, and for the saving of so many thousands, to leave the world. With his friends he passes a gay, festive night, and next morning it is found that with his own hand he has plunged a sharp dagger into his heart. This sole act seemed to me worthy of imitation; and I convinced myself that whoever could not proceed herein as Otho had done, was not entitled to resolve on renouncing life. By this conviction I saved myself from the purpose, or indeed, more properly speaking, from the whim of suicide, which in those fair peaceful times had insinuated itself into the mind of indolent youth. Among a considerable collection of arms I possessed a costly well-ground dagger. This I laid down nightly beside my bed; and before extinguishing the light I tried whether I could succeed in sending the sharp point an inch or two deep into my breast. But as I truly never could succeed, I at last took to laughing at myself, threw away all these hypochondriacal crotchets, and determined to live. To do this with cheerfulness, however, I required to have some poetical task given me, wherein all that I had felt, thought, or dreamed on this weighty business might be spoken forth. With such view I endeavoured to collect the elements which for a year or two had been floating about in me; I represented to myself the circumstances which had most oppressed and afflicted me; but nothing of all this would take form, there was wanting an incident, a fable, in which I might embody it.

"All at once I hear tidings of Jerusalem's death, and directly following the general rumour came the most precise and circumstantial description of the business, and in this instant the plan of 'Werter' was invented; the whole shot together from all sides, and became a solid mass, as the water in the vessel, which already stood on the point of freezing, is by the slightest motion changed at once into firm ice."

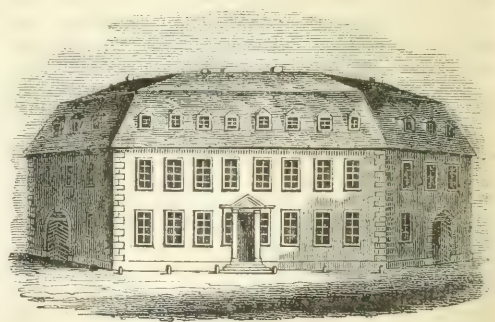
November 7, 1775, he went to Weimar, on the invitation of the duke of Saxe-Weimar, who had just begun his reign. In 1776 he was made privy-counsellor of legation, with a seat and vote in the privy-council. He made a journey to Switzerland in the same year with the prince. In 1782 he was made president of the chamber and ennobled. In 1786 he made a journey to Italy, where he remained two years, visited Sicily, and remained a long time in Rome. In 1792 he followed his prince during the campaign in Champagne. He was afterwards created minister; received in 1807 the order of Alexander Newsky from Alexander of Russia, and the grand cross of the legion of honour from Napoleon.

One extract from Goethe's own "Memoirs" will show how he spent his time after this period and even to the close of his life:—"This year, 1811," says

he, "distinguishes itself for me by persevering outward activity. The 'Life of Philip Hackert' went to press, the papers committed to me all carefully elaborated as the case required. By this task I was once more attracted to the south: the occurrences which at that period had befallen me there in Hackert's company or neighbourhood became alive in the imagination; I had cause to ask, why this which I was doing for another should not be attempted for myself? I turned accordingly before completion of that volume to my own earliest personal history, and in truth found here that I had delayed too long. The work should have been undertaken while my mother yet lived, thereby had I got nigher those scenes of childhood and been by her great strength of memory transported into the midst of them. Now however must these vanished apparitions be recalled by my own help, and first with labour many an incitement to recollection, like a necessary magic apparatus, be devised. To represent the development of a child who had grown to be remarkable, how this exhibited itself under given circumstances, and yet how in general it could content the student of human nature and his views,—such was the thing I had to do.

"In this sense, unpretendingly enough, to a work treated with anxious fidelity, I gave the name of 'Wahrheit und Dichtung' (Truth and Fiction) deeply convinced that man, in immediate presence, still more in remembrance, fashions and models the external world according to his own peculiarities. The business, as with historical studying and otherwise recalling of places and persons, I had much time to spend on it, busied me wheresoever I went or stood, at home and abroad, to such a degree that my actual condition became like a secondary matter; though again, on all hands, when summoned outwards by occasion, I with full force and undivided sense proved myself present."

Goethe died at Weimar, March 22, 1832, and was interred in the ducal family vault. Goethe's residence, where he composed some of his best works, is delineated in the subjoined sketch.



If we survey the variety of the productions of this great man, not only in all branches of poetry, but also in natural science, we cannot help admiring the activity and the versatility of his genius. His genius appears most wonderful, if we throw a glance at what German literature was when he first appeared in the literary world, and what it was when he left it, and how it has been affected by him. Goethe was born at a period when the modern German literature



was far from having acquired independence and consistency, and in the different periods of his life it is easy to discover the influence at one time of French literature, at another of classic literature, &c.; but these influences, though sufficient to destroy the vigour and energy of many a genius, rather served to develop his power more fully. It cannot be denied, however, that even he has sometimes been led astray, as, for instance, in his polished and cold "Eugene."

But in what branch has Goethe most excelled? Is it the epic? He has enriched German literature with some of the most popular epic productions, but his epic descriptions cannot rival the best descriptive compositions of English literature (which may be partly accounted for from the character of the two languages); nor are the conceptions of his epics of the highest character. Is it the drama? He has produced some beautiful dramas, and his "Iphigenia" will always be considered as a masterpiece; but, generally speaking, his dramas do not give us sketches of great, important, or interesting characters, nor the picture of a great action—the two chief points of dramatic poetry; and he stands, in this respect, very far below Shakspeare. Nay, he does not even do justice to historical characters, as his "Egmont" shows. Is it didactic poetry? He has written several didactic poems, but he cannot be said to have excelled in this branch. Is it the novel? He has presented German literature with some novels, which will always rank among the best; but their excellence, of which we shall presently speak, is not in the plot, nor particularly in the characters described. In short, what is the prominent feature of Goethe's excellence?

We think Goethe must be called pre-eminently the "poet of philosophy." It is the philosophy of life and of individual character pervading his works which places them among the first ever produced. Hence he has been able to devote his powers to all forms of poetry; for the drama was not to him what it was to Shakspeare, nor the epic what it was to Ariosto. We do not say that his conceptions are in no degree affected by the dress in which they are clothed, but that the form of poetic composition, which he at any time adopts, remains with him more a matter of form than with those who are pre-eminent in any particular branch. Hence his greatest production is his "Faust," emphatically a philosophical poem, which will long remain unrivalled; for it is the best of Goethe's productions in a department for which he seems to have been born. Of this extraordinary poem we have space but for one passage illustrative of its peculiar style. It is from Mr. Shelley's translation, and Faust and Mephistopheles are about to proceed to a great festival of evil spirits.

"MEPH. Would you not like a broomstick? As for me I wish I had a good stout ram to ride;  
For we are still far from th' appointed place.  
FAUST. This knotted staff is help enough for me,  
Whilst I feel fresh upon my legs. What good  
Is there in making short a pleasant way?  
To creep along the labyrinths of the vales,  
And climb those rocks where ever-babbling springs  
Precipitate themselves in waterfalls,  
Is the true sport that seasons such a path.  
Already Spring kindles the birchen spray,  
And the hoar pines already feel her breath:  
Shall she not work also within our limbs?  
MEPH. Nothing of such an influence do I feel.  
My body is all wintry, and I wish  
The flowers upon our path were frost and snow.  
But see how Melancholy rises now,

Dimly uplifting her belated beam,  
The blank unwelcome round of the red moon,  
And gives so bad a light that every step  
One stumbles against some crag. With your permission,  
I'll call an ignis-fatuuus to our aid:  
I see one yonder burning jollily.  
Halloo, my friend! may I request that you  
Would favour us with your bright company?  
Why should you blaze away there to no purpose?  
Pray be so good as light us up this way."

The ignis-fatuuus, after some little parley, obeys, and we then have, Faust, Mephistopheles, and Ignis-fatuuus, in alternate chorus.

"The limits of the sphere of dream,  
The bounds of true and false, are past.  
Lead us on, thou wandering gleam,  
Lead us onward, far and fast,  
To the wide, the desert waste.  
But see, how swift advance and shift  
Trees behind trees, row by row,—  
How, clift by clift, rocks bend and lift  
Their frowning foreheads as we go.  
The giant-snooted crags, ho! ho!  
How they snort and how they blow!  
Through the mossy sods and stones,  
Stream and streamlet hurry down,  
A rushing throng! A sound of song  
Beneath the vault of heaven is blown!  
Sweet notes of love, the speaking tones  
Of this bright day, sent down to say  
That Paradise on earth is known,  
Resound, around, beneath, above.  
All we hope and all we love  
Finds a voice in this blithe strain,  
Which wakens hill and wood and rill,  
And vibrates far o'er field and vale,  
And which Echo, like the tale  
Of old times, repeats again.  
To whoo! to whoo! near, nearer now  
The sound of song, the rushing throng!  
Are the screech, the lapwing, and the jay,  
All awake, as if 'twere day!  
See, with long legs and belly wide,  
A salamander in the brake!  
Every root is like a snake,  
And along the loose hill side,  
With strange contortions through the night,  
Curls, to seize or to fright;  
And, animated, strong, and many,  
They dart forth polypus-antennae,  
To bluster with their poison spume  
The wanderer. Through the dazzling gloom  
The many-coloured mice, that tread  
The dewy turf beneath our tread,  
In troops each other's motions cross,  
Through the heath and through the moss;  
And, in legions interangled,  
The fire-flies flit, and swarm, and throng,  
Till all the mountain depths are spangled.  
Tell me, shall we go or stay?  
Shall we onward? Come along!  
Every thing around is swept  
Forward, onward, far away!"

His beautiful songs and shorter poems, elegies, distichs, &c., have the same peculiar character; for though many or most of them cannot be called pre-eminently philosophical, yet they are all tinged with the profound reflections of his philosophical mind, and continually remind us of the deep wells from which our griefs and joys, fears and hopes, spring.

The circumstance that there is in Germany no national life, that no grand ideas affect the whole mass with a common impulse, that there are few historical recollections which are sources of a common pride to the whole nation—all this had a great influence on Goethe. It was one of the reasons of his universality, and also the reason that his genius directed itself to the delineation of the character of the individual man, considered apart from the influences which act so strongly upon the mind in communities more strongly imbued with a common spirit. In this respect he resembles not a little the poets and wise men of the East, who, under a despotism which crushes freedom of action, concentrate their thoughts

on the inward man. It is this state of his country also to which we must ascribe the want of, we might call it, manliness in Goethe's poetry, a characteristic which distinguishes many of the British bards. Goethe, we repeat it, is the most universal poet; thoroughly modern in some of his inimitable songs, in which he gives vent to the tenderest emotions of the heart with a sincerity at times almost childlike; whilst in other productions he exhibits the spirit of ancient literature to a degree which probably no modern poet of any nation has reached, as the resemblance is not merely in the form, but in the very conception of the ideas.

The service which Goethe has done to the German language is immense: he has elevated it, and used it with that ease and freedom with which genius always handles its material. The clearness and simplicity of his prose style make it the best model for the imitation of his countrymen. Goethe has received an honour, of which, perhaps, no poet before him can boast. Several professors in German universities, during the life of the author, lectured on various poems of his, whilst several authors have written commentaries and treatises on his productions. If the Germans have often been reproached with ingratitude towards their great men, they cannot be charged with it in regard to Goethe. They have showed the greatest enthusiasm for him in all periods of his life. It may perhaps be said with truth, that the deficiency of Goethe's productions in great national ideas, such as we find in the poets of other countries, is partly owing to his having passed a great portion of his life at the court of a petty prince. But still his whole organization has fitted him to be the observer of individual and of social life in the world around him. His mind has no historical cast, and neither the progress of mankind in different stages of society, nor the great characters who have appeared as representatives of these stages, seem to have excited a powerful interest in him. So, too, his own age seems to have passed by him without exciting in him that interest for either of the great contending parties which is so strong in minds of a different mould.

**GOLDSMITH, OLIVER.**—This talented writer, was born in 1731 at Pallas, in the county of Longford, Ireland. His father was a clergyman of the established church, and sent his son at an early period of life to Dublin College, and afterwards to the university of Edinburgh. At both these institutions the eccentricity and carelessness of his conduct involved his friends in great difficulties, and he was finally removed to Leyden at the expense of his uncle the Rev. Thomas Contarine. At Leyden he studied chemistry and anatomy for about a year, but a taste for gaming, which he appears to have caught very early, frequently plunged him into difficulties without any of the benefits of experience. Even the money which he was compelled to borrow in order to enable him to leave Holland was expended on some costly flowers which he bought of a Dutch florist as a present to his uncle, and when he set out on his travels he "had only one clean shirt, and no money in his pocket." He however determined to make the tour of Europe on foot. He is supposed to have described the way in which he performed this singular undertaking in the history of a philosophic vagabond, in "The Vicar of Wakefield." He had some knowledge of music, and charmed the

peasants so much as to procure a lodging and a subsistence; he also entered the foreign universities and convents, where, upon certain days, theses are maintained against any adventitious disputant, for which, if the champion opposes with some dexterity, he may claim a gratuity in money, a dinner, and a bed for the night. It was probably at Padua that he took a medical degree, as he remained there about six months, but his uncle dying while he was in Italy he was obliged to travel through France to England on foot, and landed at Dover in 1756.

He arrived in London in the extremity of distress, and first tried to be admitted as an usher in a school or academy, and having with some difficulty obtained that situation he remained for some time in it. He next procured a situation in the shop of a chemist, and while here was found out by Dr. Sleight, one of his fellow-students at Edinburgh, who liberally shared his purse with him, and encouraged him to commence practitioner. With this view he settled in Bankside, Southwark, and afterwards removed to the Temple or its neighbourhood. In 1758 he obtained, by means of Dr. Milner, a dissenting minister, the appointment of physician to one of our factories in India. In order to procure the necessary expenses for the voyage he issued proposals for printing by subscription "The Present State of Polite Literature in Europe," with what success we are not told, nor why he gave up his appointment in India. In the same year however he wrote the "Life of Voltaire," and engaged with Mr. Griffiths as a critic in the "Monthly Review." The terms of this engagement were his board, lodging, and a handsome salary, all secured by a written agreement; but at the end of seven or eight months it was dissolved by mutual consent, and our poet took lodgings in Green Arbour Court in the Old Bailey, where he completed his "Present State of Polite Literature." He afterwards removed to lodgings in Wine Office Court, Fleet Street, where he wrote "The Vicar of Wakefield," attended with the affecting circumstance of his being under arrest. When the knowledge of his situation was communicated to Dr. Johnson he disposed of his manuscript for 60*l.* to Mr. Newbery and procured his enlargement. His connexion with Mr. Newbery was a source of regular employment, as he engaged him to revise many of his best publications. He had previously been employed by Wilkie the bookseller. In 1765 he published "The Traveller," which at once established his fame.

Goldsmith afterwards fixed his abode in the Temple, and when Dr. Johnson's literary club was founded he was one of the first members. Having acquired considerable fame as a critic, a novelist, and a descriptive poet, he was induced to court the dramatic muse. His first attempt was the comedy of the "Good-natured Man," which Garrick after much delay declined, and it was produced at Covent Garden theatre in 1768, but did not obtain the applause which his friends thought it merited. Between this period and the appearance of his next celebrated poem he compiled "The Roman History," and afterwards an abridgment of it, and "The History of England," both elegantly written, and highly calculated to attract and interest young readers, although it must be owned he is frequently superficial and inaccurate. His pen was also occasionally employed on introductions and prefaces to books compiled by other persons, as Guthrie's "History of the World,"



and Dr. Brooks's "System of Natural History." In this last preface he so far excelled his author in the graces of a captivating style that the booksellers engaged him to write a "History of the Earth and Animated Nature," which he executed with much elegance, but with no very deep knowledge of the subject. He also drew up a "Life of Dr. Parnell."

In 1769 he produced his admirable poem "The Deserted Village," which he touched and retouched with the greatest care before publication. How much it added to his reputation it is unnecessary to mention. No poem since the days of Pope has been more repeatedly read, admired, and quoted. At the establishment of the Royal Academy of Painting in 1770, his friend Sir Joshua Reynolds procured for him the appointment of professor of ancient history, a complimentary distinction attended neither with emolument nor trouble, but which entitled him to a seat at some of the meetings of the society. His situation in life was now comfortable at least, and might have been independent had he mixed a little prudence with his general conduct; but although this was not always the case, it is much to his honour that his errors were generally on the right side. He was kind and benevolent wherever he had it in his power, and though frequently duped by artful men his heart was never hardened against the applications of the unhappy. In 1773 his second comedy, "She Stoops to Conquer," was performed at Covent Garden, and received with the highest applause.

Such was the confidence he had now acquired in his skill in compilation that he fully intended to bring out a universal dictionary of the arts and sciences, when a despondency of mind, probably owing to the derangement of his circumstances, brought on a low fever, which terminated his existence in April 1774. He was buried in the Temple church, but a monument, a view of which is given in the sketch beneath, was subsequently erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey.



GOOD, JOHN MASON, a physician, poet, and philological writer, who was the son of a dissenting

minister, and was born at Epping in Essex in 1764. He was apprenticed to a surgeon at Gosport, and engaged in practice at Coggeshall in his native county. In 1793 he came to London, where he carried on business for several years as a surgeon and apothecary, and in 1810 and the two following years he delivered physiological lectures at the Surrey Institution, which were afterwards published. Having obtained a diploma from the university of Aberdeen, he commenced physician in 1820, and continued to practise in that capacity till his death, which took place in January 1827. His principal works are entitled "Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Dr. Alexander Geddes," translations of Solomon's Song and the Book of Job, a translation of Lucretius, "On the Nature of Things," "Medical Technology," "A Physiological System of Nosology," and "The Study of Medicine." Dr. Good was not endowed with that higher order of intellect to which the name of genius is given, but he possessed those qualifications both of mind and heart which were calculated to render him eminently useful in his profession and successful in his various literary pursuits. He had that ardent thirst for knowledge which carries the mind onward in spite of the most opposing circumstances, and that benevolence of disposition which leads it to appropriate all its wealth and discoveries to the good and improvement of mankind. To a memory that rendered his most laborious undertakings comparatively easy, was added a patience of thought that enabled him to make the utmost of the materials he collected; and in every work he has left we possess evidence of that strong good sense, blended with a certain degree of natural ambition and desire of fame, which distinguished his career. Dr. Good's literary remains are numerous, and some of them will undoubtedly secure him a respectable name with posterity. His works, however, are not so generally known as they ought to be, both for their merits and general usefulness.

GOODAL, WALTER, a learned Scottish antiquary, who was born in Banffshire in 1706. Having completed his education, he was appointed librarian to the Advocate's Library in Edinburgh, and immediately commenced, in conjunction with the celebrated Thomas Ruddiman, compiling a catalogue of that library upon the same plan as the "Bibliotheca Cardinalis Imperialis." He was the author of a work entitled "An Examination of the Letters said to have been written by Mary to James Earl of Bothwell," in which he endeavoured to prove that they were forgeries; in addition to which he published many other valuable works. Mr. Goodal died on the 28th of July, 1766.

GOODWIN, JOHN.—This violent republican was born in 1593, and educated at Queen's College, Cambridge. He was early in life presented to the living of St. Stephen's, Coleman Street, from which he was turned out by what was called the "committee for plundered ministers," because he refused to baptize the children of his parish promiscuously, and refused to administer the sacrament to his whole parish. He carried on many warm disputes with the Presbyterian party, and what was more singular in those days was his embracing the Arminian doctrines, which he defended with great vigour both by the pulpit and press. Being a decided republican, he peculiarly gratified the spirit of the times by promoting the condemnation of the king, which he afterwards en-

deavoured to justify in a pamphlet called "The Obstructors of Justice." At the Restoration it was thought he would have been excepted from the act of indemnity, but although he afterwards was permitted to live, a proclamation was issued in 1660 against the above pamphlet, and in that he is stated to have been "late of Coleman Street, clerk," and to have fled. His pamphlet was burnt by the hands of the hangman. Returning afterwards, he kept a private conventicle in Coleman Street, where he died in 1665.

**GOOKIN, DANIEL**, a major-general in the British service and author of the "Historical Collections of the Indians in New England, North America." He was born in this country, and in the year 1621 emigrated to Virginia. He continued to reside in that province until 1644, when he removed with his family to New England and settled in Cambridge, "that he might enjoy the ordinances of the gospel in their purity." He was there appointed superintendent of all the Indians who had submitted to the government of Massachusetts. In 1656 he came to England and had an interview with Cromwell, who employed him to persuade the inhabitants of Massachusetts to remove to Jamaica. On his return he became very unpopular in consequence of the support which he gave to the Friendly Indians, against whom several severe laws had been passed through apprehension that they might join King Philip. His resistance, however, soon afterwards to the attempts made to destroy the charter of Massachusetts reinstated him in the confidence and favour of the people, and in 1681 he was made major-general of the colony. He died in 1687 in the seventy-sixth year of his age. His principal work is called "Historical Collections of the Indians," and was published in the first volume of the "Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society," in 1782.

**GORANI, JOSEPH, COUNT OF**, a political writer, who was born at Milan in 1740. This learned and accomplished scholar belonged to a literary club which carried on a correspondence with Voltaire, Diderot, D'Alembert, and Baron Holbach, and under the title of the "Coffee House" he published a journal, in which political subjects were discussed. The club generally assembled at the house of Count Verri, the author of "Roman Nights;" and among its members were Lambertenghi, the abbé Paul Frisi and the marquis Beccaria, who here projected the plan of his celebrated work on crimes and punishments. Joseph Baretti attacked the journal in a periodical work, "Frusta Letteraria," or the Scourge. The club afterwards advocated the French revolution, and Gorani was among the most zealous of its supporters. In the works of his more mature years on philosophy, political economy, and public education, he breathes a democratic spirit. The same is true of his "Secret Memoirs of Italy," especially of his "Memoirs of Naples," and his "Treatise upon Despotism," and his "Essay on the Science of Government." His love of freedom and equal rights, and his desire for the abolishment of the distinctions of birth, caused him to be struck from the list of the Milanese nobility, and his estates to be confiscated; in return for which, the national assembly conferred upon him the title of "a French citizen." Gorani went to France in 1792, and thence to Geneva in 1794, where he died.

**GORDIUS**, a peasant, who was raised to the

throne of Phrygia. An insurrection having broken out, the inhabitants consulted the oracle respecting who was to be the new king. It designated him whom on their return they should meet mounted on a chariot going to the temple of Jupiter. This was Gordius, who, to evince his gratitude, consecrated his chariot to Jupiter, and fastened the pole with so ingenious a knot that the oracle promised the dominion of the world to him who should untie it. When Alexander came to Gordium, and saw the impossibility of untying the knot, he cut it with his sword.

**GORDON, GEORGE**, called by courtesy Lord George Gordon, was the son of Cosmo George, duke of Gordon in Scotland, and was born in 1750. He entered when young into the navy, but left the service during the American war. He then became a member of the House of Commons, and although his parliamentary conduct was marked by a certain degree of eccentricity, yet he displayed no deficiency of talent, often animadverting with great freedom on the ministers and their opponents. At length, in 1780, a bill having been introduced into the house for the relief of Roman Catholics from certain penalties and disabilities, he collected a mob, at the head of whom he marched to the House of Commons, to present a petition against the proposed measure. The dreadful riot which ensued, and which was not suppressed till after the destruction of many Catholic chapels and dwellings, the prison of Newgate, and the house of the chief justice, Lord Mansfield, led to the arrest of Lord George Gordon, and his trial on the charge of high treason; but no evidence being adduced of treasonable design, he was acquitted. In May 1786 he was excommunicated for refusing to come forward as a witness in a court of law. He then published "A Letter from Lord G. Gordon to the Attorney General of England, in which the Motives of his Lordship's Public Conduct from the Beginning of 1780 to the Present Time are Vindicated." In the beginning of 1788, having been twice convicted of libelling the French ambassador, the queen of France, and the criminal justice of his country, he retired to Holland; but he was arrested, sent home, and committed to Newgate, where he passed the remainder of his life. He died on the 1st of November, 1793, disturbed in his last moments by the knowledge that he could not be buried among the Jews, of whose religion he had become a zealous professor during his imprisonment.

**GORDON, ALEXANDER**, a Scottish artist of considerable talent, who was for several years secretary to the society for the encouragement of learning. He was also secretary to the society of antiquaries, both which offices he subsequently resigned. Mr. Gordon died about the year 1750. He was the author of a work entitled "Itinerarium Septentrionale, or a Journey through Most Parts of the Counties of Scotland;" also "A Complete History of the Ancient Amphitheatres," and several other valuable works.

**GORDON, THOMAS**, a clever Scottish writer, born at Kirkcudbright, late in the seventeenth century. In conjunction with Mr. Trenchard he wrote several political pamphlets, which ultimately procured him a place under government. He died in 1750.

**GORE, CHRISTOPHER**, an American, who was born in Boston in 1758, and was the son of a respectable mechanic who acquired a considerable fortune by his industry. He was graduated at Harvard Uni-



versity in 1776, when he commenced the study of the law and soon acquired a lucrative practice.

In 1789 he was appointed by President Washington the first United States attorney for the district of Massachusetts; the duties of which office, difficult as they were at that period of distraction and trouble, he continued to discharge with firmness and ability until 1796, when he was appointed by the president colleague of the celebrated William Pinkney, in the commission under the fourth article of Jay's treaty, to settle the American claims upon England for spoliation. In this situation he evinced his wonted energy and talent, and recovered property to a very great amount for his fellow citizens. When Rufus King, at that period American minister at London, and the intimate friend of Mr. Gore, returned to America in 1803, he left him *chargé d'affaires*. In 1804 he returned home, and was twice elected to the senate of the state from the county of Suffolk, and then to the house of representatives from Boston. In 1809 he was chosen governor of Massachusetts, but retained this dignity only for one year. In 1814 he was called to the senate of the union by the appointment of Governor Strong, during a recess of the legislature. The appointment was ratified by the legislature at their ensuing meeting. He served in this capacity for three years, and then withdrew into a retirement, in which he ended his life, March 1, 1827, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. Mr. Gore possessed a clear, sound mind, with a firm and decided, yet liberal spirit. He was an excellent classical scholar, and was well versed in general literature.

GOSSEC, FRANCIS JOSEPH, a celebrated musical professor, who was born in 1733 at Vergnies in Hainault. When seven years of age he was sent to Antwerp, and remained for eight years in that city as a singing-boy in the cathedral. Gossec was nearly self-instructed in music, chiefly by means of a profound study of the scores of the great masters. It appears that he was never able to visit Italy, but in 1751 went to Paris, where he afterwards fixed his residence. Soon after this he was attached to the suite of the prince de Condé, as a leader of his band, and composed several operas for it. In 1770 he founded the concert of amateurs, where the chevalier de St. George was first violin, and which had the greatest success during ten seasons.

In 1773 Gossec took the management of the spiritual concert, and in 1784 was appointed a principal professor in the royal school of singing and declamation, founded by M. le Baron Breteuil. At the commencement of the French revolution he accepted the situation of director of the band to the national guard; and many symphonies, hymns, &c., for wind instruments were at that time composed by him, and performed by this band on different public occasions. In the year 1795 a law was passed by the national convention, definitively fixing the organization of a conservatory of music, when Gossec was chosen, conjointly with Messrs. Mehul and Cherubini, inspector of the establishment and professor of composition; Catel, his principal pupil, being at the same time named professor of harmony. The date of Gossec's death is not known.

GOUDIMEL, CLAUDE, a musician of Franche-Comté, who seems to have lost his life at Lyons on the day of the massacre of Paris. He is ranked among the most eminent composers of music to Calvinistic BIOGRAPHY.—VOL. I.

cal psalms and spiritual songs. Goudimel has been much celebrated by the Calvinists in France for this music, which was never used in the church of Geneva. He set the "Chansons Spirituelles" of the celebrated Marc-Ant. de Muret, in four parts, which were printed at Paris in 1555. We may suppose Goudimel at this time to have been a Catholic, as the learned Muret is never ranked among heretics by French biographers. Ten years after, when he set the psalms of Clement Marot, this version was still regarded with less horror by the Catholics than in later times; for the music which Goudimel had set to it was printed at Paris by Adrian le Roy and Robert Ballard, with a privilege in 1565. It was reprinted in Holland in 1607 for the use of the Calvinists, but seems to have been too difficult; for we are told by the editor of the psalms of Claude le Jeune, which were printed at Leyden in 1633, and dedicated to the states-general, that in publishing the psalms in parts he had preferred the music of Claude le Jeune to that of Goudimel; for as the counterpoint was simply note for note, the most ignorant in music, if possessed of a voice and acquainted with the psalm tune, might join in the performance of any one of them; which is impracticable in the compositions of Goudimel, many of whose psalms being composed in fugue, can only be performed by persons well skilled in music.

GOUGH, RICHARD, a learned topographer and antiquary, who was born in London in 1735. He received a private education, and one of the first fruits of his studies was a translation from the French of a history of the Bible; this work was completed when he was but eleven years old. At the age of fifteen he translated Fleury's "Treatise on the Manners of the Israelites;" and, as an additional proof of his application, it may be mentioned that he formed a laborious compilation entitled "Atlas Renovatus, or Geography Modernised." In 1752 he entered as a student at Bennet College, Cambridge, and his academical pursuits appear to have been of a similar character with those which occupied his future life; as it was during the time he remained at the university that he laid the plan of his very useful work entitled "Anecdotes of British Topography," which was originally published in one volume, quarto. In 1762 he published the "History of Carausius," soon after which he was elected a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries of London, and in 1771, on the death of Dr. Gregory Sharpe, master of the Temple, he was nominated director of the society. In 1773 he first formed the design of a new edition of Camden's "Britannia," which was published in three large folio volumes in 1789. Whatever incorrectness may appear in this laborious and extensive undertaking, no trouble or expense was spared by the editor in obtaining information. Added to his own personal inspection of every county, proof sheets of each were forwarded to those gentlemen who were likely to be most actively useful. Nor could any man be more fastidious than Mr. Gough in revising and correcting his labours; and whatever discoveries some critics may affect to have made, it is certain that he always found it more difficult to satisfy himself than his readers, and that a strict scrutiny by any person qualified for the task was to him the highest obligation.

Having become acquainted with the difficulties under which Mr. Hutchins laboured respecting his "History of Dorsetshire," Mr. Gough set on foot a subscription, and was the means of advancing a



very valuable county history, which he superintended through the press. Twenty years after he contributed his assistance to a second edition of the work. In 1779 Mr. Gough was the improver and editor of Martin's "History of Thetford." In 1786 he published the first volume of the "Sepulchral Monuments of Great Britain, applied to illustrate the History of Families, Manners, Habits, and Arts, at the Different Periods from the Norman Conquest to the Seventeenth Century." This splendid folio volume, which contains the first four centuries, was followed in 1796 by a second, containing the fifteenth century; and in 1799 by an introduction to it, with which he concluded his labours.

One great object of his wishes was to prepare the "Sepulchral Monuments" for a new edition. With this constantly in view, he spared neither trouble nor expense in obtaining an ample store of accurate drawings by the first artists, all which formed a part of his subsequent bequest to the university of Oxford. Among his latest separate publications were an account of the beautiful Missal presented to Henry VI. by the duchess of Bedford, the "History of Pleshy, in Essex," and the same year, and in the same form, the "Plates of the Coins of the Seleucidæ." Mr. Gough drew up, at the united request of the president and fellows, the History of the Society of Antiquaries of London, prefixed to the first volume of their "Archæologia," in 1770, and to the eleven succeeding volumes of that work, as well as to the "Vetusta Monumenta," contributed a great many interesting articles. He was equally liberal in his communications to Mr. Nichols's "Bibliotheca Topographica," and to his "History of Leicestershire." After having resided for several years at Enfield, he died there in February 1809.

**GOW, NEIL.**—The following interesting account of this extraordinary musical character was written by the Rev. Principal Baird of the college at Edinburgh.

"Neil Gow was born in Strathband, Perthshire, of humble but honest parents, in the year 1727. His taste for music was early decided. At the age of nine he began to play, and was, it is said, self-taught, till about his thirteenth year, when he received some instruction of John Cameron, an attendant of Sir George Stewart of Grandtully. The following anecdote of a competition which happened a few years after this deserves to be related, not only as a proof of natural genius assuming its station at an early period, but on account of the circumstance with which it concludes, and which was perhaps the first acknowledgment of that peculiar professional ability to which he afterwards owed his fame. A trial of skill having been proposed amongst a few of the best performers in the country, young Neil for some time declined the contest, believing himself to be no match for such masters in the art. At last, however, he was prevailed on to enter the lists, and one of the minstrels, who was blind, being made the umpire, the prize was adjudged to Neil Gow by a sentence in the justice of which the other competitors cheerfully acquiesced. On this occasion, in giving his decision the judge said, that he could distinguish the stroke of Neil's bow among a hundred players. Having now obtained the summit of his profession at home, the distinguished patronage, first of the Athole family, and afterwards of the duchess of Gordon, soon introduced him to the notice and admiration of the

fashionable world. From this period Gow's excellence was doubtless unrivalled in his department of Scotch national music, and formed in truth an era in the progress of its improvement which has since been completed by his sons. The livelier airs which belong to the class of what are called the strathspey and reel, and which have long been peculiar to the northern part of the island, assumed in his hand a style of spirit, fire, and beauty, which had never been heard before. It is curious and interesting to inquire, on the principles of art, in what consisted the peculiar character of a performance which had thus charmed and enlivened the scenes of gaiety and innocent pleasure, with equal effect, in every rank and age of life. There is perhaps no species whatever of music executed on the violin in which the characteristic expression depends more on the power of the bow, particularly what is called the upward or returning stroke, than the Highland reel. Here accordingly was Gow's fort. His bow-hand, as a suitable instrument of his genius, was uncommonly powerful; and where the note produced by the up-bow was often feeble and indistinct in other hands, it was struck in his playing with a strength and certainty which never failed to surprise and delight the skilful hearer. As an example, may be mentioned his manner of striking the tenor C in "Athole House." To this extraordinary power of the bow in the hand of great original genius must be ascribed the singular felicity of expression which he gave to all his music, and the native Highland *gout* of certain tunes, such as Tullock Gorum, in which his taste and style of bowing could never be exactly reached by any other performer. We may add the effect of the sudden shout with which he frequently accompanied his playing in the quick tunes, and which seemed instantly to electrify the dancers, inspiring them with new life and energy, and rousing the spirits of the most inanimate. Thus it has been well observed, 'The violin in his hands sounded like the harp of Ossian, or the lyre of Orpheus, and gave reality to the poetic fictions which describe the astonishing effects of their performance.'

"The different publications which have appeared under the name of Neil Gow, and which contain not only his sets of the older tunes, but various occasional airs of his own composition, for instance, his "Lamentation for Abucairney," and "Loch Eroch Side," are striking specimens of feeling and power of embellishment. These were set and prepared for publication by his son Nathaniel, whose respectable character and propriety of conduct have long secured him the esteem and favour of the public; and whose knowledge of composition and variety of talent in the art, joined with the greatest refinement of taste, elegance of expression, and power of execution, render him (beyond all dispute) the most accomplished and successful performer of Scottish music in general ever produced by this country. In private life Neil Gow was distinguished by a sound and vigorous understanding, by a singularly acute penetration into the character of those, both in the higher and lower spheres of society, with whom he had intercourse, and by the conciliating and appropriate accommodation of his remarks and replies to the peculiarities of their station and temper. In these he often showed a high degree of forcible humour, strong sense, and knowledge of the world, and proved himself to have at once a mind naturally sagacious, and a very atten-



tive and discriminating habit of observation. But his most honourable praise is to be drawn from a view of his character which was not so obvious to the public. His moral and religious principles were originally correct, rational, and heart-felt, and they were never corrupted. His duty in the domestic relations of life he uniformly fulfilled with exemplary fidelity, generosity, and kindness. In short, by the general integrity, prudence, and propriety of his conduct, he deserved, and he lived and died possessing, as large a portion of respect from his equals, and of good-will from his superiors, as has ever fallen to any man of his rank. Though he had raised himself to independent and affluent circumstances in his old age, he continued free from every appearance of vanity or ostentation. He retained to the last the same plain and unassuming simplicity in his carriage, his dress, and his manners, which he had observed in his early and more obscure years. His figure was vigorous and manly, and the expression of his countenance spirited and intelligent. His whole appearance, indeed, exhibited so characteristic a model of what national partiality conceives a Scottish Highlander to be, that his portrait has been repeatedly copied. Four admirable likenesses of him were painted a few years ago for the duke of Athole, Lord Gray, Hon. William Maule, M.P., and for the County Hall, Perth, by Sir Henry Raeburn; and he has been introduced into the view of a Highland wedding by the late ingenious Mr. Allan, to whom he was requested to sit for the purpose. In this picture, too, Mr. Allan has preserved an admirable likeness of Donald Gow, the brother of Neil, his steady and constant violoncello, and without whose able and powerful accompaniment Neil could scarcely, in his latter days at least, be prevailed on to play a note. Such was the person to whose memory this brief biographical tribute has been thought due. It is paid unsolicited by one who had full and frequent opportunity to judge of his character. He had often listened to Neil Gow while delighting the gay by his music, he had seen him often in the midst of his family, and he had conversed with him when in sickness he was anticipating the near approach of death. He died at Inver, near Dunkeld, in 1807. Besides his eldest son Nathaniel he left another, John, who has long resided in London, and is also distinguished and admired as inheriting much of his father's musical taste and power of execution. Two other sons of equally eminent musical talents, William and Andrew, died before their father a few years ago, but not till after they had completely established their reputation as true descendants of "old Neil." On the whole, a family of such celebrity in national music as that of the Gows, Scotland is not likely soon to witness again."

GOWER, RICHARD HALL, a distinguished naval gentleman, who was born at Chelmsford in Essex. In his early youth he was sent to the grammar school at Ipswich, whence he was removed to Winchester school, and two years afterwards he had the misfortune to be deprived of his father. The rigid discipline and dull routine of scholastic exercises were little congenial to his enterprising mind and lively disposition; of these qualities, the senior boys, his most tyrannical masters, availed themselves to perform predatory excursions to the neighbouring orchards. Leaving this seminary at the age of thirteen, he entered into the service of the East India

Company as a midshipman on board the *Essex*, and became one of the brightest ornaments of that service. In that ship he soon attained a knowledge of seamanship, which led in more mature life to the production of a work entitled "A Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Seamanship." In this voyage, which was extraordinarily protracted owing to the ship being employed to convey troops to some of the enemy's settlements in India, he had an insight into all the hardships and dangers attendant upon a sailor's life. While the ship with other Indianmen under convoy were watering in Port Praya Bay, they were attacked by a French squadron under the command of M. Suffrein; and, although unprepared and part of the crew were on shore, they succeeded in driving the enemy out of the bay. During the voyage, the *Essex* was entirely dismasted, and went to Bombay to refit. The crew also suffered dreadfully from sickness, which carried off the greater portion; three were sometimes buried in a day. All these circumstances tended to increase rather than damp the ardour of the young adventurer, who, in consequence of the reduced number of hands, was made captain of the maintop, in which he lived the greater portion of his time for many months. It was here he commenced the making of models, in which he afterwards so eminently excelled; and his amusements while so stationed, with other youths under his command, were all indicative of his ingenuity and spirit. He had now arrived at the age of sixteen; and, as he frequently said, he knew a ship from keel to truck, but how to navigate her across the boundless expanse of the ocean was still to him a mystery; he therefore no sooner landed in England, than, with the determination of making himself master of the art of navigation, he put himself under the instruction of Mr. Adams, under whose care he made such rapid progress, that upon rejoining the ship the next voyage he went by the name of the "young philosopher." The great inaccuracy in the mode of measuring a ship's way through the water induced Mr. Gower to turn his attention to the improvement of the log, and an instrument was made under his instructions, about the year 1788, which effected the object with much accuracy. In the invention of this instrument, for which a patent was obtained, the inventor was ably assisted by his preceptor in astronomy and mathematics.

The result of the leisure afforded by retirement from actual employment was a vessel built under his directions at Itchenor, in the year 1800, when only house carpenters were employed in her construction, from the difficulty Mr. Gower anticipated from shipwrights wishing to follow the old beaten track. She was rigged with four masts; on the foremast of which square sails were hoisted, and on the others, fore and aft, sails of a peculiar shape, &c. With these the vessel (the *Transit*) sailed remarkably fast, was dry, and held to windward in an extraordinary manner. In the spring of 1801 the *Transit* was tried with the *Osprey*, a fast-sailing sloop of war, appointed by government for that purpose. According to the journal kept on that occasion, the *Osprey* being eight miles upon the lee quarter, the *Transit* tacked according to signal, bore down, hailed, and again left her; in less than three hours the *Osprey* was nearly hull down, and was soon after lost sight of, having been beaten before the wind, close hauled,

and with the wind quartering. This experiment on the qualities of the *Transit* was instituted with the view of her being purchased by the East India Company for a packet, and one of the officers of the Master Attendants' department was stationed on board to report on her merits; yet, notwithstanding the success attending this trial, Mr. Gower had the mortification of afterwards learning that nothing would be done on the subject, and the vessel proceeded on her previously intended voyage after considerable loss had been sustained by the detention incident to this experimental cruise.

The work on *Practical Seamanship* requiring a third edition, it was published in 1807, with a supplemental volume, containing an account of his improvement in the *Transit*. Copies of the latter work were presented to the leading members of the government, in consequence of which, a vessel was built by government at Ipswich in the early part of 1809 from a plan of Mr. Gower's, but which was deviated from in many particulars while she was building. This vessel was intended to be used as an advice-boat, but the service was changed into that of warfare, and the admiralty, the navy board, and the projector, had each their separate views of the manner of fitting and manning her.

A third vessel, on the construction proposed by Mr. Gower, was built in 1809 for the purpose of a yacht, and though rigged on the same principles as the original *Transit*, had only three masts; this third *Transit* sailed, worked, and manœuvred, in a manner that astonished and delighted all who saw her and were competent to judge of her powers.

The year 1812 called upon Mr. Gower to employ his mechanical talents in a direction foreign to his usual pursuits, and he became a candidate for the premium of a hundred guineas for a lock "to save water, and give facility to passage," to be applied to the Regent's canal, in the obtaining of which he was unsuccessful; yet some years afterwards he found that locks of the same description had been erected on that canal. About the same time he built a yacht, called the *Unique*, the chief objects in the construction of which were economy of timber and small draft of water. The following year Mr. Gower invented a fly-boat, to be used against the small and swift American cruisers, then doing much mischief in the channel, for which he was highly complimented by the lords of the admiralty, but peace prevented the necessity of employing it. He also projected a set of signals, formed by shapes instead of flags.

Being now the father of a large family, and having met with many disappointments and losses in his experimental career, he felt it necessary to devote his time to the education of his children. "From this time," he says, in a letter to a friend, "I ceased to follow my naval experiments, and became almost as one who had never known salt water, my time being occupied by the instruction of my children in a way peculiar to myself. While life exists those years will never be forgotten by my very dear children; they were the rivets of affection between the parent and his offspring: they were the best spent and most happy days of my existence; and I can truly say, I never acted a more wise part, as it obtained for me all their best affections."

It would be tedious to enumerate many plans connected with shipping, besides those already men-

tioned, in which the valuable life of Mr. Gower was engaged; but he had the gratification, towards its close, of seeing many of his inventions and improvements in naval architecture brought into practice. The catamaran for forming a raft was constructed and tried by him so far back as 1810. This floating platform may be eminently useful in many instances, besides the opportunity it would afford of escape in cases of shipwreck. A life-boat on a novel plan was built by him, to be used at Landguard Fort; and one of his earliest inventions was a tube to convey sounds from the tops to the deck; and, though not yet brought into general practice on shipboard, speaking tubes have been extensively used in manufactories and other buildings on shore. The propeller, or floating anchor, was another of his improvements, if not inventions, and an experiment with it took place but a few days before his death. Many of his leisure hours were occupied in the composition of minor articles of a beneficial tendency on marine subjects, and which appeared in the journals of the day, some of which are reprinted in a work which he lived just long enough to complete. Mr. Gower died early in 1833.

GRACCHUS, TIBERIUS, a Roman consul, who early distinguished himself for eloquence and deep political knowledge. In conformity with the Roman custom, he passed his youth in the military service, and as his influence increased, stimulated by the abject condition of the lower classes of Roman citizens, he attempted to revive a modification of the Licinian law, but he met with the most determined opposition from the patricians. He was, however, defeated in the first instance by his colleague Cæina. He then took a step which the strange constitution of Rome allowed, and suspended all the magistrates from the execution of their offices. This strong measure not availing, he induced the people to deprive Cæcina of his office, upon which the agrarian law was passed; and Gracchus in conjunction with several others was appointed to see the law put into execution. He then planned several other regulations for abridging the authority of the nobles, until the latter determined to make a final stand; and on the day for the election of the tribunes, Scipio Nasica, a member of one of the most distinguished families, who had been consul,—a great land-owner and a violent aristocrat,—arose, and called upon the consuls to use force. When they refused, he called out, irritated to fury, "Whoever loves the republic, let him follow me," and, with his followers, rushed from the curia in haste. A great multitude, consisting principally of senators and persons who had been magistrates, armed themselves with clubs and similar weapons, and made an onset upon the people, who, more out of respect for their dignity than in fear, gave way before them, few making any attempt to defend themselves.

In the tumult which followed, Tiberius himself, with 300 of his followers, was slain. But this first shedding of the blood of citizens was not sufficient to allay the ferment which had been excited. A democratic party was formed in opposition to the senate, and considered itself justified in proceeding to extremities. The boldest speakers pressed into the tribuneship, and disguised their ambitious projects under the revered name of Gracchus. In this way the tribune of the people, Carbo, two years after the death of Tiberius, disturbed the quiet of



the state with new propositions. He subsequently rejoined the aristocratic party. Another principal man among the people, Fulvius Flaccus, even became consul, and, while in that high office, would have excited great troubles by the large promises which he had made to the allies had not the senate given him a command in Gaul. The execution of the Sempronian law, too, which still continued, the law being in no way affected by the death of Tiberius, afforded continual occasions for fresh commotions. The place of the murdered Tiberius was filled by Licinius Crassus, father-in-law of Caius Gracchus; and, on his death, Carbo, Fulvius Flaccus, and Caius Gracchus, constituted the committee appointed for the enforcement of the law. In this way the parties had struggled with various success, when, ten years after the death of his brother Tiberius (year of Rome 630), the younger Gracchus obtained the tribuneship. With more various and shining talents than his brother, he united a stormy eloquence, which carried away his hearers. In the discharge of his office as tribune he first of all renewed his brother's law, and revenged his memory by expelling many of his most violent enemies from the city. At the same time he carried through a law, "that monthly distributions of a certain quantity of corn should be made to the poor in Rome," and, by another law, effected some alleviations in the rigour of the military service, and ensured for the soldiers clothing besides their pay. He also caused some additional highways to be run through Italy. The people were animated with an unlimited enthusiasm for their favourite; his enemies were terrified and weakened; hence he obtained the renewal of his office for the following year with ease. His attempt to introduce three hundred knights into the senate failed; but on the other hand, at his proposal, the administration of justice was taken from the senate, and transferred to the equestrian order. This gave rise to a new political power in the Roman commonwealth, which, holding a station intermediate between the senate and the people, had a most powerful influence in its subsequent history.

The senate now resorted to a new, but sure, means of destroying Caius. Livius Drusus, a tribune gained over to their interests, had the art to withdraw the affections of the populace from Caius by making greater promises to them, and thus obtained a superior popularity for himself and the senate. Hence it resulted that Caius did not obtain a third tribuneship, and Opimius, one of his bitterest enemies, was chosen to the consulate. A tumult, in which a lictor of Opimius was killed, gave the senate a pretence for empowering the consuls to take strong measures. A proposition, which Opimius made to the people for the repeal of a law of Gracchus (it only related to a colony which he had procured to be decreed, but it was used as a test of the repeal of all the laws which had been passed by the Gracchi) increased the ferment. Gracchus appeared upon the forum, and Flaccus had his followers armed. Upon this Opimius made an attack upon the people with a well-armed band of disciplined soldiers. Nearly 3000 were slain, and Gracchus himself, although bravely defended by some faithful friends, fell a sacrifice to the rage of his enemy. The agrarian law was some time after repealed, but the reverence of the people for the senate was destroyed by the political efforts of Gracchus.

GRÆME, JOHN, a Scottish poet, who was born

in Lanarkshire in 1748. He was the son of a small farmer, who, on discovering his early capacity, found means to have him well educated, and finally removed him to the university of Edinburgh. His turn for elegant composition first appeared in the solution of a philosophical question proposed as a college exercise, which he exemplified in the form of a poetic tale. Mr. Græme fell a victim to consumption in 1772, leaving behind him some very clever poems, which were afterwards collected and published.

GRAFTON, RICHARD, an English chronicler, who flourished in the sixteenth century. He was by profession a printer, and is believed to have assisted in the writing of Hall's "Chronicles," especially that portion entitled "The Union of the Two Noble and Illustrious Families of York and Lancaster." He also compiled a chronicle at large of the "Affayres of Englande, from the Creation of the Worlde unto Queene Elizabeth." The precise time of his decease is not known, but it is believed to have taken place about 1580.

GRAHAM, GEORGE, a celebrated clock and watch maker, who was born in the north of Cumberland in 1675, and in 1688 came up to London. After he had been some time with another master, Tompion received him into his family, and treated him with parental affection till his death. Graham was the best mechanic of his time, and had a complete knowledge of practical astronomy; so that he not only gave to various movements for the mensuration of time a degree of perfection which had never before been attained, but invented several astronomical instruments.

The great mural arch in the observatory at Greenwich was made for Dr. Halley under his immediate inspection, and divided by his own hand, and from it the best instruments of the kind in Europe have subsequently been made.

He was many years a member of the Royal Society, to which he communicated several important discoveries, particularly an alteration in the magnetic needle, a quicksilver pendulum, and many interesting particulars relating to the true length of the simple pendulum, upon which he continued to make experiments till a few years before his death. His temper was not less communicative than his genius was penetrating, and his principal view was not either the accumulation of wealth or the diffusion of his fame, but the advancement of science and the benefit of mankind. As he was perfectly sincere, he was without suspicion; as he was above envy, he was candid; and as he had a relish for true pleasure, he was generous. He frequently lent money, but could never be prevailed upon to take any interest; and for that reason he never placed out any money upon government securities.

He was the author of several valuable papers in the "Philosophical Transactions," and died in 1751.

GRAINGER, EDWARD, an eminent lecturer on anatomy and physiology, who was the son of a respectable surgeon resident at Birmingham, from whom, after he had completed a classical education, he received the first rudiments of medical science. He passed through the usual studies in London with uncommon credit, and having become a member of the College of Surgeons, commenced in June 1819, at the early age of twenty-two, a course of lectures on anatomy and physiology in the Borough. Lord Bacon says, men are wise not by years, but by

hours; and the result showed how competent Mr. Grainger was to discharge the duties of his office, for his class increased in such unexampled numbers, that being compelled to quit a spacious apartment, fitted up for demonstrations, he erected in 1821 a commodious theatre near Guy's Hospital, with every convenience necessary for the study of anatomy. His class, however, still continuing to augment in the same proportion, he converted the first theatre into a museum, and built a much larger one, which he opened in October 1823, surrounded by near 300 pupils, into whom he had infused an enthusiasm for the profession which was only to be equalled by their respect for his abilities, and their esteem for his personal character. But at this very period, when all seemed so prosperous, an insidious disease, the consequence of his excessive labours, began to display itself, and in despite of the attentions of his friends, and the endeavours of the faculty, it advanced, and terminated his life.

The causes which led so rapidly to the high and deserved reputation of Mr. Edward Grainger were, first, his intimate knowledge of the structure and functions of the human body; secondly, his surprising power of arranging and exhibiting that knowledge so distinctly as to make what he taught plainly intelligible; and, thirdly, the deep interest which he took in the welfare and improvement of his pupils, being at all times their sincere friend and accessible preceptor. When it is considered that anatomy and physiology constitute the only true basis of medical science, and how deeply important that science is in its practical application, the death of such a man is not a greater calamity to his friends than it is a loss to the profession and the public.

GRANGER, JAMES, a clergyman, who was distinguished for his labours in illustration of engraved British portraits. In this respect he may be said to have done more for the fine arts than for English history, as his biographical sketches are exceedingly short. He died April 15, 1776.

GRAMMONT, PHILIBERT, COUNT OF.—This nobleman was the son of Anthony, duke of Grammont. He served with great distinction under the prince of Condé and Turenne; but having displeased Louis XIV. by paying his addresses to a French lady, who stood high in the favour of that monarch, he was obliged to fly to England. Charles the Second received him with great distinction, and he remained in great favour with him till his death. Count Grammont died in 1707.

GRANT, JANE.—This talented writer was the daughter of Captain Campbell, and born at Glasgow in 1756. Miss Campbell early in life married the Rev. Mr. Grant, by whom she had a large family; and at the time of his death in 1801 found it necessary to commence authoress for their support. The "Highlanders" was her first work, and it was succeeded by the "Memoirs of an American Lady," and several other books of a most interesting character. But the "Essay on the Superstitions of the Highlanders of Scotland" is her most celebrated production.

GRANT, SIR WILLIAM, a distinguished lawyer, born in 1754. He was educated in the old college of Aberdeen, and afterwards proceeded to London, where he became a student in Lincoln's Inn. He was soon appointed attorney-general of Canada, and on his return to England confined his practice to the chancery bar. At the general election in 1790

Mr. Grant was returned as member of parliament for Shaftesbury, when he closely united himself to the party of Mr. Pitt. In 1798 he was appointed chief justice of Chester, and in 1801 became master of the rolls. In 1817 he retired from his public duties, but retained his health till the time of his death, which occurred May 25th, 1832.

GRANT, FRANCIS, LORD CULLEN, an eminent lawyer and judge in Scotland, who was descended from a younger branch of the ancient family of the Grants, his ancestor in a direct line being Sir John Grant, who married Lady Margaret Stuart, daughter of the earl of Athol. He was born about 1660, and received the first part of his education at Aberdeen; but, being intended for the profession of the law, was sent to finish his studies at Leyden under the celebrated Voet, with whom he became so great a favourite that many years afterwards the professor mentioned him to his pupils as one that had done great honour to the university, and recommended his example to them. On his return to Scotland he passed through the examination requisite for his being admitted advocate; and, being thus qualified for practice, he soon got into full employ by the distinguishing figure which he made at the revolution in 1688. At this period some of the old lawyers, in pursuance of the principles in which they had been bred, argued warmly against those upon which the Revolution which had taken place in England was founded; and particularly insisted on the inability of the convention of estates to make any disposition of the crown. Grant opposed these notions with great strength and spirit, and about that time published a treatise, in which he undertook, by the principles of law, to prove that a king might forfeit his crown for himself and his descendants; and that in such a case the states had a power to dispose of it, and to establish and limit a legal succession, concluding with the warmest recommendations of the prince of Orange to the regal dignity.

This work being generally read was thought to have considerable influence on the public resolutions, and certainly recommended him to both parties in the way of his profession. Those who differed from him in opinion admired his courage, and were desirous of making use of his abilities; as, on the other hand, those who were friends to the Revolution were likewise so to him, which brought him into great business, and procured him, by special commissions, frequent employment from the crown; in all which he acquitted himself with so much honour, that as soon as the union of the two kingdoms came to be seriously considered in the English court, Queen Anne unexpectedly, as well as without application, created him a baronet in 1705, and about a year after appointed him one of the judges.

From this time, according to the custom of Scotland, he was styled from the name of his estate Lord Cullen, and the same good qualities which had recommended him to this post were very conspicuous in the discharge of it; in which he continued for twenty years with the highest reputation, when a period was put to his life by an illness which lasted but three days. This occurred March 16th, 1726.

Lord Cullen's biographer furnishes the following estimate of his character:—"When his merit had raised him to the bench, he thought himself accountable to God and man for his conduct in that high office; and that deep sense of his duty, at the



same time that it kept him strictly to it, encouraged and supported him in the performance. The pleadings in Scotland are carried on chiefly in writing, which renders them sometimes very prolix, so as to take up much of a judge's time, and to exercise alike his parts and his patience in going through and making himself master of them. In this the diligence and dexterity of Lord Cullen were equally conspicuous; he went through every thing that came into his hands very carefully, and sifted it thoroughly, so that the lawyers at the bar never found themselves too strong for the bench, but on the contrary were often told many things by his lordship which had either escaped their notice or which the interest of their client had engaged them to conceal. As his attention to the pleadings guided him to the real merits of the cause, so when he was once master of these, his second care was to despatch. He knew that in judicature the next fault to denying was delaying justice, by which families are always injured, and too often ruined. Whenever, therefore, he had provided against being mistaken, he was desirous of bringing the matter to a short decision; and as he was very solicitous about the former, so the parties themselves helped him not a little as to the latter. Whenever he sat as lord ordinary, the paper of causes was remarkably full; for his reputation being equally established for knowledge and integrity, there were none who had a good opinion of their own pretensions but were desirous of bringing them before him, and not many who did not sit down satisfied with his decision. This prevailed more especially after it was found that few of his sentences were reversed; and when they were, it was commonly owing to himself; for if, upon mature reflection, or upon new reasons offered at the re-hearing, he saw any just ground for altering his judgment, he made no scruple of declaring it, being persuaded that it was more manly, as well as more just, to follow truth than to support opinion; and his conduct in this respect had a right effect, for, instead of lessening, it raised his reputation.

"His experience, though it quickened his penetration, did not lessen his diligence in the least. How certain soever he might be of the truth of his own sentiments, he took great care to have all the assistance that was to be received from books, and never failed to fortify his arguments and support his reasoning by the best authorities. His colleagues were so well aware, and so much approved of this, that they very seldom decided any knotty case that came before them in his absence, but rather chose to adjourn it. 'We shall hear,' said they, 'not only brother Cullen's own opinion, but that of all the greatest lawyers upon this point.' His labours in this respect, though he proposed no other end in them than the promoting of justice, were attended with universal applause, and procured him a character, to which he had the fairest title, of being one of the ablest and deepest lawyers of his time. He would not, however, with all his great stock of knowledge, experience, and probity, trust himself in matters of blood, or venture to decide in criminal cases on the lives of his fellow-creatures, which was the reason that, though often solicited, he could never be prevailed upon to accept of a seat in the judiciary court; for though in England the same judges hear civil and criminal causes in virtue of different commissions, yet it is otherwise in Scotland, where

criminal causes are heard in a different court, by a certain number of lords selected together for that purpose out of the body of the judges, and have an additional salary on that account."

**GRANVILLE, GEORGE, VISCOUNT LANSDOWNE**, an English poet of the seventeenth century, who was descended of a family distinguished for their loyalty. In his infancy he was sent to France under the tuition of Sir William Ellys, from whom he not only imbibed a taste for classical learning, but was also instructed in all other accomplishments suitable to his rank. He early removed to Cambridge, and on account of his extraordinary merit he was created M.A. at the age of thirteen, and he left college two years afterwards.

During the reign of King William he retired from court into private life, enjoying "the company of his Muse," which he employed in celebrating the reigning beauties of that age, as Waller, whom he strove to imitate, had done those of the preceding. We have also several dramatic pieces written in the early part of his life, of which the "British Enchanters," he tells us himself, "was the first essay of a very infant Muse; being written at his first entrance into his teens, and attempted rather as a task of hours free from other exercises than any way meant for public entertainment." But Betterton, the actor, having had a casual sight of it many years after it was written, begged it for the stage, where it found so favourable a reception as to have an uninterrupted run of at least forty nights. His other pieces for the stage were all well received; and we are assured that they owed that reception to their own merit "as much as to the general esteem and respect that all the polite world professed for their author." Wit and learning know no party; and Addison joined with Dryden in sounding Granville's praises.

About this period we find him introducing Wycherley and Pope to the acquaintance of Henry St. John, afterwards Lord Viscount Bolingbroke. The latter, having formed a design of celebrating such of the poets of that age as he thought deserved any notice, had applied for a character of the former to our author, who, in reply, having done justice to Wycherley's merit, concludes his letter thus:—"In short, Sir, I'll have you judge for yourself. I am not satisfied with this imperfect sketch; name your day, and I will bring you together; I shall have both your thanks, let it be at my lodging. I can give you no Falernian that has outlived twenty consulships, but I can promise you a bottle of good claret that has seen two reigns. Horatian wit will not be wanting when you two meet. He shall bring with him, if you will, a young poet newly inspired in the neighbourhood of Cooper's Hill, whom he and Walsh have taken under their wing. His name is Pope; he is not above seventeen or eighteen years of age, and promises miracles. If he goes on as he has begun in the pastoral way, as Virgil first tried his strength, we may hope to see English poetry vie with the Roman, and this swan of Windsor sing as sweetly as the Mantuan. I expect your answer."

Sacheverell's trial, which happened not long after, brought on that remarkable change in the ministry in 1710 when Mr. Granville's friends came into power. He was elected for the borough of Helston, but being also returned for the county of Cornwall, he chose to represent the latter; and, September 29, he was declared secretary of war in the room of

Robert Walpole. He continued in this office for some time, and discharged it with reputation; and towards the close of the next year, 1711, married Lady Mary Villiers.

His lordship still continued steady to his former connexions, and in that spirit entered his protest with them against the bills for attaining Lord Bolingbroke and the duke of Ormond in 1715. He even entered deeply into the scheme for raising an insurrection in the west of England, and was at the head of it, if we may believe Lord Bolingbroke, who represents him possessed now with the same political frenzy for the pretender as he had shown in his youth for his father.

Lord Lansdowne was seized as a suspected person, September 26, 1715, and committed prisoner to the Tower of London, where he continued a long time. He was, however, liberated in 1717. In 1719 we find him as warm as ever in defence of his political principles, and the first time he spoke in the House of Lords in the debates about repealing the act against occasional conformity, he did not scruple openly to charge the rebellion in 1715 to the misconduct of the administration. He told their lordships, "that he [always] understood the act of toleration to be meant as an indulgence for tender consciences, not a license for hardened ones; and that the act to prevent occasional conformity was designed only to correct a particular crime of particular men, in which no sect of dissenters was included, but those followers of Judas who came to the Lord's Supper for no other end but to sell and betray him. It is very surprising," continues he, "to hear the merit of dissenters so highly extolled and magnified within these walls. Who is there among us but can tell of some ancestor either sequestered or murdered by them? Who voted the lords useless? The dissenters. Who abolished episcopacy? The dissenters. Who destroyed freedom of parliaments? The dissenters. Who introduced governing by standing armies? The dissenters. Who washed their hands in the blood of their martyred sovereign? The dissenters. Have they repented? No: they glory in their wickedness at this day." He proceeds to remark the turbulency of the dissenters from Charles I. to Queen Anne; and, with regard to the then present reign, he observes, "That they have remained, as has been said, not only quiet, but appeared zealous in supporting the present establishment, is no wonder: for who but themselves, or their favourers, have been thought worthy of countenance? If there be an universal discontent among the people at this time, the reason is plain, is flagrant, is notorious;—the early impatience and presumption of the dissenters,—their insolent and undissembled expectations,—their open insults of the clergy,—their affixing bills upon our very church doors with this scandalous inscription, 'A House to be Lett,'—their public vindications of the murder of Charles I. and their vile reflections upon the memory of Queen Anne, for ever dear to the people of England. Besides many other indecent and arrogant provocations, too many to enumerate, too much to bear. The violences that ensued let the aggressors answer for. Their acting all this, not only with impunity, but with reward out of the public treasure, was more than sufficient reason for jealousy—a jealousy for which this new attempt to break down all the fences and boundaries of the church at once will indeed be no remedy."

His lordship continued steady in the same sentiments, which were so opposite to those of the court, till the time of his death, which occurred January 30, 1735.

GRATIUS, an eminent Latin poet, supposed to have been contemporary with Ovid. We have a poem of his, entitled "Cynegeticon, or the Art of Hunting with Dogs;" but it is imperfect towards the end, so that in strictness it can only be called a fragment. The style of this poem is pure, but without elevation, the poet having been more solicitous to instruct than to please his readers. He is also censured for dwelling too long on fables, and as he is considered much superior to Nemesianus, who has treated on the same subject, so he is reckoned in all points inferior to the Greek poet Oppian, who wrote his *Cynegetics* and *Halieutics* under Severus and Carracalla, to whom he presented them, and who is said to have rewarded the poet very magnificently.

GRATIUS, ORTUINUS.—This learned scholar was born at Holwic at the close of the fifteenth century. He was educated at Cologne, where he was for many years a professor. His attachment to the Catholic religion involved him in disputes with Reuchlin, Hutten, and other professors; who, to ridicule the style of the Catholic divines, the monks, and various religious ceremonies, are supposed to have published "Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum ad Dominum Magistrum Ortuinum Gratium," in 1516 and 1517, in two parts, of which there have been editions since. But it is more probable that this book was written by Van Hutten and John Jæger, the latter of whom returned to the church of Rome, and was then reproached by Christopher Olearius for writing such a satire. Erasmus is said to have been so pleased with it as to be thrown into a violent fit of laughter, which burst an imposthume in his face. It was condemned by Leo X., and Gratus wrote, in opposition to it, "Lamentationes Obscurorum Virorum non prohibita per Sedem Apostolicam." He also published "Triumphus B. Job," in elegiac verse, in three books. Gratus died at Cologne, May 22, 1542.

GRATTAN, HENRY.—This distinguished Irish orator was born in 1751, and was educated in the university of Dublin. He became a member of the Irish bar in 1772, where he made but little progress as a lawyer till after he was elected a member of the House of Commons. There, however, his political talents quickly raised him to the highest eminence, and the Irish parliament speedily voted a sum of 50,000*l.* for his services to the sister kingdom.

From this period the character of Mr. Grattan became fully established. He now began to be considered as the leader of the country party in the House of Commons: he might also be deemed the leader of the Irish Whig-club. This association came to a resolution, by which all the members pledged themselves not to accept offices under any administration which should not concede certain measures to the people. These consisted of a bill to make the great officers of the crown responsible for their measures, a bill to prevent revenue-officers from voting at elections, together with a place and a pension bill. Among other subjects which at this time engaged our orator's attention, was the establishment of a provision for the clergy, independent of tithes; he also brought in a bill to encourage the improvement of barren lands, by exempting re-



claimed wastes from the payment of all ecclesiastical dues during the space of seven years. The heads of the established church opposed these innovations with all their influence, and the two measures were of course rejected by the legislature, as were also Mr. Grattan's early efforts for concessions to the Catholic body.

Finding his labours in parliament unavailing for bettering the condition of his country, he vacated his seat in that assembly. But his retirement from public life was but for a short period, for no sooner did Mr. Pitt propose his grand project for a union with this country than Grattan was seen at his post in the Irish parliament. We may take a specimen of his oratory, illustrative of the Irish representatives in an English parliament.

"I will not say," observes Mr. Grattan, "that one hundred Irish gentlemen will act ill where any other man would act well, but never was there a situation in which they had so much temptation to act ill and so little to act well: great expense, and consequent distresses—no check. They will be in situation a sort of gentlemen of the empire; that is to say, gentlemen at large, unowned by one country, and unelected by the other; suspended between both; false to both, and belonging to neither. The sagacious English secretary of state has foretold this. 'What advantage,' says he, 'will it be to the talents of Ireland, this opportunity in the British empire thus opened?' This is what we dread: the market of St. Stephen's opened to the individual, and the talents of the country, like its property, dragged from the kingdom of Ireland to be sold in London. These men, from their situation—man is the child of situation—their native honour may struggle, but, from their situation, they will be adventurers of the most expensive kind; adventurers with pretensions, dressed and sold, as it were, in the shroud and grave-clothes of the Irish parliament, and playing for hire their tricks upon her tomb, the only repository the minister will allow to an Irish constitution; the images of degradation, the representatives of nothing. Come, he has done much: he has destroyed one constitution, he has corrupted another; and this corrupted constitution he calls a parental parliament. I congratulate the country on the new baptism of what was once called the representative body of the nation: instead of the plain august language of the constitution, we are here saluted with the novel and barbaric phraseology of empire. With this change of name we perceive a transfer of obligation, converting the duty of the delegate into the duty of the constituent, and the inheritance of the people into the inheritance of their trustees."

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"But if this monster of political innovation is to prove more than the chimera of a mad minister rioting in political iniquity—away, with the Castle at your head, to the grave of a Charlemont, the father of the Irish volunteers, and, rioting over that sacred dust, exult in your completed task, and enjoy all its consequent honours. Nor yet will the memory of those who opposed you wholly die away: the gratitude of the future men of Ireland will point to their tombs, and say to their children, 'Here lie the bones of those honest men who, when a venal and corrupt parliament attacked that constitution which they fought for and acquired, exerted every nerve to maintain, to defend, and to secure it.' This is an

honour which the king cannot confer upon his slaves; it is an honour which the crown never gave the king."

When the war with France took place, Mr. Grattan approved of it, or rather he affected to consider Ireland as bound, with all its might, to assist Great Britain when once engaged in the contest. This, at least, was the opinion entertained by him during the short administration of Lord Fitzwilliam; and in this opinion he remained until he found that the continuation of hostilities threatened the empire with ruin, either from the incapacity of those by whom it was conducted, or the murmurs which it occasioned. In Ireland, indeed, discontent had been spreading with incalculable velocity, and deepening as it spread. The pertinacity and insolence with which the administration had rejected the petitions of the Catholics, and the rapidity and inconsistency with which they granted the prayer of those petitions at the first suggestion of the British cabinet; the obstinacy with which they refused ever to hear of a reform, the advocates of which were blackened with abuse and calumniated as traitors; the enormous increase of court-influence, by the shameless and wanton increase of sinecure offices; the lavish profusion of titles; and, above all, the trick which it was supposed the British cabinet had played off on Ireland, by sending Lord Fitzwilliam with concessions which were revoked when the supply was voted; all these causes had already generated a degree of discontent in the country, of which no instance had been known in former times.

The celebrated society of united Irishmen, who associated (whatever their real principles might have been) under the pretext of reform, derived from these discontents new vigour: they had disseminated their principles through the island, and they were already embraced by a great portion of the population of the country.

Mr. Grattan, perceiving the danger in which the state was involved by this system of ministers, constantly resisted it with all his power. He was seconded by a small, but active and able opposition, which left no exertion untried to reconcile the court and the country, by advising measures which would have ranged every moderate and good man on the side of parliament and the throne, and thus have weakened the republican and French factions, which had now become so powerful. These efforts were, unfortunately, not successful. Instead of conciliating, the administration continued to exasperate, and, scorning to resort to lenitives, applied the most powerful caustics: for every measure of moderation or concession which was proposed by Mr. Grattan and his party, one of severity and coercion was substituted, until the cabinet ultimately arrived at military law and free quarters!

Such are the leading facts which marked the life of one who, whatever may be thought of him by his opponents, will have his merits and defects examined fairly by posterity, and, in all probability, be acknowledged by them as a great man. Of his private life there is but little generally known, because little occurred in it to interest attention. It passed on in a smooth manner, marked equally by the practice of every conjugal and domestic virtue. If there be any of his good qualities which verge on the confines of vice, it was his economy, of which it has been asserted that it approached towards penuriousness. It



has been often said that though he received in early life, from the liberality of his country, a very handsome addition to his patrimony, he never displayed, either in private or public, a munificent disposition. But it should be remembered that the fortune which Mr. Grattan obtained then constituted nearly the whole of his acquisitions; he practised in no profession, he accepted no place, and he soon saw a young family rising around him, for which the whole was not a very ample provision.

In private life Mr. Grattan displayed manners that were in a high degree pleasing. Wit he seemed not to possess, and he had a cast of mind too lofty for humour; but if he did not 'set the table in a roar,' or dazzle with the radiance of fancy, he diffused over the convivial hour the mild charms of good-humour, and softened society with unassuming gentleness. In conversation he appeared to great advantage; for, with a mind well stored with useful learning, and conversant on every topic which occurred, he had a facility of expression which communicated his meaning in the most concise and impressive manner. He was not argumentative, but when an argument was instituted his opinions were urged with great modesty, but with great strength; and, if victor in the contest, he generously relinquished the field to the vanquished.

As a public speaker Mr. Grattan ranked in the highest class. In his orations there was a grandeur which marked a mind of superior order, and enforced at once reverence and admiration. On every subject which he treated he threw a radiance that enlightened without dazzling, and, while it assisted the judgment, delighted the imagination. His style was always peculiar, for it varied its character with the occasion; at one time close and energetic, it concentrated the force of his argument and compelled conviction; at another, diffuse, lofty, and magnificent, it applied itself to every faculty of the mind, charming the fancy, influencing the will, and convincing the understanding. At all times his manner was animated with a pleasing warmth, which rendered it impossible to hear him without interest, but on some occasions he exerted a power which was irresistible.

In 1805 Mr. Grattan was chosen to represent Malton in the British parliament, and in 1806 he obtained the honour of being elected one of the members for Dublin. In this capacity, notwithstanding the marked and uniform opposition of the corporation, he continued with his accustomed zeal to support the cause of the Catholics. Accordingly, notwithstanding his increasing years and declining health, he complied with an unanimous requisition on the part of the Catholics of Ireland to carry their petition to England, and present it to as well as support it in the British parliament. On this measure being represented by some of his friends as incompatible with his health, he nobly replied, that "he would be happy to die in the discharge of his duty." This event accordingly took place soon after his arrival in London, where he died May 14th, 1820.

In the preceding brief sketch of this highly gifted individual we have viewed him only as a patriotic supporter of the political rights of his countrymen; but his greatest efforts were made against that incubus on Irish prosperity,—the tithe system. On this subject, which he had studied in all its bearings, his opinions are highly valuable, and we cannot do better than present our readers with a short extract from

his written opinions illustrative of the origin of tithes.

He commences this branch of his subject by quoting the caution of the great founder of Christianity: "Take care that your hearts be not charged with surfeiting and drunkenness, and the cares of this life." "One should," observes Mr. Grattan, "not think that our Saviour was laying the foundation of tithe, but cutting up the roots of the claim, and prophetically admonishing some of the modern priesthood. If these precepts are of divine right, tithes cannot be so; the precept which orders a contempt of riches, cannot sanction the claim which demands a tenth of the fruits of the earth for the ministers of the gospel. The peasantry in apostolic times had been the object of charity, not of exaction. Those to whose cabin the tithe-farmer has gone for tithe of turf, and to whose garden he has gone for the tithe-potatoes, the apostles would have visited likewise; but they would have visited with contribution, not for exaction; the poor had shared with the apostles though they contribute to the churchman. The gospel is not an argument for, but against the right divine of tithes; so are the first fathers of the church.

"Cyprian, the bishop of Carthage, tells you the expenses of the church are frugal and sparing, but her charity great. He calls the clergy his *fratres sportulantes*; a fraternity living by contribution. 'Forsake,' says Origen, 'the priests of Pharaoh, who have earthly possessions, and come to us who have none; we must not consume what belongs to the poor; we must be content with simple fare and poor apparel.' Chrysostom in the close of the fourth century declares that there was no practice of tithes in the former ages; and Erasmus says that the attempt to demand them was no better than tyranny. But there is an authority still higher than the opinions of the fathers; there is an authority of a council—the council of Antioch in the fourth century, which declares that bishops may distribute the goods of the church, but must take no part to themselves, nor to the priests that lived with them, unless necessity required them justly. 'Have food and raiment, be therewith content.'

"This was the state of the church in its purity. In the fifth century decimation began, and Christianity declined; then indeed the right of tithe was advanced, and advanced into a style that damned it. The preachers who advanced the doctrine placed all Christian virtue in the payment of tithe. They said that the Christian religion, as we say the Protestant religion, depended on it. They said that those who paid not their tithes would be found guilty before God, and if they did not give the tenth that God would reduce the country to a tenth. Blasphemous preachers! Gross ignorance of the nature of things! Impudent familiarity with the ways of God! Audacious, assumed knowledge of his judgment, and a false denunciation of his vengeance. And yet even these rapacious blasphemous men did not acknowledge to demand tithe for themselves, but for the poor; alms, the debt of charity! the poor's patrimony! 'We do not limit you to a precise sum, but you will not give less than the Jews:—*decimæ sunt tributa egentium animarum, redde tributa pauperibus*. Augustine goes on and tells you, that as many poor as die in your neighbourhood for want, you not paying tithe, of so many murders will you be found guilty at the tribunal of God:—*tantorum homicidio-*



*rum reus ante tribunal eterni Judicis apparebit.* 'Let us,' says St. Jerome, 'at least follow the example of the Jews, and part of the whole give to the priest and the poor.' To these authorities we are to add the decrees of two councils,—the provincial council of Mascon in the close of the sixth century, and the decree of the council of Nantz in the close of the ninth. The first orders that tithes may be brought in by the people, that the priest may expend them for the use of the poor and the redemption of captives; the latter decrees that the clergy are to use the tithes not as a property but a trust.

"It was not the table of the priest, nor his domestics, nor his apparel, nor his influence, nor his ambition,—but a Christian equipage of tender virtues, for the widow, the orphan, and the poor. They did not demand the tithes as a corporation of proprietors, like an East India company, or a South Sea company, with great rights of property annexed, distinct from the community and from religion, but as trustees, humble trustees to God and the poor, pointed out, they presumed, by excess of holiness and contempt of riches. Nor did they resort to decimation even under these plausible pretensions until forced by depredations committed by themselves on one another. The goods of the church, of whatever kind, were at first in common distributed to the support of the church and the provision of the poor; but at length the more powerful part,—those who attended the courts of princes, they who intermeddled with state affairs,—the busy high-priest, and the servile, seditious, clerical politician, and particularly the abbots who had engaged in war, and had that pretence for extortion,—usurped the fund, left the business of prayer to the inferior clergy, and the inferior clergy to tithe and the people. Thus the name of tithe originated in real extortion, and was propagated by affected charity; at first for the poor and the church, and afterwards subject to the fourfold division—the bishop, the fabric, the minister, and the poor."

GRAUN, CARL HEINRICH, chapel-master to Frederick the Great at Berlin, was born at Wahrenbrück in Saxony in the year 1701, and educated in the school of the holy cross at Dresden. He was first engaged by the king when prince of Prussia in the year 1735 as a singer and composer, and was afterwards sent for his improvement into Italy. There he remained about two years, during which time the king constructed one of the most complete and most magnificent theatres in Europe, to which Graun was the composer during the remainder of his life. At the onset of his musical career Graun devoted his talents chiefly to the service of the church. He, however, afterwards composed a great number of operas, a few of which are in the German but by far the greater part in the Italian language. Of the latter he composed as many as seventeen between the years 1742 and 1756. These continued to be performed almost exclusively during the life of the late king of Prussia. He wrote also the overture and recitatives to the pastoral opera of "Galatea," of which the king himself set part of the songs. His other compositions consist of several sets of harpsichord concertos for the princess Amelia of Prussia. These are graceful and pleasing in point of melody, scientific in the disposition of the parts, excellent in harmony, and yet easy of execution. His sacred music consists of a "Te Deum," masses, and spiritual cantatas, or oratorios, almost innumerable.

Graun's "Te Deum" was many years ago performed at the concert of ancient music, and it has continued a stock-piece ever since. Part of his oratorio, "The Death of Jesus," and some other compositions of Graun's, are in Latrobe's selections. Graun, who was as much revered in Prussia as Handel was in England, died at Berlin universally lamented in the year 1759.

GRAUNT, JOHN, a London citizen, who distinguished himself by a work entitled "Natural and Political Observations made on the Bills of Mortality," which went through several editions. Immediately after the publication of it, Lewis XIV. of France, or his ministers, provided by a law for a more exact register of births and burials, and Charles II. conceived so high an opinion of his abilities, that soon after the institution of the Royal Society his majesty recommended him to their choice for a member with this charge, that if they found any more such tradesmen they should be sure to admit them all. In December 1666 Mr. Graunt became a trustee for the management of the New River.

This account of the time of our author's admission into the government of the New River is taken from the minute books or register of the general court of that company, and clears him from an imputation thrown upon his memory by Bishop Burnet, who relates the following story, which he says was told him by Dr. Lloyd (afterwards bishop of Worcester) and the countess of Clarendon:—"There was," says he, "one Graunt a Papist, who under Sir William Petty published his 'Observations on the Bills of Mortality.' He had some time before applied himself to Lloyd, who had great credit with the countess of Clarendon, and said he could raise that estate considerably if she would make him a trustee for her. His schemes were probable, and he was made one of the board that governed that matter, and by that he had a right to come as often as he pleased to view their works at Islington. He went thither the Saturday before the fire broke out, and called for the key where the heads of the pipes were, and turned all the cocks of the pipes that were then open, stopt the water, and went away and carried the keys with him; so when the fire broke out next morning, they opened the pipes in the streets to find water, but there was none; and some hours were lost in sending to Islington, where the door was broke open and the cocks turned, and it was long before the water got to London. Graunt, indeed, denied that he had turned the cocks; but the officer of the works affirmed that he had, according to order, set them all a-running, and that no person had got the keys from him besides Graunt, who confessed he had carried away the keys, but said he did it without design." This, however, was a groundless calumny; since Graunt was not admitted into the government of the New River Company till some time after the breaking out of the fire of London. To which may be added that the parliament which met on the day that he was admitted a member of the New River Company appointed a committee to enquire into the causes of the fire. He died in 1674.

GRAVESANDE, WILLIAM JAMES, an eminent Dutch mathematician and philosopher, who was born in 1688 at Bois-le-Duc, and studied the civil law at the university of Leyden, where he took his doctor's degree in 1707. He settled at the Hague, and practised as a barrister, but his attention was



much engrossed by mathematics and physics, on which subjects he published some dissertations in the "Literary Journal" of the Hague, in the conduct of which he was concerned. In 1715 he was appointed secretary to the embassy sent by the states-general to England to congratulate George I. on his accession to the crown. On this occasion Dr. Gravesande formed an acquaintance with Sir Isaac Newton, and was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society. On his returning home he became professor of mathematics and astronomy at Leyden, where he first taught the Newtonian philosophy.

In 1721 Gravesande went to Cassel, at the request of the landgrave of Hesse, to examine the famous wheel of Orffyreus, a professed exhibition of the perpetual motion. He himself considered it not necessarily impossible to prepare a machine which should contain in itself a principle of perpetual motion. In 1734 he received the chair of philosophy, which he filled with much distinction. The death of two promising sons threw him into a lingering illness, of which he died in 1742. He possessed great power of concentrating his attention. He could, for instance, carry on intricate mathematical calculations in the midst of a number of people engaged in conversation. To his labours in the cause of science as a lecturer, he added the publication of several works which contributed to make known the discoveries of Newton, and extend the boundaries of knowledge.

GRAVINA, JOHN VINCENT, an eminent jurist and man of letters, who was born at Rogiano, a castle in Calabria, in 1664. He studied civil and canon law at Naples, and, visiting Rome, resided for some years with Paul Coardo of Turin. Gravina was one of the founders of the academy of the Arcadians and drew up their laws in the style of the Roman tables. In 1698 he was appointed professor of civil law at the college Della Sapienza, and five years afterwards he succeeded to the chair of canon law and the exposition of the decretal. He gained great reputation by his writings, which were numerous. The principal, "Origines Juris Civilis," is considered a classical work, replete with learning. To the Naples edition, printed in 1713, was subjoined a treatise "De Imperio Romano," also highly esteemed. He was also the author of "Institutes of Civil and Canon Law," some treatises, "Della Tragedia," "Della Ragion Poetica," "De Institutione Poetarum," and five tragedies written on the model of the ancients, which were not favourably received. He was invited to Turin by the duke of Savoy, and was preparing to go thither when he was seized with a dangerous illness, and died in 1718 in the arms of his scholar Metastasio, whom he made his chief heir.

GRAY, THOMAS.—This distinguished English poet was born in 1716, and after receiving the rudiments of a classical education was sent to Eton, where he laid the foundation of his future intimacy with Horace Walpole and Richard West. In 1734 he removed to Cambridge as a student of Peterhouse College, where he early obtained some reputation for literature and poetry. He quitted college in 1738, and entered himself at the Inner Temple with a view of studying law, but was easily induced to accept the invitation of Mr. Walpole to accompany him in his tour of Europe; towards the close of which they separated in consequence of some disagreement. Gray finished the expedition by himself, and returned to England in 1741. His father soon

after died, and leaving but a small property Mr. Gray returned to academic retirement at Cambridge. Here he occupied himself several years in laying literary schemes and plans of magnitude, which he admirably commenced but wanted energy to mature. So slow was he to publish that it was not until 1747 that his "Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton College" made its appearance, and it was only in consequence of the printing of a surreptitious copy that in 1751 he published his "Elegy written in a Country Churchyard." Mr. Gray now removed to Stoke in Buckinghamshire, which formed his principal residence for many years; and it was in the churchyard, of which we subjoin a sketch, that some of his best poems were written.



In 1757, on the death of Cibber, the office of laureate was offered to Mr. Gray, who declined it, and the same year published his two principal odes, "On the Progress of Poesy," and "The Bard." In 1768 the duke of Grafton presented him with the professorship of modern history at Cambridge, in consequence of which he wrote the "Ode for Music" for the installation. When this ceremony was over he went on a tour to the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, of which he has given an account in his correspondence. "He that reads his epistolary narrative," says Dr. Johnson, "wishes that to travel and to tell his travels had been more of his employment, but it is by staying at home that we must obtain the ability of travelling with intelligence and improvement." In April 1770 "he complains much of a depression of spirits, talks of an intended tour into Wales in the summer, and of meeting his friend Dr. Wharton at Mr. Mason's." In July, however, he was still at Cambridge, and wrote to Dr. Beattie complaining of illness and pain in his head, and in this letter he sent him some criticisms on the first book of the "Minstrel," which have since been published. His tour took place in the autumn, but he does not appear to have written any journal of it. In May 1771 he wrote to Dr. Wharton, just sketching the outlines of his tour in Wales and some of the adjacent counties. He there complains of an incurable cough, of spirits habitually low, and of the uneasiness which the thought of the duties of his professorship gave him, which, Mr. Mason says, he had now a determined resolution to resign. He had held this office nearly three years and had not begun to execute the duties of it, which consisted of two parts; one the teaching of modern languages, the other the reading of lectures on modern history. The former he was allowed to execute by deputies, but the latter he was to commence in person by reading a public lecture in the schools once at least in every term.



He was at liberty to choose his language and chose the Latin; and although we do not find that he proceeded farther than to draw up a part of his introductory lecture he projected a plan of very great extent, of much greater indeed than from his inactivity, whether the effect of illness or indolence, he would probably have been able to execute. His death however prevented the trial. A few days after writing the letter just mentioned he removed to London, where his health more and more declined. His physician advised a purer air, and he went to Kensington. There he in some degree revived and returned to Cambridge, intending to go from that place to Old Park near Durham, the residence of his friend Dr. Wharton. On the 24th of July, however, while at dinner in the college-hall he was seized with an attack of the gout in his stomach, of which he died on the 30th, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. Gray was interred by the side of his mother in the churchyard of Stoke, but a neat monument has been erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey, of which we subjoin a sketch.



**GREATRACKS, VALENTINE**—The life of this extraordinary individual furnishes a very striking illustration of the public credulity in medical matters. In his own biography he says:—"I was born the 14th of February, 1628, and was son of William Greatracks, of Affane in the county of Waterford, who died while I was an infant. My mother was daughter of Sir Edward Harris, knight, one of his majesty's justices of the king's bench. She was a virtuous and discreet woman, an excellent neighbour, and a most indulgent and at the same time provident parent, who took care of my education, and sent me to the free-school of Lismore erected by the charity of the late earl of Cork. There I made some proficiency in learning and was designed for the college, but was prevented by the breaking out of the rebellion in Ireland, from whence I was forced to fly, and took refuge with my uncle, Mr. E. Harris, who looked after my studies and perfected me in humanity and divinity. On arriving at man's estate, finding that my mother's means were too small to maintain me along with her other children, I deter-

mined to return to Ireland and there either regain my estate or lose my life. My poor country was at that time in a deplorable state, for I saw differences that to me seemed unnatural, and I resolved not to intermeddle therein till the mist of confusion was over. I retired to the castle of Cappoquin, where I spent a year's time in contemplation, and saw so much of the madness of the world that my life became a burden to me, and my soul was as weary of this habitation of clay as ever a galley slave was weary of his oar."

In 1649 he became a lieutenant in the regiment of Roger Lord Broghill, afterwards earl of Orrery, then acting in Munster, and in 1656, a great part of the army there being disbanded, and he among the rest, he retired to his estate at Affane, and was soon after appointed clerk of the peace for the county of Cork and justice of the peace. About 1662 "I had an impulse," says he, "or a strange persuasion in my own mind (of which I am not able to give any rational account to another) which did very frequently suggest to me that there was bestowed on me the gift of curing the king's evil, which for the extraordinariness of it I thought fit to conceal for some time, but at length I communicated this to my wife, and told her that I did verily believe that God had given me the blessing of curing the king's evil, for whether I were in private or public, sleeping or waking, still I had the same impulse; but her reply to me was that she conceived this was a strange imagination; yet to prove the contrary a few days after there was one William Mather, of Salterbridge in the parish of Lismore, who brought his son William to my house, desiring my wife to cure him, who was a person ready to afford her charity to her neighbours according to her small skill in chirurgery; on which my wife told me there was one that had the king's evil very grievously in the eyes, cheek, and throat, whereupon I told her that she should now see whether



this were a bare fancy or imagination as she thought it, or the dictates of God's Spirit on my heart. Then I laid my hands on the places affected, and prayed to God for Jesus' sake to heal him; and bid the parent two or three days afterwards to bring the child to me again, which accordingly he did, and I then

saw the eye was almost quite whole, and the node, which was almost as big as a pullet's egg, was suppurated, and the throat strangely amended; and, to be brief (to God's glory I speak it), within a month discharged itself quite, and was perfectly healed, and so continues, God be praised."

The way in which this extraordinary enthusiast performed his cures is represented in the cut on the preceding page, copied from an original portrait of Greatracks; and however much we may be disposed to ascribe many of his cures to the effects of imagination acting on the minds of his patients, there is abundance of evidence to prove that many persons were cured of long-standing complaints.

It appears that the clergy soon grew jealous of him, and he was cited into the bishop's court at Lismore, where, not producing a licence for practising, he was prohibited from laying his hands on any persons for the future, but he disregarded the prohibition and continued to perform cures as usual. In 1665 he came over to England at the request of the earl of Orrery, in order to cure the lady of the lord viscount Conway of Ragley in Warwickshire, who had for many years laboured under a most violent head-ache. He staid at Ragley three weeks or a month, and though he failed in his endeavours to relieve that lady he is said to have cured vast numbers of people in those parts and at Worcester. Mr. Stubbe, a physician of Stratford upon Avon, who states that he was a witness to several of his cures in Warwickshire, published a work entitled "The Miraculous Conformist, or an Account of Several Marvellous Cures performed by the Stroking of the Hands of Mr. Valentine Greatracks, with a Physical Discourse thereupon in a Letter to the Hon. Robert Boyle, Esq., with a Letter relating to some other of his Miraculous Cures, attested by E. Foxcroft, M.A., and Fellow of King's College in Cambridge." Mr. Stubbe's letter to Mr. Boyle is dated from Stratford upon Avon, and gives the following account of Mr. Greatracks:—"Since the best and most agreeable retribution I can make you for the honour you do me in your remembrances and all your other signal favours is but to gratify your curiosity with any remarkable intelligence that may advance either physic or philosophy, I shall endeavour to be as generous in my acknowledgments to you as you have always been in obliging me. Since my last unto you my Lord Conway did me the honour particularly to invite me to his house and acquaintance, giving me withal a fair opportunity of conversing with Mr. Greatracks and beholding several of those performances, the report whereof, as it gives just causes of astonishment to you that are more remote, so the effects fill with admiration the most learned and suspicious beholders. In truth they are such that he is not at all obliged to the ignorant for the esteem he hath acquired, nor is it possible for the most tender or superstitious and censorious zealots to destroy his repute. He is a man of a graceful personage and presence, and if my phantasy betrayed not my judgment I observed in his eyes and mien a vivacity and sprightliness that is nothing common. As far as I could inform myself by a long and private discourse he is a man of a very good life, of tender and charitable principles as extensive as the effects of his goodness are. He professeth conforming unto the doctrine and discipline of the church of England, yet without that censoriousness whereby some signalize

themselves. His thoughts concerning himself are modest and humble, and he presumes so well of others that even in some colourable circumstances he regulates his apprehensions by the revealed mercies of God, and not the severity of men. In fine, without any prejudice to this age he it said, he seemed to me by his faith and by his charitableness to include in his soul some grains of the golden age, and to be a relic of those times when piety and miracles were sincere."

We afterwards find Mr. Greatracks a visitor at the court of Charles II., who invited him to London to exhibit his powers. He was repeatedly at Whitehall, and after having been liberally rewarded by his majesty he proceeded to Ireland, where he died at an advanced age.

GREATOREX, THOMAS, a celebrated musician, who was a native of Derbyshire. He came to London in the year 1772, and became a pupil of Dr. Cooke, organist and master of the singing-boys of Westminster Abbey. In the years 1774, 1775, and 1776, Greatorex attended the oratorios which Lord Sandwich gave during Christmas at Hinchbrook, and there he derived the greatest advantage, not only from hearing Handel's music executed with precision and effect, but also from the acquaintance and friendship of Mr. Bates, who conducted those performances. Perhaps no man can be said to have promoted the cause of music so essentially as this gentleman, certainly no amateur. His skill as a conductor, nurtured and confirmed by the longest and most universal experience, was consummated in the performances at the abbey. The opportunity Greatorex thus enjoyed of an intimate understanding of Mr. Bates's theory and practice could not fail to be beneficial, to the highest possible degree, in forming the taste, and directing the enquiries and intelligence of the young musician. At the establishment of the ancient concert in 1776 Greatorex assisted in the choruses, and continued a performer there till he was advised to try a northern air for the re-establishment of his health, and he accepted the situation of organist of the cathedral of Carlisle in 1780. Here, though the emoluments were small, he passed some of the happiest days of his life; however in 1784 Greatorex resigned his situation at Carlisle, and went to Italy, where he studied vocal music, and received instructions in singing from Signor Santarelli at Rome. He also made a considerable stay at Naples, Florence, and Venice; and visited, on his return, Bologna, Pisa, Leghorn, Padua, Verona, Vicenza, Mantua, Parma, Milan, and Genoa, entering Switzerland by Mount St. Gothard, and passing down the Rhone to Cologne; from whence he returned to England, through the Netherlands and Holland, at the end of the year 1788. He now established himself in London, and soon had his time fully occupied as a teacher of singing. In the year 1793, on the resignation of Mr. Bates as conductor of the ancient concert, the directors appointed Mr. Greatorex to that distinguished situation. Greatorex's pursuits were not altogether confined to music: he was a mathematician, much attached to astronomy, and possessed several valuable telescopes; he was also a fellow of the Royal and Linnean societies. Mr. Greatorex died in July 1831, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

GREAVES, JOHN, a celebrated oriental scholar, born in 1602. He was educated at Oxford, and



elected a fellow of Merton College in 1624. Six years afterwards he was chosen geometrical professor in Gresham College. In 1637 we find him studying Arabic at Constantinople, and on his return to London with extensive literary collections he was made Savilian professor at Oxford. He died in 1652.

**GREEN, MATTHEW.**—This clever poet was born in London at the close of the seventeenth century. He appears to have been in humble circumstances, and supported himself by a small post in the customs. His principal works are the "Grotto" and the "Seeker," but his poems were published collectively by Dr. Aikin in 1796. He died in 1737.

**GREEN, VALENTINE**, an engraver and topographical writer of some celebrity, who commenced his professional career in the metropolis about 1765. On the establishment of the Royal Institution he was appointed keeper, which office he held till his death in 1813. His "Review of the Polite Arts in France," and the "History of the City of Worcester," are well-written works.

**GREEN, JOHN**, a distinguished English ecclesiastic, who was born in 1706, and educated at St. John's College, Cambridge. He was appointed regius professor of divinity in 1748, and he appears to have devoted himself to his literary and clerical duties till the close of his life, which occurred in 1779. His "Athenian Letters" have been much read and admired.

**GREENE, MAURICE**, a celebrated musician, born in London at the close of the seventeenth century. He appears to have been a pupil of Bird, the organist of St. Paul's Cathedral. In 1726 Mr. Greene was appointed organist to the king, and took the degree of doctor of music at Cambridge when he was elected to the musical professorship in that university. He appears to have been mainly instrumental in founding the institution for the support of decayed musicians. Dr. Greene died in 1755.

**GREGOIRE, HENRY, COUNT**, a celebrated French ecclesiastic, whose civil, literary, and religious career was characterized by love of liberty, active philanthropy, and inflexible integrity. He was born at Vetro in 1750; he was chosen a member of the states-general in 1789, and was one of the five ecclesiastics present at the session of the Tennis court. In the constituent assembly he was distinguished for the boldness of his opinions on civil and religious liberty, and for the eloquence by which he supported them. At this early period he began his efforts in favour of the Jews and blacks, which place him high among the friends of humanity. He was the first among the clergy to take the constitutional oath.

In the convention Grégoire advocated the abolition of royalty, but endeavoured at the same time to save the king by proposing that the punishment of death should be abolished. His absence on a mission with three members of the convention prevented him from voting on the trial of the king; but he refused to sign the letter of his three colleagues to that body, demanding the sentence of death. In the reign of terror when the bishop of Paris abdicated his dignity, and several of the clergy abjured the Christian religion in the presence of the convention, the bishop of Blois had the courage to resist the storm of invectives from the tribunes, and threats from the Mountain. "Are sacrifices demanded for the country?" he said, "I am accus-

tomed to make them. Are the revenues of my bishoprick required? I abandon them without regret. Is religion the subject of your deliberations? It is an affair beyond your jurisdiction. I demand the freedom of religious worship." At a later period, we find him in the senate, forming one of the minority of five, opposing the accession of the first consul to the throne, and alone in opposing the obsequious address of that body to the new sovereign.

In 1814 he signed the act deposing the new emperor, and in 1815 refused, as member of the Institute, to sign the *additional act*. On the restoration of the Bourbons he was excluded from the Institute, and from his episcopal see; and on his election to the chamber of deputies in 1819 he was excluded from a seat by the royalist majority. After suffering this unmerited indignity, this venerable philanthropist and scholar devoted himself to his literary and benevolent labours, to which he continued devoted until 1831, when he died, much respected by his family and friends. His works are numerous.

**GREGORY OF NAZIANZEN**, a celebrated teacher of the Greek church, who was born about 328 at Arianzo near Nazianzum in Cappadocia, and was at first presbyter and afterwards bishop of Nazianzum. He was the intimate friend of Basil, and a violent enemy of the Arians. Among his pupils of eloquence Jerome was the most distinguished. He died about 390, and left many works, of which a complete edition was published at Paris, in two volumes folio, in 1609.

**GREGORY OF TOURS.**—This ecclesiastic was born in Auvergne in 539, and was made bishop of Tours in 573. He showed great firmness in the dreadful times of Chilperic and Fredegonde, and died in November 593. Besides his eight books on the virtues and miracles of the saints, he left "Historiæ Eccles. Francorum Libri X.," which he brought down to the year 591, and which, notwithstanding its marvellous tales and its want of method, has much interest as being the only historical work of the time.

**GREGORY OF NYSSA**, was born at Nyssa in Cappadocia, and was younger brother of Basil the Great. He became celebrated as an ardent defender of the Nicene creed, and also for his eloquence. He died in his native city, of which he was bishop, some time after 394.

**GREGORY VII.**—The year and the place of the birth of this great pope are uncertain, as some accounts say that he was born at Sienna, others at Soana in Tuscany, others still at Rome. It is, however, certain that he lived at Rome when a child, and went to France when a young man, where he became connected with the monastery at Cluny, and returned to Rome in 1045. His history becomes more known after the time of his return to the monastery of Cluny, where Leo IX. saw him on his journey through France. He returned with this pope to Rome, and from that time, although in the background, he played an important part; and by the influence which great minds always exercise over ordinary men, he directed the measures of Leo and several following popes. On the death of Alexander II. in 1073 Cardinal Hildebrand was raised to the papal chair; and he then laboured with the greatest energy to accomplish those plans for which he had prepared the way by the measures which the preceding popes had adopted through his influence. It was the object

of his ambition not only to place the whole ecclesiastical power in the hands of the pope, but to make the church entirely independent of the temporal power. He wished to found a theocracy, in which the pope, the vicar of God, should be the sovereign ruler, in political as well as ecclesiastical matters—a bold idea, which he probably conceived in consequence of the wretched estate of all civil authority. He therefore prohibited the marriage of priests, and abolished lay investiture, the only remaining source of the authority of princes over the clergy of their dominions. In 1074 he issued his edicts against simony and the marriage of priests; and in 1075 an edict forbidding the clergy, under penalty of forfeiting their offices, from receiving the investiture of any ecclesiastical dignity from the hands of a layman; and at the same time forbidding the laity, under penalty of excommunication, to attempt the exercise of the investiture of the clergy. The emperor Henry IV. refused to obey this decree, and Gregory took advantage of the discontent excited by the despotic character and youthful levity of the emperor among the people and princes of Germany to advance his own purposes.

In 1075 he deposed several German bishops, who had bought their offices of the emperor, and excommunicated five imperial counsellors, who were concerned in this transaction; and when the emperor persisted in retaining the counsellors and supporting the bishops, the pope, in 1076, issued a new decree, summoning the emperor before a council at Rome to defend himself against the charges brought against him. Henry IV. then caused a sentence of deposition to be passed against the pope by a council assembled at Worms. The pope, in return, excommunicated the emperor and released all his subjects and vassals from their oath of allegiance. The emperor soon found all Upper Germany in opposition to him at the very moment that the Saxons in Lower Germany renewed the war against him; and when the princes assembled at Oppenheim came to the determination of proceeding to the election of another emperor, he yielded almost unconditionally; he was obliged to consent to acknowledge the pope, whom they were to invite into the empire, as his judge, to abandon his excommunicated counsellors, and to consider himself as suspended from the government. To prevent being deposed by the pope, Henry IV. hastened to Italy, where he submitted at Canossa in 1077 to a humiliating penance, and received absolution. In the mean time his friends again assembled around him, and he defeated his rival Rodolph of Suabia. He then caused the pope to be deposed by the council of Brixen, and an antipope, Clement III., to be elected in 1080; after which he hastened to Rome, and placed the new pope on the throne. Gregory now passed three years as a prisoner in the castle of St. Angelo, but could never be induced to compromise the rights of the church. He was finally liberated by Robert Guiscard, a celebrated Norman prince, whom he had made duke of Apulia; but the Romans compelled him to quit the city, because it had been plundered by the soldiers of Robert. Gregory then retired to Salerno under the protection of the Norman prince, where he died in 1085.

By the celibacy of the clergy Gregory aimed at increasing their sanctity and making them entirely independent of family connexions. The same mea-

sure prevented the possessions of the church from becoming mere feudal dependencies on temporal princes, which would have been the natural course if the clergy had become parents, and of course desirous of transmitting the estates which they enjoyed to their children. Matilda, countess of Tuscany, whom he induced to bequeath her almost regal possessions to the papal see, was his chief support. Most Protestant writers have accused him of insatiable ambition; but the impartial historian who considers the spirit of his whole life, studies his letters, and observes that his severity towards himself was as great as towards others, will judge differently. Gregory must be considered as a great spiritual conqueror, who rendered the clergy independent of the temporal power, and secured their safety amid the scenes of violence with which Europe was filled; thereby rendering them capable of advancing the progress of civilization which was in great danger of being swallowed up in barbarism. The papal power, which he rendered independent of the imperial, was for ages the great bulwark of order amid the turbulence of the semi-civilized people of Europe. In capaciousness of mind he may be compared to Napoleon. His system undoubtedly became unsuitable, like all other systems, to the wants of a more advanced age; and the good of mankind in the progress of time required that the temporal powers should become again independent of the Roman see.

GREGORY, JAMES, a mathematician and philosopher, who was the inventor of the reflecting telescope. He was born at Aberdeen in 1638, and received his education at the Marischal College. In 1663 he published "*Optica Promota, seu Abditæ Radium Reflexorum et Refractorum Mysteria, Geometrice Enucleata*," explaining the idea of the telescope which bears his name; and in 1664 visited London for the purpose of perfecting the mechanical construction of the instrument. Disappointed by the difficulty of getting a speculum ground and polished of a proper figure, he suspended his design and set off on a tour to Italy. He staid some time at Padua, where he published in 1667 a treatise on the Quadrature of the Circle and Hyperbola (reprinted at Venice in 1668 with additions). On his return to England he was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society, whose Transactions he enriched by some valuable papers. He was chosen professor of mathematics in the university of St. Andrew's, and in 1674 was invited to fill the mathematical chair at Edinburgh, whither he removed, but in October 1675, while pointing out to his pupils the satellites of Jupiter, he was struck with a total blindness, and died a few days after, in the thirty-seventh year of his age.

GREGORY, DAVID, a nephew of James Gregory, and the heir of his splendid talents and emulator of his fame. The subject of this article was educated at Edinburgh, where, in 1684, he was elected professor of mathematics; and the same year he published a mathematical treatise from his uncle's papers, with important additions of his own. His lectures first introduced into the schools the Newtonian philosophy. In 1691 he was chosen professor of astronomy at Oxford, though he had the celebrated Halley for his competitor—a circumstance which laid the foundation of a friendly intimacy between those mathematicians. In 1695 he published at Oxford "*Catoptrica et Dioptrica Sphæricæ Elementa*," in which he considers those branches of



optics chiefly as respects the construction of telescopes, particularly those of his uncle and Sir Isaac Newton. In 1697 he gave the first demonstration of the properties of the catenarian curve; and in 1702 appeared his most celebrated production, "*Astronomiæ Physicæ et Geometricæ Elementa*." The object of this work is to explain Newton's geometry of centripetal forces, as far as his discoveries are founded on it, and to exhibit in a more familiar form the astronomical part of the *Principia*. In 1703 he published an edition of the books of Euclid in Greek and Latin; and he afterwards engaged with Dr. Halley in editing the "*Conics of Apollonius*." He died in 1710.

GREGORY, a celebrated patriarch of the Eastern Greek church, who was born in 1739, and educated in Dimitzana, a town in Arcadia in the Morea. He studied in several monasteries, finally on Mount Athos, lived as a hermit, was made archbishop at Smyrna, and in 1795 patriarch of Constantinople. When the French occupied Egypt in 1798 the Greeks were accused of treating secretly with them, and the rabble demanded the head of the patriarch, who, in fact, by his pastoral letters dissuaded the Greeks from taking up arms for the French. Selim III. himself declared Gregory to be innocent, but banished him for security to Mount Athos. He was soon after restored to his former dignity, but in 1806, when the progress of the Russian arms, and the appearance of an English fleet before Constantinople, renewed the fury of the Mussulmans against the Greeks, and the life of the patriarch was threatened, although his exhortations had again prevented the Greeks from any hostile movements, Selim banished him a second time to Mount Athos. After an interval Gregory was a third time appointed patriarch. The apostolic virtues of love, charity, and humility, gained this prelate universal esteem; he lived very simply, was strict with regard to the morals of the Greek clergy, and spent his income for benevolent objects, bestowing charity on the poor without regard to the religion which they professed, promoting schools, the art of printing in Constantinople, and the publication of useful books. In particular, he promoted the establishment of schools of mutual instruction in Scio, Patmos, at Smyrna, Athens, Sparta (Misitra), and in Candia. His sermons and pastoral letters manifest his piety, tolerance, and knowledge of mankind. He translated the epistles of the apostle Paul into Modern Greek, with a commentary. He constantly exhorted his brethren to obedience and patient submission to the will of God, but in 1821, when the Greek insurrection broke out in the Morea, his native country, he became an object of suspicion to the Porte, and nothing but the hope of preventing the massacre of all the Greeks at Constantinople, which had already been determined upon, could induce him to excommunicate on the 21st of March, 1821, Ypsilanti, Suzzo, and all the insurgents, as the divan demanded with threats. At the same time he issued a pastoral letter to the clergy, declaring submission to the Porte to be the duty of the faithful.

After the execution of the prince Morousi, the grand-vizier confided to Gregory the custody of the family of this prince. Without his knowledge, but perhaps by the assistance of a priest in the patriarchal palace, the family escaped on board a vessel, which, by the aid of the Russian ambassador, took them to Odessa. The old man did not doubt that this would

decide his fate. He immediately went to the grand-vizier, the furious Benderli Ali Pacha, to inform him of the event. The vizier laid all the blame on him, but he was neither imprisoned nor subjected to trial. The grand-vizier had determined to intimidate the Greeks by an act of violence yet unprecedented in Turkish history. They had already been exposed for several weeks to the fanatical rabble of Constantinople, which prevented the greater part of them from attending church on the first day of the Easter festival. The patriarch read the high mass surrounded by his bishops, with the usual ceremonies; but as he left the church the janisaries surrounded him and seized the bishops. A natural respect prevented them from laying hands on the venerable old man; but their commander having reminded them of the order of the grand-vizier, they seized the patriarch in his robes of office and hanged him before the principal gate of the church. Three bishops and eight priests of the patriarchate shared the same fate; they were all hanged before the gates of the churches or the palace in their canonical robes. The body was given up to the lowest of the Jews, who dragged it through the streets and threw it into the sea; but being prevailed upon by a sum of money, they did not sink it, so that some Greek sailors recovered it during the night, and carried it to Odessa. Here, with the permission of the emperor, the martyrdom of the patriarch was celebrated by the Russian archimandrite Theophilus with a magnificent funeral. This act of barbarity towards an old man of eighty years was followed by the destruction of many churches and the most savage treatment of the Greeks in Constantinople; but, instead of exciting fear, it had the opposite effect. The enthusiasm of the Greeks for their religion and freedom was increased, the war was carried on with more animosity, and reconciliation became more difficult, and, after some additional atrocities, impossible.

GREGORY XIII.—This pope, whose name was Buoncompagno, appears to have been born at Bologna



in 1502. He early applied himself to the study of mathematical learning, and when he became pope, one of his earliest labours was the reformation of the calendar. This was a most important undertaking, as the want of correspondence between the

solar and lunar year had introduced great irregularity into the computation of time. He died in 1585, and appears to have been a great patron of the fine arts and literature, but a remorseless bigot in matters of religion.

GREGORY, a learned bishop of Neocæsarea, in which place he was born, of pagan parents, was called, on account of the many miracles which he is said to have performed, *Thaumaturgus*, or the worker of miracles. He was distinguished for his eloquence, and was a pupil of Origen. His works were published in the Greek and Latin languages in 1601.

GREGORY, ST., called Gregory the Great, a Roman pontiff, was born at Rome of an illustrious family about the year 550. His rank and talents recommended him to the notice of the emperor Justin, who appointed him prefect of that city. Being of a religious turn of mind, and finding that the duties of his office attached him too much to the world, he retired to a monastery; but he was soon summoned from his retirement by Pope Pelagius II., who appointed him one of his deacons, and sent him to Constantinople in the capacity of nuncio. Upon his return to Rome he was employed by Pelagius as his secretary, but at length obtained leave to retire to his convent. Here he hoped to devote his days to study and contemplation, but a violent plague, that raged with violence in the capital, drew him from his seclusion. He came forth from his retreat, and instituted litanies, which were sung in procession about the streets of the city. On its arrival at the great church, it is said that the contagion ceased. Of this distemper Pelagius died, and Gregory was unanimously chosen to fill this high dignity. Though of an infirm and weakly constitution, he possessed a vigorous mind, and discharged the duties of his station with equanimity and firmness. One of the greatest events which, by his prudence and judicious management he effected during his pontificate, was the conversion of our own nation to Christianity.

But what particularly entitles Gregory to notice is his having effected a reformation in the music of the church. About 230 years before the period in which Gregory lived, St. Ambrose, who was then bishop of Milan, became one the patrons of church music, and instituted in his church at Milan a peculiar method of singing, which received the name of *Cantus Ambrosianus*, or Ambrosian chant. St. Augustine, the disciple of St. Ambrose, speaks of the great delight he received in hearing the psalms and hymns sung there. "As the voices," says he, "flowed into my ears, truth was instilled into my heart, and the affections of piety overflowed in tears of joy. The church of Milan," he continues, "had not long before begun to practise this method. It was here first ordered that hymns and psalms should be sung after the manner of eastern nations, that the people might not pine away with a tedious sorrow; and from that period it has been retained at Milan, and imitated by almost all the other congregations of the world." Tradition says that it was upon the occasion of St. Ambrose receiving St. Augustine into the church on his conversion that the bishop of Milan composed the celebrated *Te Deum*, which has since exercised the talents of the most celebrated composers.

The chant thus established by St. Ambrose con-

tinued in use, with few alterations, till the time of Gregory the Great, whose object in reforming it seems to have been two-fold; he enlarged the former plan, by introducing for new modes or tones into the *canto fermo*, and banished from the church the *canto figurato* as being too light, and destitute of that gravity and simplicity suited to the solemn offices of the church. John Diaconus, the author of Gregory's life, informs us, that he established a singing school at Rome, and that it subsisted 300 years after his death, which happened in 604.

GRENVILLE, GEORGE, a distinguished statesman, who became chancellor of the exchequer in 1763. He was displaced by the marquis of Rockingham, and defended his administration in a work entitled "Considerations on the Commerce and Finances of England." He died in 1770, and left a son, William Wyndham Grenville, who held several high offices in the state. He was born in 1759, and educated at Eton and Oxford, and early brought forward in public life by his friend William Pitt. He entered parliament in 1785, and was speaker of the House of Commons when in 1789 he was made secretary of the home department. In 1790 he was created a peer by the title of Baron Grenville, and the following year became secretary of foreign affairs, and continued in this post till 1801, when he retired with Mr. Pitt on the king's refusal to make the concessions in favour of the Catholics which had been promised by the ministry. On the death of Pitt in 1804 Lord Grenville became first lord of the treasury at the head of the coalition ministry, and incurred the public reproach by holding at the same time the place of auditor of the exchequer, that is, auditor of his own accounts. In 1809 the resignation of Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning having left Lord Liverpool the only secretary of state, official letters were addressed to Earl Grey and Lord Grenville, proposing the formation of a combined ministry. Earl Grey declined all union at once. Lord Grenville went to London, but on the next day also declined the proposed alliance, and states his determination to retire from public life.

GRESHAM, SIR THOMAS, a celebrated London merchant, who was born in 1519 and educated at Cambridge. His father was agent of the king's money affairs at Antwerp; and his predecessor having brought them into a bad condition, young Gresham was sent over in 1552 to retrieve them. He acquitted himself so well that in two years he paid off a heavy loan, and raised the king's credit considerably. On the accession of Elizabeth he was deprived of his office; but it was soon restored to him, with that of queen's merchant, and he was also knighted. In 1566 he planned and erected a bourse or exchange for the merchants of London, in imitation of that of Antwerp, and in 1570 Queen Elizabeth visiting the new building solemnly proclaimed it the Royal Exchange, which name its successor since the fire of London still continues to bear. The troubles in the Low Countries interrupting the loans from Antwerp to the crown, Sir Thomas induced the moneyed men in London to join in a small loan, which was the commencement of the great advances since made from the same body. He founded a college in London, notwithstanding the opposition of the university of Cambridge, and left his house for habitations and lecture-rooms for seven professors on the seven liberal



sciences, who were to receive a salary out of the revenues of the Royal Exchange. Gresham College has since been converted into the modern general excise-office; but the places are still continued with a double salary for the loss of the apartments, and the lectures are now given in the Royal Exchange. He died suddenly in 1579.

**GRESSET, JEAN BAPTISTE LOUIS**, an agreeable French poet, born at Amiens in 1709, and entered the order of the Jesuits in his sixteenth year. He lived at Amiens, where he filled an office in the financial department, and where he married a rich lady. After the death of Louis XV. he visited Paris, and was chosen to congratulate Louis XVI. in the name of the academy of which he was a member on his accession to the throne. The court and the city were both desirous of beholding the man who had been so successful in delineating them. But the expectation which had been formed from his earlier works was far from being answered by his academical discourse in reply to the inaugural address of Suard, and in which he painted the follies of the capital. He died soon after in 1777 without leaving any children. His agreeable manners and his integrity of character gained him distinguished friends, and Louis XVI. granted him in 1775 letters of nobility. His "*Ver-Vert*" is distinguished for wit, vivacity, and interest, and its value appears the more remarkable from the poverty of the subject.

**GRETRY, ANDRÉ ERNESTE MÔDESTE**.—This distinguished musical professor was born at Liege in 1741. At an early age he became sensible to the charms of music, and to this sensibility, when he was only four years old, he was near falling a sacrifice; for, being left alone in a room where some water was boiling in an iron pot over a wood fire, the sound caught his ear, and for some time he amused himself by dancing to it. The curiosity of the child, however, was at length excited to uncover the vessel, and in so doing he overset it. The water fell upon and dreadfully scalded him from head to foot. From the great care and attention that were paid to him by his parents he at length recovered in every respect from this accident except having a weakness of sight, which continued ever afterwards. When he was six years old, his father placed him in the choir of the collegiate church of St. Denis, and unfortunately, but necessarily, under the tuition of a master who was alike inhuman to all his pupils. Young Grétry had his full share of ill-treatment, yet such was his attachment to this man that he could never prevail upon himself to disclose it to his father, fearing that by his influence the chapter might be induced to take some steps that would be injurious to him. What little the youth acquired during this time "was not," as he said, "so much from the lessons, as in spite of the lessons of his master." An accident, however, which for some time put a stop to his studies, deserves to be related. It was usual at Liege to tell children that God would grant them whatever they ask of him at their first communion. Young Grétry had long purposed to pray on this occasion "that he might immediately die if he were not destined to be an honest man, and a man of eminence in his profession." On that very day, having gone to the top of the tower to see the men strike the muffled bells which are always used during the Passion week, a beam of considerable weight fell on his head and laid him senseless on

the floor. A person who was present ran for the extreme unction, but on his return found the youth upon his legs. On being shown the heavy log that had fallen upon him, "Well, well," he exclaimed, "since I am not killed, I am now sure that I shall be an honest man and a good musician." He did not at first appear to have sustained any serious injury, but his mouth was full of blood, and the next day a depression of the cranium was discovered; on which, however, no operation was ever attempted.

From this time, but whether owing to the accident or not is not known, his disposition was considerably altered. His former gaiety gave way in a great measure to melancholy, and never after visited him except at intervals. On his return to the choir he acquitted himself by no means to the satisfaction of his father, who for a time withdrew him for the purpose of his receiving further instruction. He was now placed under the care of a master as mild as the other had been severe, and when his father replaced him in the choir, his improvement both in singing and playing was found to have been very great. The first time he sang in the choir the orchestra, delighted with his voice and fearing to lose the sound of it, was reduced to the pianissimo; the children of the choir drew back from respect; almost all the canons left their seats, and were deaf to the bell that announced the elevation of the host. All the chapters, all the city, all the actors of the Italian theatre, applauded him, and his former master himself took him by the hand, and told him that he would become a musician of great eminence. Some little time afterwards his voice began to break. It would then have been prudent to have forbidden his singing, but this not being done, a spitting of blood came on, to which on any exertion he was afterwards subject. Not long after this he was placed under the care of Moreau; but such was the exuberance of his genius that he had previously attempted several of the most complicated kinds of music. He has himself stated that one of the first things he did was to carry his master a mass which he had just completed. "Stay, stay," said Moreau, "you proceed too fast;" at the same time returning to the young composer his score without looking at it, he wrote down on a slip of paper five or six semibreves. "Write," says he, "a treble to this bass, and show it me to-morrow, but attempt no more masses." Grétry withdrew a little humbled, saying to himself, "My father was right in thinking my late master too indulgent." He carried Moreau the bass the next day, ornamented with three or four trebles. "You still proceed too fast," he exclaimed; "I only asked for note against note to this bass." Grétry could not restrain his musical impetuosity. "Sir," said he, "I had a thousand musical ideas in my head, and was eager to make use of them."

He next composed six symphonies, which were successfully executed in the city. Mr. Hasler, the canon, begged him to let him carry them to the concert, encouraged him greatly, advised him to go to Rome in order to pursue his studies, and offered him his purse. His master in composition thought this little success would be mischievous to Grétry, and prevent him from pursuing that regular course of study so necessary to his becoming a scientific musician. Grétry walked to Rome in the early part of 1759, being then only eighteen years of age, and while there, in order that his genius might be as

much unfettered as possible, he studied under several masters, and almost every day visited the churches, in order to hear the music of Casali and Lustrini, but particularly that of the former, with which he was greatly delighted. The ardour with which he pursued his studies was so great that it suffered him to pay but little attention to his health, which consequently became so much impaired that he was obliged, for a time, to leave Rome, and retire into the country.

He however soon returned to Rome, and, young as he was, distinguished himself by the composition of an intermezzo, entitled "*Le Vende Miatrice*." Admired and courted in the capital of Italy, Grétry here continued his labours and his studies with assiduity and perseverance, till M. Mellon, a gentleman in the suite of the French ambassador, incited in him a desire to visit Paris. In his way to that city in 1767 he stopped at Geneva, and composed there his first French opera of "*Isabelle et Gertrude*," which was very successful.

At Paris Grétry was first introduced to public notice by writing the music to Marmontel's opera of "*Le Huron*." This was received with the most flattering applause. The opera of "*Lucile*" followed, which was even more successful than the former. His fame was now established in France, and he produced nearly thirty comic operas for the great Opera House in Paris. Of these, "*Zemire et Azor*" and "*Richard Cœur de Lion*" have been translated, and successfully brought on the English stage. He died at Montmorency in 1813.

**GREVILLE, FULK, LORD BROOKE**, an accomplished courtier and ingenious writer, who was born in 1544 at Beauchamp Court, Warwickshire, the family seat, then in the possession of his father, Sir Fulk Greville. He entered Trinity College, Cambridge, which he afterwards quitted for Oxford; and having made the tour of Europe, presented himself at court, where he soon rose high in the favour of Elizabeth. James also distinguished him by his favour; but the jealousy of Cecil induced Greville to retire from public life till the death of that statesman restored him to the court. He now rose rapidly, filling in succession the posts of under-treasurer and chancellor of the exchequer, and in 1620 obtained a barony. Under Charles I. he continued to enjoy the royal countenance till the 30th of September, 1628, when, conversing with an old servant of the family respecting certain dispositions in his will, the latter considering his legacy disproportioned to his services, replied to him with great insolence, and on receiving a reprimand stabbed him in the back, and he expired immediately; the assassin instantly committed suicide with the same weapon. Lord Brooke was the founder of a historical lecture at Cambridge, and enjoyed the friendship of Sir Philip Sidney, Spenser, Jonson, Shakspeare, and most of the master spirits of the age.

**GREW, NEHEMIAH**, a learned naturalist and physician of the seventeenth century. He was appointed secretary to the Royal Society in 1677, and he superintended the printing of the "*Transactions*" for some time. He also prepared a "*Catalogue of the Natural and Artificial Rarities belonging to the Society*." He continued to practise medicine till the time of his death, which occurred in 1711.

**GREY, LADY JANE**.—This highly accomplished but unfortunate female was the daughter of Henry

Grey, marquis of Dorset, afterwards duke of Suffolk, by the lady Frances, daughter of Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, and Mary, younger sister of Henry VIII., in whose reign Lady Jane was born, according to the common account, in 1537. She displayed much precocity of talent, and to the usual accomplishments of females she added an acquaintance with the learned languages as well as French and Italian. Roger Ascham has related that, on making a visit to her residence, he found Lady Jane, then a girl of fourteen, engaged in perusing Plato's "*Dialogue on the Immortality of the Soul*" in the original Greek, while the rest of the family were hunting in the park. She owed her early proficiency in literature in some measure to her learned tutor, Aylmer, afterwards bishop of London; and from him she imbibed an attachment to Protestantism. The oriental as well as the classical languages are said to have been familiar to her, and she is represented as having been altogether a young person of uncommon genius and acquirements. But the latter are less singular than might be supposed by those who do not take into account the general taste for the cultivation of Greek and Roman lore which prevailed among both sexes for some time after the revival of literature in Europe. Lady Jane passed her early years, and indeed nearly the whole of her short life, at Bradgate. Of this once princely mansion, which has for many years, with the exception of the chapel and kitchen, been a complete ruin, scarcely enough of the walls remain to assist the careful observer in designating the several apartments; but a tower yet stands which tradition assigns as that occupied by the lady Jane. Traces of a bowling-green, which Nichols imagines to have been the tilt yard, are visible, and the garden walls with a broad terrace are nearly entire. The ruins of the water-mill, mentioned by Leland, may still be seen; and also the little stream, near which stands a magnificent group of chestnut trees. The spot occupied by the pleasure grounds can also be traced, and though, observes Nichols, "they have now somewhat the appearance of a wilderness, yet they strongly indicate that once where the nettle and the thistle now reign in peace the rose and the lily sprang luxuriantly."



The chapel, a small building adjoining the lady Jane's tower, and the only part of the mansion on which any care for its preservation has been bestowed contains a handsome monument (in alabaster) commemorative of Henry, Lord Grey, of Groby (cousin to the lady Jane Grey), and his wife, whose effigies



lie recumbent beneath an arched canopy supported by Ionic columns. The general appearance of the place is delineated in the preceding sketch.

But Lady Jane Grey, though a woman of great talents, was not a prodigy in those times, as Mrs. Roper, the interesting daughter of Sir Thomas More, with Lady Burleigh and her learned sisters, may be adduced as rivals in erudition of the subject of this article. The literary accomplishments of this unfortunate lady, however, do less honour to her memory than the spirit with which she bore the annihilation of her prospects of sovereignty and the disgrace and ruin of the dearest object of her affections. The tale of her elevation and catastrophe has been often related, and has furnished a subject for dramatic composition. The most material circumstances are her marriage with Lord Guilford Dudley, fourth son of the duke of Northumberland, in May 1553, which, though it originated in the ambitious projects of her father-in-law, was a union of affection. The duke's plan was to reign in the name of his near relation, in whose favour he persuaded King Edward VI. to settle the succession to the crown. The king, who had been for some time ill, was already looked upon as past recovery; and on the 11th of June he was induced by Northumberland to send for several of the judges, and to desire them to draw out the assignment of the crown in favour of Lady Jane. That day they refused to obey this command, but on the 15th they complied; and on the 21st the document was signed by all the members of the privy council, twenty-one in number. Edward died on the 6th of July, which seems to have been rather sooner than was expected; and in consequence Northumberland, not having yet every thing in readiness, attempted for a few days to conceal the demise of the crown. At length, on the 9th, he proceeded along with the duke of Suffolk to Durham House, where Lady Jane was, and announced to her the royal dignity to which she had become heir. At first she firmly refused to accept what she maintained belonged to another; but the entreaties of her father, and especially those of her husband, finally prevailed upon her to consent that she should be proclaimed queen. She was accordingly proclaimed in London on the following day, having previously, under the direction of her father-in-law, withdrawn to the Tower, whither she was accompanied by the privy council, whom the duke was especially anxious to retain at this juncture under his immediate control. But all his efforts and precautions proved insufficient to compass the daring plot in which he had engaged. The pretensions of Lady Jane to the crown were so perfectly untenable according to all the ordinary and established rules of succession, that the nation was nearly unanimous in regarding her assumption of the regal authority as a usurpation. Her reign, if it can be so called, lasted only for nine days. Her authority, as soon as it was questioned, was left without a single supporter. On the 19th the council having contrived to make their escape from the Tower while Northumberland had gone to endeavour to oppose Mary in Cambridgeshire, met at Baynard's Castle in the city, the house of the earl of Pembroke, and, sending for the lord mayor, unanimously desired him to proclaim that princess, which he did immediately. Mary's accession then took place without opposition, and she arrived in London on the 3rd of August. The consequences, however, of the extraordinary attempt which had just

terminated in so signal a failure, were now about to fall with fatal effect both upon the guilty authors of the conspiracy and upon the innocent young creature whom they had made the instrument of their ambition. Orders were issued that both Lady Jane and her husband should be shut up in the Tower. On the 18th of August the duke of Northumberland was tried and condemned to death, and on the 22nd he was executed. On the 13th of November Lady Jane, her husband, two of her brothers-in-law, and Archbishop Cranmer, were all brought to trial and sentence of guilty pronounced against them. Instead, however, of being put to death immediately, they were remanded to prison, and no further steps were taken in regard to any of them till after the occurrence and suppression of the rash insurrection headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt in the beginning of the following February. Wyatt himself suffered death for his share in this affair, as did also the duke of Suffolk and his brother; and "above fifty gallant officers, knights, and gentlemen," says the historian Carte, "were put to death as soon as the rebellion was quelled. There were above 400 common men executed before March 12, how many suffered afterwards does not appear." But among all who perished in this enormous carnage there were none whose fate was so much lamented at the time, or has been so long remembered, as the lady Jane Grey.

On the 8th of February Mary signed a warrant for the execution of "Guilford Dudley and his wife," for such was the description by which they were distinguished at a moment when discourtesy wore its ugliest aspect. On the morning of the 12th he was led to execution on Tower Hill. Lord Guilford Dudley had requested an interview with his beloved Jane. She, from a fear that it might unfit both for the scene through which they were to pass, declined it. She saw him go through the gate of the Tower towards the scaffold, and soon afterwards she chanced to look from the same window at his bleeding body imperfectly covered in the cart which bore it back. Feckenham, abbot of Westminster, had endeavoured to convert her to the Catholic faith. He was acute, eloquent, and of a tender nature; but he made no impression on her considerate and steady belief. She behaved to him with such calmness and sweetness that he had obtained for her a day's respite. So much meekness has seldom been so pure from lukewarmness. Never did affection breathe itself in language more beautiful than in her dying letter to her father, in which she says, "My guiltless blood may cry before the Lord, Mercy to the innocent!" A Greek letter to her sister Lady Catharine, written on a blank leaf of a Greek Testament, is needless as another proof of those accomplishments which astonished the learned of Europe, but admirable as a token that neither grief nor danger could ruffle her thoughts nor lower the sublimity of her highest sentiments. In the course of that morning she wrote in her note-book three sentences in Greek, Latin, and English, of which the last is as follows:—"If my fault deserved punishment, my youth at least, and my imprudence, were worthy of excuse. God and posterity will show me favour."

She was executed within the Tower, either to withdraw her from the pitying eye of the people, or as a privilege due to the descendant of Henry VII. She declared on the scaffold that "her soul was as pure from trespass against Queen Mary as innocence was

from injustice: I only consented to the thing I was forced into." In substance the last allegation was true. The history of tyranny affords no example of a female of seventeen, by the command of a female and a relation, put to death for acquiescence in the injunction of a father, sanctioned by the concurrence of all that the kingdom could boast of what was illustrious in nobility, or grave in law, or venerable in religion.

GREY, RICHARD, a distinguished English scholar and divine, who was born in 1693. He was educated at Oxford, and received several valuable livings. He is best known for his "*Memoria Technica*" and his "*System of Ecclesiastical Law*." He died in 1771.

GREY, ZACHARY, an episcopal clergyman, who was born in 1687. He was educated at Cambridge, and afterwards obtained two livings in that city. His literary works are very numerous, but he is best known as a commentator on "*Hudibras*." "*The Critical and Historical Notes of Shakspeare*," by Dr. Grey, is also a work of great research. He died in 1766.

GRIDLEY, JEREMIAH, a celebrated American lawyer, who was born about the year 1705, and received his degree at Harvard College in 1725. His first occupation in Boston was that of an assistant in the public grammar school, in which capacity he continued for several years, during which he studied theology and occasionally preached. He afterwards devoted himself to the law, in which profession he became eminent. Soon after he was admitted to the bar he instituted a weekly newspaper called the "*Rehearsal*," the first number of which was published September 29, 1731. In this journal he wrote articles, literary and political, for a year, when the increase of his professional business obliged him to relinquish it. Having been elected a member from Brookline of the general court of the province, he became a decided opponent of the measures of the ministry, and manifested a warm attachment to liberal principles. He was, nevertheless, appointed attorney-general of the province of Massachusetts Bay, and in that capacity was obliged to perform the unpleasant duty of defending the obnoxious writs of assistance. The celebrated James Otis, who had been a student in his office, was his opponent, and wholly confuted him. He died in Boston, in September 1767.

GRIES, JOHN DIETRICH, a learned German scholar, who was born in February 1775, at Hamburg, where his father was a senator. Against his own wish he was intended for a merchant, but in his seventeenth year he obtained permission to follow his inclination for study. He studied at Jena in 1795, and was favourably noticed by the leading belles-lettres scholars of that time in Germany. He first studied law, but various circumstances, among them an increasing deafness, determined him to devote himself entirely to poetry. Several of his poems were published in periodicals, but he gained celebrity chiefly by his translation of Tasso, the first in the German language in the metre of the original. The translation of Ariosto's "*Orlando Furioso*" appeared in 1804—1808. He also undertook to translate Bojardo's "*Orlando Innamorato*," but the great length of this poem induced him to abandon the attempt; but he completed several other valuable works.

GRIESBACH, JOHN JAMES, a celebrated professor of theology at Jena, who acquired a permanent

reputation by his critical edition of the New Testament, and by the education of several thousand persons. He was born at Butzbach in Hesse-Darmstadt in 1745, and removed while a child to Frankfort on the Maine, where his father, a preacher and consistorial counsellor, died in 1777. He received his first instruction at the gymnasium of Frankfort, and removed to the university of Tubingen in 1762. Ecclesiastical history was the subject of his studies, in which Ernesti, at Leipsic, aided him with books and advice. He next undertook, at Halle, an extensive course of preliminary studies to the criticism of the New Testament and dogmatic history. Having resolved to devote himself altogether to the criticism of the text of the New Testament, he undertook in 1769 and 1770 a literary journey through Germany, England, Holland, and France. The following winter he devoted, in his native land, to the elaboration of his materials; and in 1771 appeared as a lecturer in Halle with such applause, in consequence of his celebrated treatise on the criticisms of Origen on the Gospels, that two years after he was appointed professor. He now pursued with indefatigable industry his plan of an edition of the New Testament. Having received an appointment to a regular professorship of theology at Jena, he published a synopsis of the Gospels. This was soon followed by the first edition of the whole Testament. Its peculiarity is, that it does not merely consider the accepted or rejected readings, but the different degrees of probability for or against them are determined and represented by intelligible marks in the margin. It is to be lamented that he could not finish, as he had intended, the complete edition, which was begun in 1796, and appeared simultaneously at Halle and London. He was, however, incessantly employed on it till his death, and lived to see the superb edition published by Goschen finished.

GRIMALDI.—The name of one of the four highest families in Genoa. The lordship of Monaco, afterwards elevated to a principality, belonged for more than six hundred years to the Grimaldi family. With the Fiescos, they always played an important part in the history of Genoa, especially in the disputes between the Ghibelines and the Guelphs, to which latter party both families belonged. Large estates in the kingdom of Naples, in France, and Italy, increased the influence of the Grimaldi, from whom proceeded several eminent men; the first of whom was Ranieri Grimaldi, who conducted the naval forces of the republic beyond the Straits of Gibraltar. In the service of Philip the Fair of France, Grimaldi sailed to Zealand in 1304 with sixteen Genoese galleys and twenty French ships under his command. He there defeated and made prisoner the count Guy of Flanders, who commanded the enemy's fleet of eighty sail. Antonio Grimaldi likewise distinguished himself in the naval service in the first half of the fourteenth century. The Catalonians had committed hostilities against Genoa, which city had been prevented by internal discord from punishing the offence. But when a more favourable moment arrived, Antonio received the command of the fleet, with the commission to devastate the coasts of Catalonia. This commission the Genoese performed but too faithfully. He also defeated an Arragonese fleet of forty-two sail. Twenty-one years after he suffered such a defeat from the combined Venetian and Catalonian fleets under the command of Nicolas Pisani,



that of the whole Genoese fleet only seventeen vessels escaped. This defeat obliged the Genoese to submit to John Visconti, lord of Milan, who promised them protection against their enemies, the Venetians.—Giovanni Grimaldi is celebrated for the victory which he gained in May 1431 over the Venetian admiral Nicolai. Trivisani on the Po, although Carmagnola, the most distinguished general of his time, was ready to support the Venetians with a considerable army on the banks of the river. By an able manœuvre Grimaldi separated the Venetian fleet from the bank where the army was stationed, and thus succeeded, not only in utterly defeating the enemy, but in taking twenty-eight galleys and a great number of transports with immense spoils.—

Domenico Grimaldi was a celebrated cardinal, archbishop, and vice-legat of Avignon, who lived in the sixteenth century. Before he obtained these high dignities Pius V. entrusted him the supervision of the galleys of the States of the Church, and Grimaldi, though already bishop, was present at the naval battle of Lepanto in 1571, on which occasion he is said to have distinguished himself by his courage. The annals of the Roman church also relate of this warlike prelate that he succeeded in totally extirpating the poison of heresy from his diocese. He died in 1592, and left behind a volume of letters relative to the events in which he had been engaged. His nephew Geronimo Grimaldi, born at Genoa in 1597, was appointed in his twenty-eighth year vice-legat of Romagna, and afterwards bishop of Albano and governor of Rome. Urban VIII. sent him as nuncio to Germany and France; and the services which he rendered the Roman court were rewarded in 1643 by a cardinal's hat. After the death of Urban, Grimaldi, from gratitude, protected his family, and thus incurred the displeasure of Innocent, who refused, during his whole life, to sign the bull constituting Grimaldi archbishop of Aix, and not till Alexander VII. succeeded Innocent was he able to enter on his new office. He endeavoured to reform the manners of the clergy of his diocese, for which purpose he established an ecclesiastical seminary; he likewise founded an hospital for the poor, and annually distributed 100,000 livres of his vast property in alms. He contributed much to the election of Innocent XI., whose virtues he revered. Although he was subsequently appointed dean of the holy college in Rome, he could not resolve to abandon the congregation entrusted to him, and he died at Aix in 1685. Another Geronimo was born in 1674, and was honoured with a cardinal's hat. He had previously been the nuncio of the Roman court at Avignon, and afterwards at Brussels, in Poland, and Germany. He was subsequently appointed cardinal legat of Bologna. He died in 1733.

Besides these Grimaldis, we find others of this name conspicuous in science and art. For instance, Giacomo, a writer of the sixteenth century, whom Tiraboschi mentions with great praise. He was born at Bologna, embraced the clerical profession, and, as superintendent of the archives of the church of St. Peter in Rome, rendered an important service by arranging the whole of this valuable collection. He also attempted to explain the ancient inscriptions discovered during the pontificate of Paul V. by illustrative remarks. He died in 1623.—Giovanni Francesco, called the Bolognese, from his having been born in that city, lived in the seventeenth century, and

was an eminent painter, architect, and engraver. In the first-mentioned art, he took the Carracci for his model; he also studied some time with Albano. Having been invited to Paris by Cardinal Mazarin, he painted several frescoes in the Louvre. As an architect he was no less distinguished, and his engravings are highly esteemed. Innocent X. employed him to execute the frescoes in the Vatican and the Quirinal. Several of his best paintings are to be found in the church Santa Maria del Monte in Rome, the museum at Paris also contains some of his best productions. He died in 1680, seventy-four years of age.—Francesco Maria, a Jesuit, was born in Bologna in 1613, and was distinguished as a mathematician. He assisted Riccioli in his mathematical labours, and afterwards published a work on the Spots on the Moon. He also wrote "Physico-mathesis de Lumine Coloribus et Iride, aliisque annexis." This learned Jesuit died in his native city in 1663.—Francesco, who likewise lived in the seventeenth century, and was born in the kingdom of Naples, joined the Jesuits, and was distinguished as a Latin poet. We have several bucolic and dramatic poems from him which evince his talents. He died while professor of rhetoric in the college of the Jesuits in Rome in 1738.—Peter Grimaldi, likewise a Jesuit, was born in Civita-Vecchia, lived in the eighteenth century, and was for a long time a missionary in the East Indies. There is a story of him, that on his return to Europe he invented a machine by means of which he passed in 1751 through the air from Calais to Dover in an hour. It is mentioned by Pingeron, in his translation of the work of Milizia, and by Fontenai in his "Dictionnaire des Artistes." Since they give no more explicit account of the affair, and as this previous experiment is not quoted in the treatises that appeared at the time of the invention of the air-balloon in 1784, we must entertain some doubt of the truth of the aerial journey ascribed to Peter Grimaldi.—There were several other distinguished individuals of this name, but we have mentioned the most eminent.

GRIMM, FREDERIC MELCHIOR, BARON DE, a man of letters, whose great reputation has arisen from his posthumous publications. He was born in 1723 at Ratisbon, of poor parents, who, however, bestowed on him a good education. His taste for literature manifested itself in his youth, when he wrote a tragedy. Having finished his studies, he went to Paris as governor to the children of the count of Schomberg, and soon after he was appointed reader to the duke of Saxe-Gotha. At this period he became acquainted with Jean-Jacques Rousseau, who introduced him to Diderot, d'Alembert, D'Holbach, and other Parisian philosophers; a piece of service which, according to Jean-Jacques, he repaid with ingratitude. The count de Friese made him his secretary, with appointments which rendered his circumstances agreeable, and left him at liberty to pursue his inclinations.

His vanity induced him to give himself the airs of a man of gallantry; and, as he attempted to repair the ravages of time by means of cosmetics, the Parisians bestowed on him the sobriquet of "Tyran le Blanc." The arrival of a company of Italian bouffons in Paris having divided all the musical connoisseurs into two parties, Grimm declared for the Italian music, and was at the head of the "coin de la reine," a party so called because they used to sit in the pit,

under the queen's box, whilst the friends of Rameau and the French music formed the "coin du roi." Grimm wrote on this occasion a pamphlet, full of wit and taste, "*Le Petit Prophète de Bömischbroda*," and when his adversaries attempted to answer it, completely confuted them by his "*Lettre sur la Musique Française*." These pamphlets irritated so many persons against him, that they talked of exile, the Bastille, &c.; but when the excitement had subsided, he obtained general applause. On the death of the count de Friese, Grimm was nominated principal secretary to the duke of Orleans. The fame of the French literati, with whom he was connected, led to his being employed in conjunction with Diderot to transmit to the duke of Saxe-Gotha an account of the writings, friendships, disputes, &c., of the authors of that period. Copies of this curious correspondence were also sent to the empress Catharine II., the queen of Sweden, Stanislaus, king of Poland, the duke of Deux-Ponts, the prince and princess of Hesse-Darmstadt, &c. Frederic the Great gave him marks of great esteem. In 1776 he was appointed envoy from the duke of Saxe-Gotha to the French court, honoured with the title of baron, and with several orders. On the revolution breaking out, he retired to the court of Gotha, where he found a safe asylum. In 1795 the empress of Russia made him her minister plenipotentiary to the states of Lower Saxony; and he was confirmed in that post by Paul I., and retained it till ill health obliged him to relinquish it. He then returned to Gotha, and died there in 1807.

**GRINDALL, EDMUND.**—This distinguished English ecclesiastic was born in 1519. He was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, where, having taken his first degree in arts, he was chosen fellow in 1538. In 1549 he became master of his college, and was unanimously chosen Lady Margaret's public preacher at Cambridge, as he was also one of the four disputants in a theological controversy performed that year for the entertainment of King Edward's visitors.

Thus distinguished in the university, his merit was observed by Ridley, bishop of London, who made him his chaplain in 1550, perhaps by the recommendation of Bucer, the king's professor of divinity at Cambridge, who soon after his removal to London, in a letter to that prelate, styles Grindall "a person eminent for his learning and piety." His patron, the bishop, was so much pleased with him that he designed for him the first preferments which should occur, and in 1551 procured him the office of chaplain to the king. In the mean time, there being a design on the death of Dr. Tonstall to divide the rich see of Durham into two, Grindall was nominated for one of these, and would have obtained it had not one of the courtiers got the whole bishopric dissolved for the time, and settled as a temporal estate upon himself.

In 1553 he fled from the persecution under Queen Mary into Germany, and settling at Strasburg, made himself master of the German tongue in order to preach in the churches there: in the disputes at Frankfort about a new model of government and form of worship, varying from the last liturgy of King Edward, he took the part of Cox against Knox and his followers. Returning to England on the accession of Elizabeth, he was employed, among others, in drawing up the new liturgy to be presented to the queen's first parliament, and was also one of the eight Protestant divines chosen to hold a public disputation with the Catholic prelates about that time. His talent for preach-

ing was likewise very serviceable, and he was generally appointed to that duty on all public occasions. At the same time he was appointed one of the commissioners in the north, on the royal visitation for restoring the supremacy of the crown and the Protestant faith and worship. This visitation extended also to Cambridge, where Dr. Young being removed for refusing the oath of supremacy from the mastership of Pembroke Hall, Grindall was chosen by the fellows to succeed him in 1559.

In the same year he was nominated to the bishopric of London, vacant by the deposition of Bonner. The juncture was very critical, and the fate of the church revenues depended upon the event. An act of parliament had just passed, whereby her majesty was empowered to exchange the ancient episcopal manors and lordships for tithes and impropriations; a measure extremely regretted by these first bishops, who scrupled whether they should comply in a point so injurious to the revenue of their respective sees. In this important point the newly nominated bishop consulted Peter Martyr; nor did he accept of the bishopric till he had received his opinion in favour of it from that divine, who said that the queen might provide for her bishops and clergy in such manner as she thought proper, that being none of Grindall's concern. In 1560 he was made one of the ecclesiastical commissioners in pursuance of an act of parliament to inspect into the manners of the clergy and regulate all matters of the church; and the same year he joined with Cox, bishop of Ely, and Parker, archbishop of Canterbury, in a private letter to the queen, persuading her to marry.

In 1563 Grindall assisted the archbishop of Canterbury, together with some civilians, in preparing a book of statutes for Christ Church, Oxford. This year he was also very serviceable in procuring the English merchants, who were ill used at Antwerp and other parts of the Spanish Netherlands, a new settlement at Embden in East Friesland; and the same year, at the request of Sir William Cecil, secretary of state, he wrote animadversions upon a treatise entitled "*The Rule of a Christian Man*," in which the author, a Dutch enthusiast, had, in some letters to the queen, used some menaces to her majesty; and being at last cited before the ecclesiastical commission, was charged to depart the kingdom.

April 15, 1564, he took the degree of D. D. at Cambridge, and the same year enforced the queen's express command for exacting uniformity in the clergy, but proceeded so slowly that the Puritans thought him inclined to their party. However, he brought several nonconformists to comply; to which end he published a letter of Henry Bullinger, minister of Zurich in Switzerland, to prove the lawfulness of the order. In 1570 he was translated to the see of York, and upon the death of Parker he was translated to Canterbury, which see was afterwards sequestered for his encouragement of "prophesyings," he was confirmed February 15, 1575.

As this was the most remarkable incident in his life, we shall give the following account of the matter in the words of his early biographer:—"These prophesyings had been used for some time, the rules whereof were, that the ministers of a particular division at a set time met together at some church, and there each in their order explained, according to their abilities, some portion of Scripture allotted to them before: this done, a moderator made his observa-



tions on what had been said, and determined the true sense of the place, a certain time being fixed for despatching the whole. The advantage was the improvement of the clergy, who hereby considerably profited themselves in the knowledge of the Scripture; but this mischief ensued, that at length there happened confusions and disturbances at those meetings, by an ostentation of superior parts in some, by advancing heterodox opinions, and by the intrusion of some of the silenced separatists, who took this opportunity of declaiming against the liturgy and hierarchy, and hence even speaking against states and particular persons. The people also, of whom there was always a great conflux, fell to arguing and disputing much about religion, and sometimes a layman would take upon himself to speak. In short, the exercises degenerated into censurings, divisions, and factions. Grindall laboured to redress these irregularities by setting down rules and orders for the management of these exercises: however, the queen still disapproved of them, as seeing probably how very apt they were to be abused. She did not like that the laity should neglect their secular affairs by repairing to those meetings, which she thought might fill their heads with notions, and so occasion dissensions and disputes, and perhaps seditions in the state; and the archbishop being at court, she particularly declared herself offended at the number of preachers as well as the exercises, and ordered him to redress both; urging that it was good for the church to have few preachers, that three or four might suffice for the county, and that the reading of the Homilies to the people was sufficient. She therefore required him to abridge the number of preachers, and put down the religious exercises. This did not a little afflict him—he thought the queen infringed upon his office, to whom, next to herself, the highest trust of the church of England was committed; especially as this command was peremptory, and made without at all advising with him, and that in a matter so directly concerning religion: he wrote a letter to her majesty, declaring that his conscience, for the reasons therein mentioned, would not suffer him to comply with her commands. This refusal was dated December 20, 1576. The queen therefore having given him sufficient time to consider well his resolution, and he continuing unalterable therein, she sent letters next year to the bishops to forbid all exercises and prophesyings, and to silence all preachers and teachers not lawfully called, of which there were no small number; and in June the archbishop was sequestered from his office, and confined to his house by an order of the court of star chamber." In November the lord treasurer wrote to him about making his submission, which he not thinking fit to comply with, his sequestration was continued; and in January there were thoughts of depriving him, which however were laid aside. June 1579 his confinement was either taken off, or else he had leave to retire to his house at Croydon, for we find him there consecrating the bishop of Exeter, and the bishops of Winchester and Lichfield and Coventry the year following. This part of his function was exercised by a particular commission from the queen, who in council appointed two civilians to manage the other affairs of his see, the two of his nomination being set aside. Yet sometimes he had special commands from the queen and council to act in person, and issued out orders in his own name; and in general was as active as he could be, and vigilant in the care of his diocese

as occasion offered. The precise time of his being restored does not appear, but several of his proceedings show that he was in the full possession of the metropolitan power in 1582, in which year he had totally lost his eye-sight. Towards the latter end of it he resigned his see, and obtained a pension for his life from the queen. With this provision he retired to Croydon, where he died two months after, July 6, 1583, and was interred in that church, where a stone monument was erected to his memory.

Strype, who wrote his life, in order to vindicate him from the misrepresentations, as he calls them, of Fuller and Heylin, observes, "that in the times wherein he lived, when he was better known, his great abilities and endowments for spiritual government as well as his singular learning were much celebrated. He was a man," continues this writer, "of great firmness and resolution, though of a mild affable temper and friendly disposition. In his deportment courteous and engaging, not easily provoked, well spoken, and easy of access; in his elation not at all affecting grandeur or state, always obliging in his carriage as well as kind to his servants, and of a free and generous spirit. He was confessedly a prelate of great moderation towards the Puritans, to whose interest in the cabinet, together with his own merits, his preferment was perhaps owing."

GRONOVIVS, the name of several celebrated critics and philologists. The first of these is John Frederic, one of the most learned students of antiquities, was born at Hamburg in 1611. He studied at Leipsic and Jena, and went through a course of law at Altdorf, spent some time in Holland and England, was appointed professor of history and eloquence at Deventer, and after the death of Daniel Hensius succeeded him as professor of belles-lettres at Leyden, where he died in 1671. With extensive knowledge he combined indefatigable industry and amiable manners. His editions of Livy, Statius, Justin, Tacitus, Gellius, Phædrus, Seneca, Sallust, Pliny, Plautus, &c., and his observations, are valuable for their notes and improved readings. His "*Commentarius de Sestericiis*" displays a thorough acquaintance with the Roman language and antiquities, and his edition of Hugo Grotius's work "*De Jure Belli et Pacis*," is justly valued on account of its notes. His son James was born at Deventer in 1645, and studied there and at Leyden. He spent some months at Oxford and Cambridge, and returned to Leyden, where he published in 1676 an edition of Polybius, which met with such applause that he received an offer of a professorship at Deventer. He refused it, however, from a desire to travel through France, Spain, and Italy. The grand duke of Tuscany conferred on him a professorship at Pisa, which he relinquished in 1679, and was appointed professor of belles-lettres at Leyden and geographer to the university. He died at Leyden in 1716. This learned and industrious critic edited Tacitus, Polybius, Herodotus, Pomponius Mela, Cicero, Ammianus Marcellinus, &c.

GROSE, FRANCIS, a learned antiquary, who was born at Richmond in 1731. Having early displayed a great love for heraldry and antiquities, his father procured him a place in the College of Arms, which, however, he resigned in 1763. He early entered into the Surrey militia, of which he became adjutant and paymaster; but so much had dissipation taken possession of him, that in a situation which above all

others required attention, he was so careless as to have for some time, as he used to say, only two books of accounts, viz, his right and left hand pockets. In the one he received, and from the other paid; and this too with a want of circumspection which may be readily supposed from such a mode of book-keeping. His losses on this occasion roused his latent talents. With a good classical education he united a fine taste for drawing, which he now began again to cultivate; and, encouraged by his friends, he undertook the work from which he derived both profit and reputation—his “Views of Antiquities in England and Wales,” which he first began to publish in numbers in 1773, and finished in 1776. The following year he added two more volumes to his English views, in which he included the islands of Guernsey and Jersey, which were completed in 1787. This work, which was executed with accuracy and elegance, soon became a favourite with the public at large as well as with professed antiquaries, and therefore answered his most sanguine expectations; and from the time he began it to the end of his life he continued without intermission to publish various works, generally to the advantage of his literary reputation, and almost always to the benefit of his finances.

In the summer of 1789 he set out on a tour in Scotland, the result of which he began to communicate to the public in 1790 in numbers. Before he had concluded this work he proceeded to Ireland, intending to illustrate that kingdom with views and descriptions of her antiquities in the same manner he had executed those of Great Britain; but soon after his arrival in Dublin he was seized with a fit of apoplexy, and died on the 6th of May, 1791. Besides the work already mentioned, Mr. Grose was the author of a “Treatise on Ancient Armour and Weapons,” “Military Antiquities,” and several other valuable works.

GROSVENOR JOHN, an eminent English surgeon, who was born in the parish of Ashley in Staffordshire. In 1768 he was sent to Oxford upon the invitation of his uncle Dr. Tottie, canon of Christ Church. Soon after his settlement at Oxford, Mr. Grosvenor succeeded to the place of anatomical surgeon on Dr. Lee's foundation, which recommended him to the friendship of Dr. Parsons, then the most popular physician in Oxford, between whom and himself the closest intimacy afterwards subsisted, and which introduced him also into full practice at Christ Church. In this situation he distinguished himself by extraordinary skill and knowledge, and occasionally in the absence of the reader he lectured to the students on topics applicable to the dissection of the day. Mr. Grosvenor gradually obtained considerable reputation as a surgeon; and on the death of Sir Charles Nourse he found himself in complete possession not only of nearly all the business in the university and city but of that also on every side within thirty miles of Oxford. At one period he might be said almost to have lived on horseback. Though urged frequently from the confidence reposed in his judgment to enlarge the sphere of his exertions, he most scrupulously and most honourably acted on the distinction preserved at Oxford between the different branches of the medical profession, between the physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries.

In the latter period of his practice Mr. Grosvenor rendered himself justly celebrated by the application

of friction to lamenesses or imperfections of motion arising from stiff or diseased joints. He had first used it with success in a complaint of his own, a morbid affection of the knee; and by degrees its efficacy was so acknowledged that he was visited by patients of the highest rank. Those who have benefited by the process recommended by him, and pursued under his own immediate superintendence, in cases of this sort, and from total inability have been restored to a free use of their limbs, are best able to attest his merits. That he was scarcely in any instance known to fail, was perhaps attributable to the circumstance that he used his utmost efforts to dissuade from coming to Oxford to try the experiment every one of whose case from previous communications he entertained any doubt. As he possessed a good fortune he resigned, in the first instance, the anatomical surgeonship at Christ Church, and gradually withdrew himself from country journeys and attendances. For the last ten years of his life he had almost entirely given up his profession. Mr. Grosvenor died in October 1823.

GROTIUS, or DE GROOT, HUGO, a scholar and statesman of the most diversified talents, who was born at Delft. In his fifteenth year he sustained with general applause theses on philosophy, mathematics, and law. The next year he accompanied Barneveldt, the Dutch ambassador, to France, where he gained the approbation of Henry



IV. by his genius and demeanour, and was every where admired as a prodigy. After his return he conducted his first lawsuit in his seventeenth year, and in his twenty-fourth was appointed advocate-general. In 1613 he became cyndic, or pensioner, of Rotterdam. The disputes of the Remonstrants and their opponents then disturbed the tranquillity of Holland. Barneveldt was the defender of the former party. Grotius, who had declared himself on the side of Barneveldt, supported him by his pen and influence. This involved him in the trial which terminated in the beheading of Barneveldt in 1619, and the condemnation of Grotius to imprisonment for life in the fortress of Louvestein. He succeeded in escaping from this fortress by concealing himself in a chest in which his wife had sent him books, and after wandering about for some time in the



Catholic Netherlands he escaped to France. Louis XIII. gave him a pension of 3000 livres. The Dutch ambassadors endeavoured in vain to prejudice the king against him; but Richelieu was unfavourably disposed towards him, and in 1631 even his pension was withdrawn. Grotius then returned to his native country, relying on the favour of Frederic Henry, prince of Orange, who had written him a sympathizing letter; but by the influence of his enemies he was condemned to perpetual banishment. Grotius next proceeded to Hamburg, and during his residence in that city the kings of Denmark, of Poland, and of Spain, made attempts to persuade him to settle in their states; but the protection which the chancellor Oxenstiern promised him, and the inclination of Queen Christina for learning, induced him to accept the offers of this princess.

In 1634 he went to Stockholm, where he was appointed counsellor of state and ambassador to the French court. This choice displeased Cardinal Richelieu, who was irritated to see a man return who had been denied protection and a residence in France, but Oxenstiern would not allow any other minister to be nominated, and Grotius appeared at Paris in 1635. He discharged his duties as ambassador for several years, and gained universal respect. On his return to Sweden by the way of Holland, he met in Amsterdam with the most honourable reception. Most of his enemies were dead, and his countrymen repented of having banished the man who was the honour of his native land. He was received with equal favour by the queen in Sweden. He afterwards requested his dismissal, and having finally obtained it, was on his way to Holland when a storm drove him to Pomerania. He fell sick at Rostock, where he died in August 1645. With the talents of the most able statesman Hugo Grotius united deep and extensive learning. He was a profound theologian, excellent in exegesis, his "Commentary on the New Testament" being still esteemed; a distinguished belles-lettres scholar, an acute philosopher and jurist, and a historian intimate with the sources of history. His writings have had a decisive influence on the formation of a sound taste, and on the diffusion of an enlightened and liberal manner of thinking in affairs of science.

**GROUCHY, EMANUEL, COUNT.**—This celebrated French military commander was born at Paris in 1766, and at an early age was appointed an officer of the king's body guard. On the breaking out of the Revolution he joined the liberal party, and left the guards in consequence. He served in the campaign of 1792 as commander of a regiment of dragoons, and in the succeeding winter he was placed at the head of the cavalry of the army of the Alps, and contributed essentially to the conquest of Savoy. He was then sent into Vendée, where he distinguished himself on several occasions, but was obliged to leave the army in consequence of the decree of the convention excluding all nobles from any military command. In 1794 he was again sent to Vendée with the rank of general of division, disappointed the attempts of the emigrants at Quiberon, and co-operated vigorously with the measures of General Hoche.

In 1797 he was appointed second in command of the army destined for the invasion of Ireland, but a storm dispersed the fleet, and he arrived in the bay of Bantry with a small part of the land forces and a few ships. He determined, nevertheless, to land his

forces, but the rear-admiral Bouvet refused to comply, and Grouchy was obliged to return to France without effecting any thing.

In 1798 he was ordered to join the army of Italy, and received the command of the citadel of Turin, and afterwards of all Piedmont, where he distinguished himself by his prudence, moderation, and firmness. In the following year his services contributed essentially to Moreau's victories in Germany, and the battle of Hohenlinden was gained chiefly by his energy and courage. During the trial of General Moreau he manifested his sentiments in his favour in such a manner as to incur the displeasure of Napoleon, who continued indeed to employ him in the most dangerous and important enterprises, but without rewarding his services. In the campaigns against Prussia in 1806 and 1807 he commanded a cavalry corps, compelled the corps of Prince Hohenlohe to capitulate at Prenzlau, and that of Blücher near Lübeck, and distinguished himself at Friedland. From 1808 to the time of the Austrian war he was governor of Madrid, was then attached to the army of Italy, penetrated to Hungary, and distinguished himself at the battle of Wagram. In reward for his important services he was created commander of the iron crown, colonel-general of the chasseurs, and grand officer of the empire. During the campaign in Russia General Grouchy commanded one of the three cavalry corps of the grand army, took an important part in all the great operations, covered the retreat to Smolensk, and received the command of the sacred squadron composed of generals and officers, which Napoleon had organized for the security of his person in case of extremity. Offended by the refusal of the emperor to confide to him the command of a division of infantry, Grouchy retired from the service; but on the loss of the battle of Leipzig and the disastrous retreat of the French from Germany he offered to resume his post. Napoleon, while he permitted him to choose between the army in Piedmont and the cavalry, gave him to understand that he considered that he would be most useful at the head of the cavalry; the command of which Grouchy therefore determined to accept. His brilliant services in the campaign of 1814 were rewarded with the baton of marshal. After the restoration he received no appointment, and he therefore joined Napoleon on his return from Elba. In 1815 he received the command of the reserve cavalry of the grand army. Napoleon accused him of being the author of the defeat at Waterloo by permitting two divisions of the Prussian army under Blücher to join the English forces. He was one of the general officers whose arrest was ordered by the *ordonnance* of July 1815, in consequence of which he retired to the United States, where he remained until he received permission to return to France.

**GROUCHY, SOPHIE**, was the wife of the celebrated Condorcet, and sister to Count Grouchy. She was the author of several valuable works, and her translation of Smith's "Theory of Moral Sentiments" is admired. Mad. Condorcet showed a touching solicitude for her brother the marshal when he was tried in 1817 and defended by his son. This lady died in 1822.

**GUADAGNI, GÆTANO**, an actor and singer of considerable eminence, who was born at Vienna, and came to England in 1748. At that period he was employed by Handel to sing in his oratorios. In

1754 few went to Lisbon and studied under Gizziello, who in 1755 very narrowly escaped destruction during the earthquake. After this dreadful calamity Gizziello, seized with a fit of devotion, retired into a monastery, where he spent the remainder of his life. Having a friendship for Guadagni and being pleased with his voice and quickness of parts, he persuaded the young singer to accompany him in his retreat, where, for a considerable time, he took great pains in directing his studies; and it is from this period that Guadagni's reputation as a refined and judicious singer may be dated. His ideas of acting were imbibed much earlier from Garrick, who, when he performed in an English opera called "The Fairies," took no less pleasure in forming him as an actor than Gizziello did afterwards in polishing his style of singing. After quitting Portugal he acquired great reputation as first performer in all the principal theatres in Italy, and the year before his return to England excited great admiration by his talents, as well as disturbance by his caprice, at Vienna. The highest expectations of his abilities were raised by report previous to his arrival here, and indeed as an actor he had few equal on any stage in Europe. His figure was uncommonly elegant and noble; his countenance replete with beauty, intelligence, and dignity; and his attitudes and gestures so graceful that they would have been excellent studies for a painter or statuary. But though his manner of singing was perfectly delicate, polished, and refined, his voice seemed at first to disappoint every hearer. Those who remembered it when he was before in England, found it comparatively thin and feeble. For he had now changed it to a soprano, and extended its compass from six or seven notes to fourteen or fifteen. The music he sung was the most simple imaginable; a few notes with frequent pauses, and opportunities of being liberated from the composer and the band, were all he wanted. And in these seemingly extemporaneous effusions he proved the inherent power of melody totally divorced from harmony, and unassisted even by unisonous accompaniment. Those who were surprised at such great effects from causes apparently so inconsiderable in analyzing the pleasure he communicated to the audience, discovered that it chiefly arose from his ingenious manner of diminishing the tones of his voice like the dying notes of the Æolian harp. Other singers captivated by a swell or *mezzo di voce*, but Guadagni, after beginning a note or passage with all the force he could safely exert, softened it off to a thread, and gave it the entire effect of extreme distance. And though neither his voice nor execution contributed much to charm or excite astonishment, he had a strong party in England of enthusiastic admirers and adherents, of whom, by personal quarrels and native caprice, he contrived to diminish the number very considerably before his departure. He had strong resentments and high notions of his own importance and profession, which disgusted many of his warmest friends, and augmented the malice of his enemies. He retained his powers to the time of his death, but the precise period is not known.

GUARINI, GIOVANNI BATTISTA.—This celebrated Italian poet was born at Ferrara in 1537. He was descended from a noble family distinguished for its influence on the revival of learning and of poetry. After having studied in Ferrara, Pisa, and

Padua, and lectured in his native city on the ethics of Aristotle, he entered the service of the duke Alphonso II., who appreciated his talents, knighted him, and sent him as his ambassador to the Venetian republic, to Emanuel Filibert duke of Savoy, to Gregory XIII., Maximilian II., and Henry of Valois, and when the latter ascended the throne of France under the name of Henry III. Guarini was sent to the Polish estates to propose the duke as a candidate for the throne of Poland. The failure of this embassy, which involved the sacrifice of a part of Guarini's own property, was taken advantage of by his jealous rivals to deprive him of the favour of his prince, and after all his services he was dismissed. He now passed his time in literary retirement, partly in Padua and partly on his own estate, but was recalled in 1585 to the office of secretary of state. He again attained a distinguished rank in the court, but two years after retired a second time because the duke in a dispute between Guarini and his daughter-in-law gave a decision which displeased him. He then continued some time in private life.

In 1597 Guarini entered the service of Ferdinand I. grand-duke of Tuscany, which he soon quitted. Suspecting that the duke had favoured the marriage of his youngest son, which had been concluded privately against Guarini's will, he left his court and retired to that of the duke of Urbino. After some time he returned to Ferrara, but resided alternately at Venice, Padua, and Rome, on account of the numerous lawsuits in which his litigious spirit involved him. In 1605 he went as an ambassador of his native city to the court of Rome to congratulate Paul V. on his elevation. He died at Venice in 1612.

Guarini is one of the most elegant authors and poets of Italy, as is shown by his letters, his "Segretario," a dialogue, his comedy "L'Idropica," his "Rime," and above all by his "Pastor Fido." This pastoral drama, which was first represented at Turin on the marriage of Charles Emanuel duke of Savoy with Catharine of Austria, and afterwards frequently brought upon the stage and translated into many languages, has rendered him very celebrated. The slightest glance shows that this piece is by no means an imitation of the "Aminta," to which it is superior in ingenuity, epigrammatic turns, and poetical ornament—characteristics which have brought upon him undeserved reproach as being ill adapted to the pastoral drama. Guarini's works appeared at Ferrara in 1737. His "Trattato della Politica Libertà" was first printed at Venice in 1818 with his life by Ruggieri.

GUELF, or GUELFPHS.—The name of a celebrated family, which in the eleventh century was transplanted from Italy to Germany, where it became the ruling race of several countries. The family still continues in the two lines of Brunswick, the royal in England, and the ducal in Germany. According to Eichhorn, this house first appears distinctly in the ninth century, in the reign of Charlemagne. The memory of this ancient name has lately been revived by the foundation of the Hanoverian Guelphic order.

The term *Guelph* is also applied to a powerful party in the middle ages, which, in Germany, and at a later period in Italy, opposed the German emperors and their adherents, called the *Gibelines*. The family of the Gueifs, in different branches, possessed considerable estates in Germany in the eleventh cen-



ture. Azzo, of the family of Este in Italy, lord of Milan, Genoa, and other cities of Lombardy, acquired some of these estates by his marriage with Cunigunde the heiress of the Guelfs. His son, Guelf I., became duke of Bavaria, and inherited the estates of the other Guelf lines. The son of Guelf I. acquired by marriage the estates in Saxony which belonged to his wife's father Duke Magnus. The emperor Lothaire gave the duchy of Saxony to his son-in-law, Henry the Generous, grandson of Guelf I. This Henry, on the death of Lothaire, opposed Conrad III. of the house of Hohenstaufen, who had been elected emperor, was put under the ban of the empire, and most of his vast possessions confiscated. After his death his son, the famous Henry the Lion, received in 1139 only the duchy of Saxony and his hereditary estates in this country, the Bavarian fiefs having been given to his uncle Wolf. In 1140, war having broken out between Wolf and Frederic, brother to the emperor Conrad, the words *Welf* and *Waiblingen* became the war cries of the respective parties in the battle at Weinsberg. Waiblingen, in the present kingdom of Wurtemberg, was an estate of the house of Hohenstaufen, to which Conrad belonged, and the Italians afterwards changed the word into *Ghibellini*. The contest, which in the beginning was merely between the two families, spread at length more and more widely, and became an obstinate struggle between two political parties. This contest was not a mere family quarrel, like many of the disputes of the middle ages; it was a strife of opinions involving important interests, conducted, it is true, in many instances with a senseless disregard both of justice and expediency owing to the crude notions of the period respecting the rights and well-being of nations, but still having great objects in view. The wars of the Guelfs and Ghibelines became the struggle between the spiritual and secular power, through which it was necessary that western Europe should pass to shake off the dominion of the popes, which was now on the point of crushing all national independence after having completed its proper work of raising Europe from a state of barbarism. The popes, who endeavoured to reduce the German emperors to acknowledge their supremacy, and the cities of Italy struggling for independence and deliverance from the oppressive yoke of these same emperors, formed the party of the Guelfs. Those who favoured the emperors were called Ghibelines. Italy underwent great sufferings during this contest, as did Germany also, which sent army after army to be swallowed up in this lion's cave whence none returned, as a German emperor called it. There is little doubt that the inconsiderable progress of Germany in public law and political well-being was in a great measure owing to this struggle, which consumed her strength and engrossed her attention. The contest continued with bitterness for almost 300 years.

GUERICKE, OTTO, a natural philosopher, who is best known as the discoverer of the air-pump. He was born at the commencement of the seventeenth century, at the first dawn of experimental science, and having settled at Magdeburg, performed a variety of curious experiments in that city, which were published in a folio volume entitled "*Experimenta Magdeburgica*." Otto Guericke died at Hamburg in 1686.

GUGLIELMI, PIETRO, a celebrated musician,

who was born at Massa di Carrara in 1729. He studied music under his father till he was eighteen, when he was sent to the conservatory of Loretto at Naples. M. Durante then directed this school, from whence Piccini, Sacchini, Cimarosa, Maio, Trajetta, Paisiello, &c. have issued. Guglielmi did not announce any great disposition for music, but Durante subjected him to the dry studies of counterpoint and composition. He left the conservatory at the age of twenty-eight, and composed, nearly directly, for the principal theatres of Italy, comic and serious operas, in both of which he succeeded equally well. He was sent for to Vienna, to Madrid, to London, and returned to Naples, being then in his fiftieth year. It was at this epoch that his faculties acquired their greatest activity and, that his genius shed its greatest lustre. He found the theatre at Naples occupied by the great talents of Paisiello and Cimarosa, who there disputed the palm. He revenged himself nobly on the latter, of whom he had cause to complain. He opposed a work to each work of his adversary, and constantly conquered him. Pope Pius VI. offered Guglielmi in 1793 the situation of master of the chapel of St. Peter. This retreat gave him, being then sixty-five, an opportunity of distinguishing himself in church music. Guglielmi's works are reckoned to be more than 200. The best are the operas of "*Le due Gemelli*," "*La Pastorelli Nobile*," and among his oratorios, "*La Morte d'Oloferne*" and "*Deborah*." Zingarelli looked upon this last as the chef-d'œuvre of Guglielmi. Musicians discover in this composer simple and elegant melodies, a clear and supported harmony, and whole pieces full of fancy and originality. He died in 1804 in his seventy-seventh year.

GUIBERT, JACQUES ANTOINE HIPPOLITE, COUNT OF, was born at Montauban in 1743, educated at Paris, and accompanied his father to Germany during the seven years' war at the age of thirteen. In the battle of Bellinghausen in 1761, finding that the orders which he carried were rendered unreasonable by a change of circumstances, he had the boldness to alter them, and adapt them to the existing state of affairs. In the Corsican war in 1766 he obtained the cross of St. Louis, and soon after, with the rank of colonel, the chief command of the newly-levied Corsican legion. He employed his leisure hours in literary occupations, and his "*Essai Général de Tactique, précédé d'un Discours sur l'Etat de la Politique et de la Science Militaire en Europe*," probably written during the German campaigns, attracted the more attention as at that time a reform was going on in almost all the armies. He afterwards travelled for military purposes through Germany. His work entitled "*Journal d'un Voyage en Allemagne, fait en 1773, Ouvrage Posthume de Guibert, publié par sa Veuve, et précédé d'une Notice Historique sur la Vie de l'Auteur, par Toulon-geon, avec Figures*" was but a mere sketch for the author's use, but is interesting for its descriptions and anecdotes of celebrated men, especially of Frederick II., whose great character Guibert passionately admired. His tragedies have not retained their place upon the stage.

In 1779 appeared his "*Défense du Système de Guerre Moderne*." In 1786 he became a member of the French Academy. In 1787 he wrote his celebrated eulogy on Frederick II., one of the most splendid monuments ever raised to the memory of that

great king. Guibert's Eulogies, among which are one upon Thomas and another upon L'Espinasse, are among his most finished works. Vigour, fancy, clearness, and a certain artlessness, engage the reader, and cause him to excuse many instances of negligence. Guibert was a field-marshal and member of the council of war—an office which gave him much trouble. He died in 1790, and was distinguished through life for ambition and for activity of spirit.

GUICCIARDINI, FRANCIS, a celebrated historian, was born March 6, 1482, at Florence, where his family was of distinguished rank. He obtained so great a reputation as a jurist that in his twenty-third year he was chosen professor of law, and although he had not yet reached the lawful age was appointed ambassador to the court of Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain. When Florence had lost her liberty through the usurpation of the Medici, he entered the service of that family, which soon availed themselves of his talents. He was invited by Leo X. to his court, and entrusted with the government of Modena and Reggio. This office he discharged also under Adrian VI. to the general satisfaction; and afterwards, when Clement VII. ascended the papal chair, Guicciardini was sent as *luogotenente* of the pope to Romagna, then torn by the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines and infested by robbers, where, by a severe and upright administration of justice, he soon succeeded in restoring tranquillity. He also contributed here in other ways to the public good, by constructing roads, by erecting public buildings, and by founding useful institutions. Having been appointed lieutenant-general of the pope, he defended Parma with great valour when besieged by the French.

At a later period, after the death of Giovanni de Medici, Guicciardini was invited by the Florentines to succeed him in the command of the famous *bande noire*, but the pope still claimed his services for a time. Having quelled an insurrection in Bologna, he returned, in spite of the pressing entreaties of the holy father, to his native city, where, in 1534, he began his great work on the history of Italy, which has since been repeatedly published, and has obtained for him great reputation. It extends from 1490 to 1534. In his retirement he was not without influence on state affairs, and his counsels often restrained the prodigality and the ambition of Alessandro de Medici, who esteemed him very highly, as did likewise Charles V., whose interests he had promoted in his negotiations at Naples, and who, when his courtiers once complained that he preferred the Florentines to them, answered, "I can make a hundred Spanish grandees in a minute, but I cannot make one Guicciardini in a hundred years."

When Alessandro de Medici was murdered by one of his relations, and the Florentines under the direction of Cardinal Cibo wished to restore the republican constitution, Guicciardini opposed it with all his power, and maintained that to preserve the state from becoming the prey of foreigners or of factions the monarchical form of government ought to be retained. His eloquence and the force of his arguments triumphed, and Cosmo de Medici was proclaimed grand duke of Florence. Guicciardini died in 1540, and, according to his own directions, was buried without pomp in the church of Santa Felicità in Florence.

GUIDO, RENI, the most charming and graceful painter whom Italy ever produced. His family name was Reni, but he is always called Guido; in fact, many of the old masters are best known by their Christian names. He was born at Bologna in 1575. His father, Samuel Reni, an excellent musician, at first intended that his son should devote himself to music, for which he showed some talent; but he soon discovered in the boy a greater genius for painting, and had him instructed by the Dutch artist Dionysius Calvaert, who was then in high repute at Bologna. In this celebrated school Guido is said to have studied chiefly the works of Albert Durer. This becomes probable if we consider some of his earlier works, in which, particularly in the drapery, occasional resemblance may be traced to the style of Albert Durer. In the mean time the school of the Caracci at Bologna, on account of its novelty and superior taste, began to eclipse the former, and Guido joined it in his twentieth year.

Guido's desire to behold the treasures of art in Rome induced him to visit that city with two of his fellow students, Domenichino and Albani. There he saw some of the paintings of Caravaggio, who was greatly admired for his powerful and expressive (though often coarse and low) manner, which Guido imitated. His reputation soon spread, and Cardinal Borghese employed him to paint a crucifixion of St. Peter for the church Del Tre Fontane. The powerful manner of this picture, and several others of the same period, which Guido did not however long retain, increased his fame; and when at the cardinal's request he completed the Aurora, so beautifully engraved by Morghen, the admiration was universal. Paul V. at that time employed him to embellish a chapel on Monte Cavallo, with scenes from the life of the Virgin Mary. Guido accomplished this work to the satisfaction of the pope, and was next entrusted with the painting of another chapel in Santa Maria Maggiore. These works were followed by so many orders that he was unable to execute them all. To this period his *Fortuna*, and the Portraits of Sixtus V. and Cardinal Spada may be assigned.

Guido's paintings are generally considered as belonging to three different manners and periods. The first comprises those pictures which resemble the manner of the Caracci, and particularly that of Caravaggio. Deep shades, narrow and powerful lights, strong colouring, in short, an effort after great effect, distinguish his works of this first period. The second manner is completely opposed to the first, and was adopted by Guido himself as a contrast to the works of Caravaggio, with whom he was in constant controversy. Its principal features are light colouring, little shade, an agreeable, though often superficial, treatment of the subject. It is quite peculiar to Guido. His Aurora forms the transition from the first to the second style of his paintings. A third period commences at the time when Guido worked with too much haste to finish his pieces, and was more intent upon the profits of his labour than upon his fame. It may be distinguished by a greenish gray, and altogether unnatural colouring, and by a general carelessness and weakness. This last manner is particularly remarkable in the large standard, with the patron saint of Bologna, and more or less in a number of other paintings of that period.

During the government of Pope Urban VIII.



Guido quarrelled with his treasurer, Cardinal Spinola, respecting the price of a picture, and returned to Bologna. There he had already executed his St. Peter and Paul for the house of Zampiere, and the Murder of the Innocents for the Dominican church, and was on the point of embellishing the chapel of the saint with his pictures when he was called back to Rome, loaded with honours, and received by the pope himself in the most gracious manner; but he soon experienced new difficulties, and accepted an invitation to go to Naples. Believing himself unsafe at this place on account of the hatred of the Neapolitan artists against foreign painters, he returned once more to his native city, never to quit it again. At Bologna he finished the chapel above mentioned, painted two beautiful pictures for the church Dei Mendicanti, an Ascension of Mary for Genoa, and a number of others for his native city and other places, particularly for Rome.

While in Rome Guido had established a school. In Bologna the number of his pupils amounted to 200. He now worked mostly in haste, accustomed himself to an unfinished affected style, became negligent, had many things executed by his pupils, and sold them, after having re-touched them, as his own works; and all this merely to satisfy his unfortunate passion for gambling. He often sold his paintings at any price, and became involved in pecuniary embarrassments, which were the cause of his death in 1642.

If we analyze Guido's productions we find his drawing not always correct, rarely powerful and grand; his attitudes without much selection, sometimes not even natural; yet his drawing has a grace peculiar to him, a loveliness consisting rather in the treatment of the whole than in the execution of the parts. This grace and loveliness are often to be found only in his heads. His ideas are generally common, the distribution of the whole rarely good; hence his large works have not a pleasing effect, and are not so much valued as his smaller works, particularly his half-lengths, of which he painted a great number. The disposition of his drapery is generally easy and beautiful, but often not in harmony with the whole piece and with the nature of the substance which it is intended to represent. An elevated, varied, distinct expression is not to be looked for in his works. For this reason he rarely succeeded in adult male figures, in which power and firmness are to be represented. The best are from his early period. But Guido's element was the representing of youthful, and particularly female figures. In them he manifested his fine instinct for the delicate, graceful, charming, tender, and lovely. This is shown particularly in his eyes turned towards heaven in his Madonnas and Magdalens. His colouring is rarely true, often falls into yellowish, greenish, and silver gray, yet is generally agreeable, and proves the very great ease and power with which he managed his pencil, which, however, often degenerates into mannerism. Guido not only worked in relief, but also executed some statues, and a considerable number of etchings with his own hand, which exhibit ease and delicacy and are much esteemed. It might almost be said, that his drawing in these engravings is more correct and noble than even in his paintings. Among the number of his pupils who remained more or less faithful to his style are distinguished, Guido Congiagi, Simone Contarini Pesarese, Francesco

Ricchi, Andr. Streni, Giovanni Sementi, and G. Bat. Bolognini.

GUIGNES, JOSEPH DE.—This celebrated orientalist was born at Pontoise in 1721. He was appointed royal interpreter in 1745, and in 1753 was chosen a member of the academy of belles-lettres. He applied himself particularly to the study of the Chinese characters; and comparing them with those of the ancient languages, he thought he had discovered that they were a kind of monograms formed from three Phenician letters, and therefore concluded that China must have been peopled by an Egyptian colony. The "*Journal de Savans*" and the "*Memoirs of the Academy*" he enriched during the space of thirty-five years with a great number of contributions, which display profound learning, great sagacity, and many new views. At the age of near eighty he was reduced to poverty by the Revolution; but even in this situation he retained his equanimity, his disinterestedness, and his independence, which would not allow him to receive support from any one. He died at Paris in 1800. Among his numerous works the first place belongs to his "*Histoire Générale des Huns, des Turcs, des Mogols, et des autres Tartares Occidentaux.*" In this work, the materials for which he had drawn from valuable, and in part untouched, stores of eastern knowledge, to which he had gained access by a profound study of the languages, much light is thrown upon the history of the Caliphates, of the Crusades, and generally of the eastern nations. As regards industry he has given us no cause to complain, but we often feel the want of a careful style and a just discrimination. The language frequently shows marks of neglect. A better taste would have given a more powerful translation of the peculiar oriental expressions. He needed a more philosophic mind to understand fully the poetry of the east, to lay open the causes of events, to point out the most striking circumstances which he has often slightly passed over. De Guignes, like Herbelot, drew from a large number of manuscripts, and like him often falls into repetitions and sometimes contradictions. His "*Mémoire dans lequel on Prouve que les Chinois sont une Colonie Egyptienne*" is of great value. Translations of the "*Chou King*" (by Father Gaubil), one of the sacred books of the Chinese, and of the "*Military Art among the Chinese*," were revised and published by De Guignes. His son Christian, born in 1759, was likewise skilled in the Chinese language and literature, and wrote several dissertations upon them. His "*Chinese Dictionary*," with the definitions in French and Latin, is a masterpiece of typography, and is generally esteemed.

GUILLIM, JOHN, an English heraldic writer and antiquary, who was born in 1565. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1617 obtained an appointment in the Heralds' College. He died in 1621 after having written several heraldic works, of which the best known is entitled "*A Display of Heraldry.*"

GUISCHARD, CHARLES GOTTLIEB, an able writer on military tactics, was a native of Magdeburgh. After studying at the universities of Halle, Marburgh, and Leyden, he entered into the service of Holland, and while thus employed found leisure to prepare materials for his "*Mémoires Militaires sur les Grecs et les Romains*," which appeared in 1757, and met with great approbation. The same

year he entered as a volunteer into the allied army, and acquired the esteem of Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, who recommended him to the king of Prussia. He was a favourite of Frederic the Great. A dispute having once arisen between them respecting the name of the commander of Cesar's tenth legion, in which Guischard proved to be right, Frederic gave him the name of this commander (*Quintus Icilius*), by which he was afterwards frequently called. Besides the work already mentioned, he was the author of "*Mémoires Critiques et Historiques sur Plusieurs Points d'Antiquité Militaire*," upon which work Gibbon bestows very high encomiums. Guischard died in 1775.

GUISE, the name of a celebrated Roman family in France, a branch of the house of Lorraine. We may commence with Claude de Guise, fifth son of René duke of Lorraine, who was born in 1496, established himself in France and married Antoinette de Bourbon in 1513. His valour, his enterprising spirit, and his other noble qualities, obtained for him great consideration, and enabled him to become the founder of one of the first houses in France. In 1527, for the sake of doing him honour, his county of Guise was changed to a duchy, and made a peerage. At his death in 1550 he left six sons and five daughters, the eldest of whom married James V. king of Scotland. The splendour of the house was now principally supported by the eldest son, (Guise Francis, duke of Lorraine, born in 1519, and called *La Balafré* (the scarred) from a wound which he received in 1545 at the siege of Boulogne, and which left a permanent scar on his face. He showed distinguished courage in 1553 at Metz, which he defended with success against Charles V. although the emperor had sworn that he would rather perish than retreat without having effected his object.

In the battle of Renti, which occurred August 13, 1554, he displayed remarkable intrepidity. He also fought with success in Flanders and in Italy, and was named lieutenant-general of all the royal troops. The star of France began again to shine as soon as he was placed at the head of the army. In eight days Calais was taken, with the territory belonging to it, in the middle of winter. He afterwards conquered Thionville from the Spaniards, and proved that the good or ill fortune of whole states often depends on a single man. Under Henry II., whose sister he had married, and still more under Francis II., he was the virtual ruler of France. The conspiracy of Amboise, which the Protestants had entered into for his destruction, produced an entirely opposite effect. The parliament gave him the title of saviour of his country. After the death of Francis II. his power began to decline. Then grew up the factions of Condé and Guise. On the side of the latter stood the constable of Montmorency and marshal de St. André; on the side of the former were the Protestants and Coligny. The duke of Guise, a zealous Catholic, and an enemy to the Protestants, determined to pursue them sword in hand. After having passed the borders of Champagne at Bassi, March 1, 1562, he found the Calvinists singing the psalms of Marot in a barn. His party insulted them; they came to blows, and nearly sixty of these unhappy victims of bigotry were killed, and 200 wounded. This unexpected event lighted the flame of civil war throughout the kingdom. The duke of Guise took Rouen and Bourges, and won the

battle of Dreux, December 19, 1562. On the evening after this victory he remained with entire confidence in the same tent with his prisoner, the prince of Condé, shared his bed with him, and slept quietly by the side of his rival, whom he regarded as a relation and a friend. At that time the duke of Guise was at the height of his fortune. He was preparing for the siege of Orleans, the central point of the Protestant party, when he was killed by a pistol shot fired by Poltrot de Mercy, a Huguenot nobleman, February 24, 1563.

GUISE, HENRY, duke of Lorraine, eldest son of the preceding, was born in 1550. He displayed his courage for the first time at the battle of Jarnac in 1569. His prepossessing appearance made him a general favourite. He put himself at the head of an army under the pretence of defending the Catholic faith, and advised the cruel massacre of St. Bartholomew. From motives of personal revenge he took upon himself the assassination of Coligny, whom he called the murderer of his father. In 1576 was formed the league, first projected by his uncle, the cardinal of Lorraine. For this purpose it was proposed to the most zealous citizens of Paris to join in a league, which had for its avowed object the defence of religion, of the king, and of the freedom of the state, but in reality tended to the oppression both of the king and the nation.

The duke of Guise, who wished to raise himself upon the ruins of France, inflamed the seditious, obtained several victories over the Calvinists, and soon saw himself in a situation to prescribe laws to his prince. He obliged Henry III. to annul all the privileges of the Huguenots, and carried so far his imperious demands that the king at last forbade him to come to Paris. Nevertheless, he appeared there in 1588, and obliged the king to leave the city and conclude a treaty with him. Flushed by this triumph, he became imprudent, and clearly showed that he aimed at the highest power. In consequence of the treaty the estates were assembled at Blois. The king, informed of the ambitious plans of the duke, took counsel with his confidants, D'Aumont, Rambouillet, and Beauvais Nangis, and all three were of opinion that it was impossible to bring him to a regular trial, but that he must be privately despatched, and that this measure would be justified by his open treason. The brave Crillon refused to take upon himself the execution of this plan. It was therefore entrusted to Lognac, first chamberlain of the king, and captain of forty-five Gascon noblemen of the new royal guard. He selected nine of the most resolute, and concealed them in the king's cabinet. The duke had indeed been warned, and his brother the cardinal advised him to go to Paris; but upon the advice of the archbishop of Lyons, who represented to him that his friends would lose courage if he left Blois at so favourable a moment, he resolved to await the worst. On the following day, December 23, 1588, he went to the king, and was somewhat concerned at seeing the guards strengthened. As soon as he had entered the first hall the doors were shut. He preserved, however, a calm exterior, and saluted the bystanders as usual. But when about to enter the cabinet he was stabbed with several daggers, and before he could draw his sword he fell dead, exclaiming "God have mercy on me." At the time of his death he was thirty-eight years old. On the following day the cardinal



was also assassinated; but, far from extinguishing the fire of civil war, this double murder only increased the hatred of the Catholics against the king. The high-minded Henry of Navarre (Henry IV.) said, upon hearing of the deed, "Had Guise fallen into my hands, I would have treated him very differently. Why," added he, "did he not join with me? We would have conquered, together, all Italy."

**GUNDULPH.**—This distinguished English ecclesiastic flourished in the eleventh century. He was one of the warrior bishops so frequently seen about that period, and devoted himself as much to military as to sacerdotal affairs. Gundulph was an excellent architect, and a considerable portion of Rochester Castle still remains an enduring monument of his skill and ingenuity. We mention this interesting remain of the olden time from its vicinity to the metropolis, and the facility that steam navigation affords of reaching its site in a few hours. It is certainly one of the most perfect edifices of the period in the kingdom, and the bishop survived its erection but a short time, as he died in 1108.

**GUSTAVUS I.**, king of Sweden. This distinguished monarch, known under the name of Gustavus Vasa, was born in 1490. He was one of those great men whom nature seldom produces, and who appear to have been endowed by her with every quality becoming a sovereign. His handsome person and noble countenance prepossessed all in his favour. His artless eloquence was irresistible; his conceptions were bold, but his indomitable spirit brought them to a happy issue. He was intrepid, and yet prudent, full of courtesy in a rude age, and as virtuous as the leader of a party can be. When the tyrant Christian II. of Denmark sought to make himself master of the throne of Sweden, Gustavus resolved to save his country from oppression; but the execution of his plans was interrupted, as Christian seized his person and kept him prisoner in Copenhagen as a hostage, with six other distinguished Swedes. When at last in 1519 he heard of the success of Christian, who had nearly completed the subjection of Sweden, he resolved, while yet in prison, that he would deliver his country. He fled in the dress of a peasant, and went more than fifty miles the first day through an unknown country. In Flensburg he met with some cattle-drivers from Jutland; to conceal himself more securely he took service with them, and arrived happily at Lubeck. Here he was indeed recognised, but he was taken under the protection of the senate, who even promised to support him in his plans, which he no longer concealed. He then embarked and landed at Calmar. The garrison, to whom he made himself known, refused to take the part of a fugitive.

Proscribed by Christian, pursued by the soldiers of the tyrant, rejected both by friends and relations, Gustavus turned his steps towards Dalecarlia to seek assistance from the inhabitants of that province. Having escaped with difficulty the dangers which surrounded him, he was well received by a priest who aided him with his influence, money, and counsel. After he had prepared the minds of the people he took the opportunity of a festival at which the peasants of the canton assembled, and appeared in the midst of them. His noble and confident air, his misfortunes, and the general hatred against Christian, who had marked the very beginning of his reign by a cruel massacre at Stockholm,—all lent an irresistible

power to his words. The people rushed to arms; the castle of the governor was stormed, and, emboldened by this success, the Dalecarlians flocked together under the banners of the conqueror. From this moment Gustavus entered upon a career of victory. At the head of a self-raised army he advanced rapidly, and completed the expulsion of the enemy.

In 1521 the estates gave Gustavus the title of administrator. In 1523 they proclaimed him king. Upon receiving this honour he appeared to yield with regret to the wishes of the nation; but he deferred the ceremony of the coronation that he might not be obliged to swear to uphold the Catholic religion and the rights of the clergy. He felt that the good of the kingdom required an amelioration of the affairs of the church, and he felt too that this could only be effected by a total reform. His chancellor, Larz Anderson, advised him to avail himself of the Lutheran doctrines to attain his object. Gustavus was pleased with this bold plan, and executed it more by the superiority of his policy than of his power. While he secretly favoured the progress of the Lutheran religion, he divided the vacant ecclesiastical dignities among his favourites; and, under pretence of lightening the burdens of the people, he laid upon the clergy the charge of supporting his army. Soon after he dared to do still more: in 1527 he requested and obtained from the estates the abolition of the privileges of the bishops. In the mean while the doctrines of Luther were rapidly spreading. Gustavus anticipated all seditious movements, or suppressed them. He held the malcontents under restraint; he flattered the ambitious, he gained the weak, and at last openly embraced the faith which the greater part of his subjects already professed.

In 1530 a national council adopted the confession of Augsburg for their creed. Gustavus after having, as he said, thus conquered his kingdom a second time, had nothing more to do but to secure it to his children. The estates granted this request also, and in 1542 abdicated their right of election, and established hereditary succession. Although Sweden was a very limited monarchy, Gustavus exercised an almost unlimited power; but this was allowed him, as he only used it for the benefit of his country, and he never violated the forms of the constitution. He perfected the legislation, formed the character of the nation, softened manners, encouraged industry and learning, and extended commerce. After a glorious reign of thirty-seven years, he died in 1560, at the age of seventy.

**GUSTAVUS II., ADOLPHUS**, the greatest monarch of Sweden, was a son of Charles IX. and a grandson of Gustavus Vasa. He was born at Stockholm in 1594, and received a most careful education. At the age of twelve he entered the army, and at sixteen directed all affairs, appeared in the state council and at the head of the army, obeyed as a soldier, negotiated as a minister, and commanded under the king. In 1611, after the death of Charles IX., the estates gave the throne to the young prince at the age of eighteen, and without regard to the law declared him of age; for they saw that only the most energetic measures could save the kingdom from subjection, and that a regency would infallibly cause its ruin. The penetrating eye of Gustavus saw in Axel Oxenstiern, the youngest of the counsellors of state, the great statesman whose advice he might follow in the most dangerous situations. He united him to himself by the

hands of the most intimate friendship. But Denmark, Poland, and Russia, were at war with Sweden, and Gustavus, unable to cope at once with three such powerful adversaries, engaged at the peace of Knared in 1613 to pay Denmark 1,000,000 dollars, but received back all that had been conquered from Sweden. After a successful campaign, in which, according to his own confession, his military talent was formed by James de la Gardie, Russia was entirely shut out from the Baltic by the peace of Stolbowa. But Poland, although no more successful against him, would only consent to a truce for six years, which he accepted, partly because it afforded him opportunity to undertake something decisive against Austria, whose head, the emperor Ferdinand II., was striving by all means to increase his power, and was likewise an irreconcilable enemy of the Protestants. The intention of the emperor to make himself master of the Baltic, and to prepare an attack upon Sweden, did not admit of a doubt. But a still more powerful inducement to oppose the progress of his arms, Gustavus Adolphus found in the war between the Catholics and the Protestants, which endangered at once the freedom of Germany and the whole Protestant church. Gustavus, who was truly devoted to the Lutheran doctrines, determined to deliver both. After explaining to the estates of the kingdom in a powerful speech the resolution he had taken, he presented to them, with tears in his eyes, his daughter Christina as his heirress, with the presentiment that he should never again see his country, and entrusted the regency to a chosen council, excluding his wife, whom however he tenderly loved. He then invaded Germany in 1630, and landed with 13,000 men on the coast of Pomerania. What difficulties opposed him on the part of those very princes for whose sake he had come,—how his wisdom, generosity, and perseverance triumphed over inconstancy, mistrust, and weakness,—what deeds of heroism he performed at the head of his army, and how he fell, an unconquered and unsullied general, at the battle of Lutzen, Nov. 6, 1632, is the province of general history to recount. The circumstances immediately attending his death have long been related in various and contradictory ways; but we now know, from the letter of an officer who was wounded at his side, that he was killed on the spot by an Austrian ball. The king's buff coat was carried to Vienna, where it is still kept; but Bernhard Von Weimar carried the body to Weissenfels to give it to the queen. There the heart was buried and remained in the land for which it bled.

GUSTAVUS III., king of Sweden, born in 1746, was the eldest son of Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was chosen to succeed to the Swedish throne in 1743, and of Ulrica Louisa, sister of Frederic II. of Prussia. Count Tessin, to whose care the prince was entrusted from his fifth year, endeavoured to form his mind and character with a constant view to his future destination, and was especially anxious to restrain the ambition of the youth, and to inspire him with respect for the constitution of Sweden. His successor, Count Scheffer, pursued the same course; but the ambition of the young prince was not eradicated. His docility of disposition, affability of manners, and gentleness, concealed an ardent thirst for power and action. Manly exercises, science and the arts, the pleasures of society, and displays of splendour united with taste, appeared to be his favourite occupations.

Sweden was then distracted by factions, especially those of the caps and hats, by which names the partisans of Russia and France were distinguished. Both parties, however, were united in their efforts to weaken the royal power as much as possible. The father of Gustavus, a wise and benevolent prince, had found his situation quite perplexing. Gustavus himself encountered, with great boldness and art, the difficulties which met him on his accession to the throne after his father's death, February 12, 1771. He established the order of Vasa to gain over some enterprising officers of the army, and a party was formed principally consisting of young officers devoted to him. Emissaries were sent to gain over the troops stationed in the other parts of the kingdom. Some influential individuals, among whom were the counts Hermanson and Scheffer, had also joined the royal party. A new plan was devised and the parts so distributed that the king's brothers were to begin the revolution in the country, while the king himself should commence operations in the capital. Agreeably to this plan the commandant of Christianstadt, Captain Hellichius, one of the truest and boldest adherents of the king, August 12, 1772, caused the city gates to be shut, and all the entrances to be guarded, and published a manifesto against the states general. Prince Charles then appeared before Christianstadt, and commenced a pretended siege, wherein no one was injured. The king in the mean time played his part so perfectly as to dissipate the suspicions of the secret committee of the states. The committee ordered patrols of the citizens in the capital, which the king always attended, and by his insinuating address gained over to his cause the principal part of the soldiery and many of the officers.

While he was thus preparing for the decisive moment, he appeared serene and composed; and on the evening preceding the accomplishment of the project he held a splendid court, which he enlivened by his affability and gaiety. On the following day, August 19, 1772, after taking a ride, the king went to the council of the estates at the castle, where for the first time he entered into a warm dispute with some of the counsellors. He then went to the arsenal on horseback, where he exercised the guard. In the mean time the officers, upon whom he thought he could depend, assembled, in consequence of a secret order to that effect, and accompanied him to the castle, where at that time they were changing guard, so that those who were retiring and those who were mounting guard met. With the entrance of the king into the castle the revolution began. The king then collected the officers about him in the guard room, unfolded to them his plan, and demanded their support. Most of them were young men, and were immediately gained over by the thought of delivering their country. Three older officers, who refused, had their swords taken from them by the king. The rest swore fidelity to his cause. The king's address to the soldiers was received with loud acclamations. He then set a guard over the entrances to the hall of the council, and commanded them to remain quiet, after which he returned to the arsenal, amidst the acclamations of the people, and secured the adherence of the regiments of artillery. A public proclamation exhorted the inhabitants of Stockholm to remain tranquil, and to obey no orders but those of the king. Cannon



were planted, guards distributed, and several persons arrested by way of precaution.

Thus was the decisive blow struck without bloodshed, and the king returned to the castle, where he received the congratulations of foreign ambassadors, whom he had invited to his table. On the following day the magistrates of the city took the oath of allegiance in the great market-place amid the acclamations of the people. But it was necessary for the estates also to approve of the revolution and to accept the new constitution, by which the royal power was enlarged, not so much at the expense of the estates as of the council. The next day they were summoned to meet at the castle, where they found themselves without any attendants. The court of the castle was guarded by soldiers, cannon were planted before the hall of assembly, and a cannonier stationed at each piece with a lighted match. The king appeared with a numerous retinue of officers and unusual pomp—depicted, in a forcible manner, the situation of the kingdom and the necessity of a reform,—declared the moderation of his views, and caused the new constitution to be read, which was immediately approved and confirmed by subscription and oath. Almost all the public officers retained their stations, those persons who had been arrested were set at liberty, and the revolution was completed.

The king now exerted himself to promote the prosperity of his country. In 1783 he went through Germany to Italy, to use the baths of Pisa, and returned to Sweden the following year through France. During his absence a famine had destroyed thousands of his subjects; the people murmured, the nobility rose against the king's despotic policy, and the estates of the kingdom in 1786 rejected almost all his propositions, and compelled him to make great sacrifices. A war having broke out between Russia and the Porte in 1787 Gustavus, in compliance with former treaties, determined to attack the empress of Russia, who had promoted the dissensions in Sweden. War was declared in 1788; but when the king attempted to commence operations by an attack on Friedrichsham he was deserted by the greatest part of his army, who refused to engage in an offensive war.

The king retired to Haga, and thence to Dalecarlia, in search of recruits. He soon collected an army of determined defenders of their country, and delivered Gothenburg, which was hard pressed by the Danes. Meanwhile, however, the insurrection of the Finnish army, which had concluded an armistice with the Russians, still continued. The critical situation of the kingdom required the convocation of the estates. To overcome the opposition of the nobility, he constituted a secret committee, of which the nobility chose twelve members from their own number, and each of the estates, who were devoted to the king, six. The nobility, however, continued their opposition to the king, who, being encouraged by the other estates to avail himself of every measure he might think advisable, finally took a decisive step, arrested the chiefs of the opposition, and exacted the adoption of the new act of union and safety, which conferred on him more extensive powers.

The war was now prosecuted with great energy and with various success. Bloody battles, especially by sea, were gained and lost; but although Gustavus valiantly opposed superior forces, yet the desperate state

of his kingdom and the proceedings of the congress at Reichenbach inclined him to peace, which was concluded on the plain of Werelæ, August 14, 1790. Untaught by the warnings of adversity, he now determined to take part in the French revolution and to restore Louis XVI. to his throne. He wished to unite Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and to place himself at the head of the coalition. For this purpose in the spring of 1791 he went to Spa and Aix-la-Chapelle, concluded a peace with Catherine, and convened a meeting of the estates at Gefle in January 1792, which was dissolved in four weeks to the satisfaction of the king. Here his assassination was agreed upon. The counts Horn and Ribbing, the barons Bielke and Pechlin, Colonel Liliehorn, and many others, had conspired to murder him and to restore the old aristocracy. Ankarström, who personally hated the king, begged that the execution might be entrusted to him. A masquerade at Stockholm, on the night of March 15, 1792, was chosen for the perpetration of the crime. Just before the beginning of the ball the king received a warning note, but he went at about eleven o'clock with Count Essen, stepped into a box, and, as all was quiet, into the hall. Here a crowd of maskers surrounded him, and while one of them (Count Horn) struck him upon the shoulder, with the words "Good night, mask," the king was mortally wounded by Ankarström with a shot in the back. With remarkable presence of mind he immediately took all the necessary measures for the succession, and expired March 29, after having arranged the most important affairs with serenity, and signed an order for proclaiming his son king.

Sir John Sinclair, in his interesting "Correspondence and Reminiscences," lately published, thus describes his visit to this unfortunate monarch:—

"It was on the 22nd of July, 1786, that I had the honour of being presented to this sovereign, at his country palace of Droningholm. I was received in so very flattering a manner that the French ambassador could not conceal the chagrin with which he witnessed it. But the circumstance can easily be accounted for. There had long been a most intimate connexion between Sweden and Scotland. A number of Scotch regiments had served with great éclat under Gustavus Adolphus in his German war; and so many of the officers of those corps had settled in Sweden, that no less than about sixty of the nobility of Sweden were of Scottish extraction. Among these the king remarked that there were not less than three noble families of the name of Sinclair; so that it must have interested him much to have a person of that name from the same country, and who was also a member of the British House of Commons, presented to him. He was likewise glad to learn from the English minister (Sir Thomas Wroughton), that I supported the administration of Mr. Pitt; feelingly adding, 'That he was not fond of those who were perpetually wrangling with their sovereign, and disturbing the peace and tranquillity of a country.' The royal family took no meal in public except supper, and during that repast the king was accustomed to send for the foreign ministers and any strangers who were at court. On the present occasion I was the fourth in succession, and was desired to attend before the Spanish minister and several other foreigners of distinction, which was considered a great compliment, and was probably owing to my political rank as a British senator.

After these audiences were over, there was occasionally singing and some instrumental music. The scene, on the whole, was splendid and interesting. The ministers of the crown and the strangers present were afterwards invited to sup at the table of the countess Piper, where the entertainment was sumptuous. We returned about two o'clock next morning to Stockholm, after spending a day as happy as royal splendour and luxury could make it. On our return, Monsieur Trembley, a savant from Switzerland, remarked, "It is not to be wondered at that such scenes as these should turn the heads of those who are not true philosophers."

"Gustavus, as has always been the case with monarchs, was represented in different colours by his foes and his friends. His enemies dwelt on his defects and vices, and his friends on those accomplishments and virtues which they contended he possessed. By blending the two together, and taking a little from both, his real character may be justly estimated. His enemies accused him of intemperance in drinking, in which he occasionally indulged himself, but he was not an habitual drunkard. They ridiculed him much for his vanity, in particular for imitating, because his name was Gustavus, his renowned ancestors, Gustavus Vasa and Gustavus Adolphus. This was certainly a laudable ambition, had he not extended it to such trifles as sitting in the attitude in which Gustavus Adolphus was drawn and the like minutæ. The next charge they brought against him was extravagance. He was certainly inclined to spend much more than the revenues of so poor a kingdom as Sweden could afford. He immersed himself in all kinds of expenses,—some useful, like those at Carls-crona; others perfectly unnecessary, such as the building of the most elegant though not the largest opera-house in Europe. This edifice cost above 150,000*l.*, and its actors, decorations, &c., occasioned an annual expense which the prudent and frugal Swedes grudged not a little. He likewise kept in his stables at Stockholm no fewer than 275 horses. In short, his establishments were altogether on too great a scale for so small a kingdom. He was also accused of being extremely unguarded and imprudent in his speeches. Being much disappointed at the reception he had met with at Paris, and attributing it to the queen of France, he gave her additional umbrage by the imprudent remarks he made respecting her. \* \* \* In the last place he was very apt to be hasty in the plans he adopted. The diet in 1786 was rashly resolved on and as hastily dissolved; and the speech at the dissolution was so extremely violent that the king found it absolutely necessary to soften it before it was printed. The obnoxious passages, however, were deeply engraven in the minds of many of the hearers and rendered him extremely unpopular. On the other hand, as his friends contended, the king always showed a sincere and hearty desire to render his country flourishing. Every useful attempt of a public nature he warmly patronised. He encouraged learned men of all professions. To those who conspicuously distinguished themselves by their literary labours he gave the offices they were entitled to expect, as the best professorships in the different universities and sometimes the order of Vasa, as in the case of Thunberg, who had been in Japan. By his attention and encouragement he also reared some tolerable painters, and Sergle, who was employed and maintained by him, was an excellent statuary.

He was very attentive, as every wise king ought to be, to preserve his naval and military establishment on the best possible footing. He again called forth the warlike spirit of the Swedes, which had sunk very low during his father's reign, and his fleet, by the exertions and abilities of that excellent constructor, Chapman, became extremely formidable."

GUTCH, JOHN, an English antiquary, who was educated at Oxford, in which university he long held the office of registrar. He published a work of much research, entitled "Fasti Oxonienses" and "The Antiquities and Annals of the University." His death took place at Oxford, July 31st, 1831.

GUTHRIE, WILLIAM, a learned classical and miscellaneous writer, born in Scotland at the commencement of the last century. He was educated at Aberdeen, and, coming to the metropolis early in life, devoted himself to literature as a profession, till the time of his death, which occurred in 1770. Mr. Guthrie is best known for his translations of Quintilian and Cicero, as the histories of England and Scotland, which bear his name, as well as several other popular works, were not written by him.

GUTTENBERG, or GUTENBERG, JOHN, usually called the inventor of printing, was born at Mentz about 1400. The family of Gutenberg called itself noble. In 1424 Gutenberg was living in Strasburg, and in 1436 entered into a contract with Andrew Dryzehn and others, binding himself to teach them all his secret and wonderful arts, and to employ them for their common advantage. The death of Dryzehn, which happened soon after, frustrated the undertaking of the company, who had probably intended to commence the art of printing; especially as George Dryzehn, a brother of the deceased, engaged in a lawsuit with Gutenberg, which turned out to the disadvantage of the latter. When and where his first attempts were made at printing cannot be fully decided, as Gutenberg never attached either name or date to the works he printed. This, however, is certain, that about 1438 Gutenberg made use of movable types of wood. In 1443 he returned from Strasburg, where he had hitherto lived, to Mentz, and in 1450 formed a copartnership with John Faust, or Fust, a rich goldsmith of that city (who must not be confounded with the famous magician Faust), who furnished money to establish a press, in which the Latin Bible was first printed. But after some years this connexion was dissolved.

Faust had made large advances, which Gutenberg ought to have repaid; and as he either could not or would not do it, the subject was carried before the tribunals. The result was, that Faust retained the press, which he improved and continued to use in company with Peter Schöffer of Gernsheim. By the patronage of a counsellor of Mentz, Conrad Hummer, Gutenberg was again enabled to establish a press the following year, when he probably printed "Hermanni de Saldis Speculum Sacerdotum" without the date or the printer's name. Here likewise, as some maintain, appeared four editions of the Latin grammar of Donatus, which others however ascribe to the office of Faust and Schöffer. In 1457 the Psalter was printed with a typographical elegance which sufficiently proves the rapid advances of the new art, and the diligence with which it was cultivated. Gutenberg's printing-office remained in Mentz till 1465. About this time he was ennobled by Adolphus of Nassau, and died February 24, 1468.



GUY, THOMAS, the founder of Guy's Hospital, was the son of a lighterman in Southwark, and born in 1644. He was brought up a bookseller. He dealt largely in the importation of Bibles from Holland, and afterwards contracted with Oxford for those printed at that university; but his principal gains arose from the disreputable purchase of seamen's prize tickets in Queen Anne's war, and from his dealings in South Sea stock in 1720. By these speculations and practices, aided by the most penurious habits, he amassed a fortune of nearly half a million sterling, of which he spent about 200,000*l.* in the building and endowing his hospital in Southwark. He also erected almshouses at Tamworth, and benefited Christ's Hospital and various other charities, leaving 80,000*l.* to be divided among those who could prove any degree of relationship to him. He died in December 1724, in his eighty-first year, after having dedicated more to charitable purposes than any other private man in English record.

GUY DE CHAULIAC, a native of Chauliac, on the frontier of Auvergne, who lived in the middle of the fourteenth century, and was the physician of three popes. He is to be considered as the reformer of surgery in his time. His "*Chirurgia Magna*" contains most of the opinions of his predecessors. It was long considered as a classical text book, was finished at Avignon in 1363, and was printed at Bergamo. It has been often reprinted, commented on, and translated into many modern languages.

GUYTON MORVEAU, LEWIS.—This eminent French chemist was born in 1737. He was first known as a lawyer, in which profession he attained the rank of attorney-general of the *Cote d'Or*. But at the breaking out of the Revolution, Guyton Morveau became one of the most active partisans in the sanguinary proceedings that were carried on. When Bonaparte came into power he was made a member of the legion of honour, and he was a very active supporter of the National Institute. Guyton Morveau died in 1815. His work entitled "*Éléments de Chimie*," originally published in 1777, has been several times reprinted.

GWINNETT, BUTTON, a distinguished individual, who was born in England about the year 1732, and in 1770 emigrated to Charleston in South Carolina, North America, where he continued the business of a merchant, in which he had been previously engaged. At the end of two years, however, he abandoned commerce, and purchasing a plantation with a number of negroes on St. Catherine's Island, in Georgia, devoted his attention to agriculture. Soon after the revolutionary struggle commenced, he took an active part in the affairs of Georgia, and in 1776 the general assembly of the province elected him a representative to the general congress held at Philadelphia; and in February 1777 he was appointed a member of a convention for the purpose of framing a constitution for the state; and the foundation of that afterwards adopted is said to have been furnished by him. He was soon chosen president of the provincial council, and employed himself in this station in thwarting the operations of General McIntosh, against whom he had a personal enmity, in consequence of the latter having succeeded in obtaining the post of brigadier-general of a continental brigade, to be levied in Georgia, for which Gwinnett himself had been a candidate. In May 1777 Gwinnett was a candidate for the chair of governor of the

state, but failed; and on the 27th of the same month a duel took place between him and McIntosh on account of some insulting remarks of the latter. Both parties were wounded, but the injury received by Gwinnett terminated his life in the forty-fifth year of his age.

GWYNN, ELEANOR, the celebrated mistress of that most sensual of monarchs King Charles II., was at first an orange girl of the lowest description in the theatre. In the first part of her life she gained her bread by singing from tavern to tavern, and gradually advanced to the rank of a popular actress at the Theatre Royal. She is represented as handsome, but low of stature, and was mistress successively to Hart, Lacy, and Buckhurst, before she became the favourite of the king. It is said that in her elevation she showed her gratitude to Dryden, who had patronised her in her poverty; and, unlike the other mistresses, she was faithful to her royal keeper. From her are sprung the dukes of St. Alban's. She died in 1687.

HACKERT, PHILIP, a distinguished German landscape-painter, who was born at Prentzlow, in the Uckermark, in 1737, and died at Florence in 1806. His four younger brothers were also distinguished in the arts, three of them in painting, and one (George) in engraving. In 1768 Philip Hackert went to Italy. On his return from Naples to Rome, Catherine, empress of Russia, employed him to paint six pictures representing the two battles of Tschesme. These laid the foundation of his fame. In order to enable the artist to form a correct notion of the explosion of a vessel, Count Orloff caused a Russian frigate to be blown up in his presence. The singularity of this model, many months before spoken of in all the European papers, contributed not a little to increase the fame of the picture.

In 1782 Hackert was presented to Ferdinand, king of Naples, whose favour he soon gained. In 1786 he received an appointment in Naples. When the revolutionary wars broke out, being considered by the royalists as a republican, and by the French as a royalist, he was obliged to retire to Florence, where he remained till his death. His forte lay in painting dramatic scenes. To originality of composition his pictures have no claim. He was also skilful in restoring pictures, as appears by his letter to Lord Hamilton.

HACKET, DR. JOHN, a distinguished English prelate, who was born in 1592. He was educated at Cambridge, and became bishop of Lichfield at the Restoration. He expended more than 20,000*l.* in repairing the cathedral, and continued an active member of the church till his death, which occurred in 1670.

HADLEY, JOHN, vice-president of the Royal Society. Of this ingenious mathematician but little is known, but in 1731 he discovered the principle of the reflecting quadrant. The invention is also attributed to Thomas Godfrey of Philadelphia.

HÆNKE, THADDEUS, a Bohemian natural philosopher and traveller, who was invited by the Spanish government to accompany Malaspina on his voyage round the world in 1789. He arrived at Cadiz a few hours after the expedition had set sail. He followed it in the next vessel that sailed to the river Plata, but was wrecked on the coast of Monte Video. Hænke swam safe ashore, with his Linnæus and his papers in his cap, and finding that the expedition had already set sail, he determined to seek Captain Ma-

Iaspina in St. Jago by crossing the Andes. Without any knowledge of the language of the country, and without any assistance, this courageous predecessor of Humboldt surmounted all obstacles, and succeeded in joining Malaspina. Hænke never returned to Europe, as he died in America, perhaps purposely detained. The royal Bohemian national museum possesses his collections of natural history.

HAFIZ, or HAFEZ, MOHAMMED SCHEMSEDDIN, one of the most celebrated and most charming poets of Persia, was born at the beginning of the fourteenth century. He studied theology and law, sciences which in Mohammedan countries are intimately connected with each other. The surname Hafiz was given him because he knew the Koran by heart. He preferred independent poverty as a dervise to a life at court, whither he was often invited by Sultan Ahmed, who earnestly pressed him to visit Bagdad. He became a sheik, or chief of a fraternity of dervises, and died probably at Shiraz in 1389, where a sepulchral monument was erected to him, which has been often described by travellers; but in October 1825 an earthquake at Shiraz destroyed among many other buildings the monument of Hafiz, together with that of the celebrated Sadi.

Some idea of his style and sentiments may be obtained through the medium of translations. Sir William Jones published translations of two of his odes, which are extremely beautiful; besides which may be noticed Nott's "Select Odes of Hafiz, translated into English Verse, with the Original Text," and Hindley's "Persian Lyrics from the Divan-I-Hafiz, with Paraphrases in Verse and Prose." The songs of Hafiz were collected after his death, and were published complete at Calcutta in 1791. The poems of Hafiz are distinguished for sprightliness and Anacreontic festivity. He is not unfrequently loud in praise of wine, love, and pleasure. Some writers have sought a mystic meaning in these verses. Feridoun, Susuri, Sadi, and others, have attempted to explain what they supposed to be the hidden sense.

HAGEDORN, FRÉDÉRIC VON, a German poet, native of Hamburg, who was born in 1708. He received a good education, and displayed talents for poetry when young; but becoming an orphan at the age of fourteen he found himself dependent on his own exertions for support. He however continued studying in the gymnasium at Hamburg till 1726, when he removed to the university at Jena as a law student. In 1729 he published a small collection of poems, and the same year he came to London in the suite of the Danish ambassador, Baron Von Sclen-thal, with whom he resided till 1731. He obtained in 1733 the appointment of secretary to the English factory at Hamburg, which placed him in easy circumstances. It was not till 1738 that he again appeared before the public as an author, when he printed the first book of his "Fables," which were much admired. In 1740 he published the "Man of Letters," and in 1743 his celebrated poem on Happiness, which established his reputation as a moral writer. The second book of his "Fables" appeared in 1750; and he afterwards produced many lyric pieces in the style of Prior. He died of dropsy in 1754. Wieland, in the preface to his poetical works, terms him the German Horace.

HAGER, JOSEPH, a distinguished orientalist, professor of the oriental languages in the university of Pavia. He first distinguished himself in the liter-

ary world by the discovery of the fraud of a Sicilian monk named Vella, who had attempted to impose on the court of Palermo by some forged documents relative to the history of Sicily. Hager left Palermo for England, where he in vain endeavoured to excite the attention of the public in favour of his researches concerning Chinese literature. His pretensions as an oriental scholar were questioned by Dr. Antonio Montucci, an Italian resident in this country, who was engaged in similar pursuits. Hager published an "Explanation of the Elementary Characters of the Chinese, with an Analysis of their Symbols and Hieroglyphics," and a "Dissertation on the Newly-discovered Babylonian Inscriptions." He then went to Paris, where he produced the following works: "The Monument of Yu,"—the most ancient inscription in China; a "Description of the Chinese Medals in the Imperial Cabinet of France;" "The Chinese Pantheon, or a Comparison of the Religious Rites of the Greeks with those of the Chinese." From Paris Hager removed to Milan, where he published, in Italian, "Illustrations of an Oriental Zodiac," preserved in the cabinet of medals at Paris, and which was discovered near the site of ancient Babylon. In his "Miniere" he intended to show that the Turks were formerly connected with the Chinese. Julius Klaproth has shown that Hager's works, though they have great merit, contain gross mistakes. He died at Milan, June 27, 1820.

HAGUE, DR. CHARLES, was born in the year 1769 at Tadcaster in Yorkshire. From early youth he manifested great fondness for music. A violin was placed in his hand, and his brother, who was many years older than himself, became his preceptor. In 1779 he left his native place for Cambridge, where his brother had begun to reside. From the last mentioned period he had the advantage of excellent instruction both in the practice and the theory of his future profession.

In 1794 he was admitted to the degree of bachelor of music in the university of Cambridge. In 1799 the professorship of music became vacant in consequence of the death of Dr. Randall; then encouraged by his numerous friends among the members of the senate, he became a candidate for the appointment, and was successful. Soon after his election to the professorship he succeeded to the degree of doctor of music.

Dr. Hague from that time considered himself as completely settled in Cambridge, where he continued to reside to the day which discovered what small reliance can be placed on a constitution even of great apparent strength. During the spring of 1821 he frequently complained of being unwell, but no danger was apprehended. Towards the end of May he was making arrangements for some concerts on a grand scale, which were to be performed at the approaching commencement, when he became alarmingly ill. He remained two or three weeks in a state which gradually destroyed all hopes of his recovery, and on the 18th of June, 1821, he expired.

HAKLUYT, RICHARD, a celebrated early English writer on maritime affairs. He was born in 1553, and was educated at Oxford. In 1582 appeared a "Collection of Voyages and Discoveries," and several other works of a similar description followed in rapid succession. He died in 1616, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

HALDE, JOHN BAPTISTE DU, a French his-



torian, best known for his "General Description of China." Du Halde was a member of the Society of Jesus, and for many years secretary to Louis XIV. He died in 1743.

HALE, SIR MATTHEW, a celebrated English judge, who was born in 1609. He was educated at Oxford, and became a student of Lincoln's Inn in his twenty-first year. Some time before the civil wars broke out he was called to the bar, and began to make a figure in the world; but observing how difficult it was to preserve his integrity, and yet live securely, he resolved to follow those two maxims of



Pomponius Atticus, who lived in similar times; viz., "To engage in no faction, nor meddle in public business, and constantly to favour and relieve those that were lowest." He often relieved the royalists in their necessities, which so ingratiated him with them that he became generally employed by them in his profession. He was one of the counsel to the earl of Strafford, Archbishop Laud, and King Charles himself; as also to the duke of Hamilton, Lord Capel, and Lord Craven. In 1643 Hale took the covenant, and appeared several times with other lay-persons among the assembly of divines. He was then in great esteem with the parliament, and employed by them in several affairs, particularly in the reduction of the garrison at Oxford, being as a lawyer added to the commissioners named by the parliament to treat with those appointed by the king. In that capacity he was instrumental in saving the university by advising them, especially General Fairfax, to preserve that seat of learning from ruin. Afterwards, though no man more lamented the execution of Charles I., he took the oath called "The Engagement;" and in January 1652 was one of those appointed to consider of the reformation of the law. Cromwell, who well knew the advantage it would be to have the countenance of such a man as Hale to his courts, never left importuning him till he accepted the place of one of the justices of the common bench (as it was called), for which purpose he was by writ made serjeant-at-law, January 25, 1654. In that station he acted with great integrity and courage. He had at first serious scruples concerning the authority under which he was to act; and having gone two or three circuits, he refused to sit any more on the crown side; that is,

to try any more criminals. He had indeed so deported himself in some trials, that the powers then in being were not unwilling he should withdraw himself from meddling any further in them; of which Burnet gives the following instance:—"Soon after he was made a judge, a trial was brought before him upon the circuit at Lincoln, concerning the murder of one of the townsmen who had been of the king's army, and was killed by a soldier of the garrison there. He was in the field with a fowling-piece on his shoulder, which the soldier seeing, he came to him, and said he was acting against an order the protector had made, viz., 'That none who had been of the king's party should carry arms;' and so would have forced the piece from him. But the other not regarding the order, and being the stronger man, threw down the soldier, and, having beat him, left him. The soldier went to the town, and telling a comrade how he had been used, got him to go with him, and help him to be revenged on his adversary. They both watched his coming to town, and one of them went to him to demand his gun, which he refusing, the soldier struck at him; as they were struggling, the other came behind, and ran his sword into his body, of which he died. It was in the time of the assizes, so they were both tried. Against the one there was no evidence of *malice prepense*, so he was only found guilty of manslaughter, and burnt in the hand; but the other was found guilty of murder: and though Colonel Whaley, who commanded the garrison, came into the court and urged that the man was killed only for disobeying the protector's order, and that the soldier was but doing his duty, yet the judge regarded both his reasonings and threatenings very little, and therefore not only gave sentence against him, but ordered the execution to be so suddenly done that it might not be possible to procure a reprieve." On another occasion he displayed both his justice and courage in a cause in which the protector was deeply concerned, and had therefore ordered a jury to be returned for the trial. On hearing this, Judge Hale examined the sheriff about it, and having discovered the fact, showed the statute which ordered all juries to be returned by the sheriff or his lawful officer, and this not being done, he dismissed the jury and would not try the cause. The protector was highly displeased with him, and at his return from the circuit told him in great anger that "he was not fit to be a judge." Hale replied only, with inimitable aptness of expression, that "it was very true."

He did not sit in Cromwell's second parliament in 1655, but in Richard's, which met in January 1658-9, he was one of the burgesses for the university of Oxford. In the parliament of 1660, which recalled Charles II., he was elected one of the knights for the county of Gloucester, and moved that a committee might be appointed to look into the propositions that had been made and the concessions that had been offered by Charles I. during the previous war, that thence such propositions might be digested as they should think fit to be sent over to the king at Breda. The king upon his return recalled him in June by writ to the degree of serjeant-at-law; and upon settling the courts in Westminster Hall, constituted him in November chief baron of the exchequer. When Chancellor Clarendon delivered him his commission, he told him that "if the king could have found out an honester and fitter man for that

employment he would not have advanced him to it, and that he had therefore preferred him because he knew none that deserved it so well."

In 1671 Judge Hale was promoted to the place of lord chief justice of England, and behaved in that high station with his usual strictness, regularity, and diligence; but about four years and a half after this advancement he was attacked by an inflammation in the diaphragm, which in two days' time broke his constitution to that degree that he never recovered; for his illness turned to an asthma, which terminated in a dropsy. Finding himself unable to discharge the duties of his office, he petitioned in January 1675-6 for a writ of ease; which being delayed, he surrendered his office in February. He died December 25th following, and was interred in the churchyard of Alderley.

**HALES, JOHN**, an English theologian, who was born in 1584. He was educated at Oxford, and became a fellow of Merton College in 1605. He mixed himself up very unwisely in the politics of the times, and is best known by his "Golden Remains." He died in 1656.

**HALES, DR. STEPHEN**.—This eminent natural philosopher was born in 1677, and devoted himself from childhood to experimental researches. He made a planetarium which exhibited the motions of the principal bodies in our system before he was sixteen. He also made some discoveries relative to the ventilation of buildings. Dr. Hales's "Statical Essays" are still much admired. He died in 1761, and a monument was erected to his memory in Westminster-Abbey.

**HALHED, NATHANIEL**, a learned oriental scholar. He was educated at Harrow school, and early in life entered into the service of the East India Company. He appears to have been a follower of Richard Brothers, and published a defence of his "Prophecies;" but he is most advantageously known for his "Code of Gentoo Laws." Mr. Halhed died in 1830.

**HALL, ROBERT**.—This learned prelate was born at Ashby-de-la-Zouch in 1574. He was educated at Cambridge, and in 1597 published his "Virgidemiarum." His satirical works have been much admired; indeed he was called by the writers of the period the English Horace. In 1627 he was made bishop of Exeter, and fourteen years later was translated to the see of Norwich. After various political mutations he died in disgrace at Higham near Norwich in 1656.

**HALL, ROBERT**, a medical writer of some eminence, who was born in 1763. He graduated at Edinburgh, and, being appointed an army surgeon, was employed in an expedition up the Niger, where he suffered severely in his health, and died soon after his return to Europe in 1824. Mr. Hall is best known by his "Treatise on the Cow Pox."

**HALL, EDWARD**, one of the early English chroniclers. He was born early in the sixteenth century, and devoted himself to historical and legal researches. He died in 1547, leaving behind him a curious chronicle illustrative of English history.

**HALL, ROBERT**.—This eminent Christian minister was born at Arnsby in 1764. He received the early part of his education at Northampton, and he was afterwards removed to Bristol to complete his theological studies. At about eighteen years of age he was sent to King's College, Aberdeen, where he formed an intimacy with his fellow-student, Sir James Mack-

intosh, who, though somewhat younger than himself, took great delight in classical literature. During his residence at Aberdeen, which was nearly four years, Mr. Hall regularly attended the lectures of the learned Dr. George Campbell, professor of theology and ecclesiastical history at Marischal College. At intervals however, and especially in the vacations, he exercised his preaching talents.

On leaving the college Mr. Hall took his degree as master of arts, and soon after repaired to Bristol, where he became an assistant to Dr. Evans in the academy, and his coadjutor in the ministry. In this city he was exceedingly followed and admired by a multitude of highly respectable hearers. "I well remember," says an eye-witness, "to have seen oftener than once the meeting crowded to excess; and among the hearers many learned divines, and even dignitaries of the established church." But in the midst of this popularity a dark cloud arose which spread a gloom over the congregation and threatened to deprive the Christian world of one of its brightest ornaments. Some alarming symptoms of an intellectual nature appeared, in consequence of which he was removed to his friends in Leicestershire; where, by judicious treatment, the malady was subdued, and his great and noble mind regained its perfect liberty and former power. About the time that Mr. Hall laboured under this severe affliction Dr. Evans died; but his assistant and friend being unable to become his successor, the trustees and congregation elected the younger Mr. Ryland, who, accepting the pastoral charge, continued with them until his death, when in 1826 he was succeeded by Mr. Hall. On recovering from his affliction, and finding that his prospects in Bristol had been defeated, Mr. Hall visited Cambridge in the autumn of 1790, and preached as a candidate for the pastoral office of the Baptist church in that city; and, gaining the approbation of his hearers, he was chosen pastor early in the ensuing year.

Mr. Hall continued in Cambridge until the year 1806, when a severe malady compelled him for a season to relinquish the pastoral office. This was attended with circumstances of peculiar sorrow. During the years of his ministry in Cambridge he had seen the church committed to his care manifesting all the indications of renovated life. The members had increased both in numbers and in piety, and the congregation had assumed an aspect of respectability and seriousness which furnished decisive evidence that the word had not been preached to them in vain. But in the midst of this usefulness he was torn from an affectionate people under circumstances which rendered it somewhat doubtful if he would ever be able to resume his pastoral labours. Under this conviction another minister was chosen, so that Mr. Hall on his recovery found his pulpit already occupied. He was not, however, left long without employment. The Baptist church in Leicester being in want of a minister, Mr. Hall was requested to fill the office; and after due deliberation he accepted the invitation. Here, on his arrival, he found the church in a languid condition. The chapel would not contain more than about three hundred persons; but even this number did not attend: the members were poor, and the congregation scanty. His preaching, however, soon created a considerable stir. Many attracted by his doctrines, and others allured by his eloquence, were induced to



attend his ministry; so that very shortly the building was found to be too contracted to accommodate the crowds that attended. An enlargement of its dimensions speedily took place; but this was soon found insufficient, and another addition was made, but even this was so inadequate that a third became necessary; and it was again enlarged, so as to seat about eleven hundred persons, and the members increased in due proportion.

Mr. Hall, having remained in Leicester about twenty years, received, on the death of Dr. Ryland in Bristol, in 1825 an invitation to succeed him in his pastoral charge, and in the presidency of the academy. This occasioned a severe struggle in his own mind, and was a subject of much emotion among the members of his church, who had enjoyed his ministry for so long a period. A sense however of public duty at length prevailed over all private considerations; and in the month of March 1826 he took his departure from Leicester and fixed his abode in Bristol. Here he continued to discharge the duties of his official situation until his death, which occurred February 21st, 1831.

The following just estimate of the powers of this distinguished minister of the gospel has been generally ascribed to the pen of Sir James Mackintosh, and as it admirably depicts his varied talents both as a man and a preacher, we cannot do better than place it as a summary to our brief notice:—

“Many who were ignorant of the late Robert Hall as a minister knew him as a great mind, or rather, as a most distinguished instance of a great mind acted upon by religion, and devoting its energies entire and unadulterate to the pursuit and dissemination of religious truth. His claim to be considered the first preacher of the age has been recognised beyond the boundaries of any sect or circle, by judges varying most widely in their creed and system of church government, and by not a few lacking definite belief of any kind. This triumph has, however, been shared by ministers far less gifted; very mixed congregations have at times been molten into one spirit and interest under their appeals: ladies have fainted, the niggardly have emptied their purses, the young have trembled, and the old glowed with enthusiasm, through the influence of inferior eloquence. This is not a distinction to be greatly insisted on, for the impression made depends as much on the calibre of the hearer's own mind, the state of his nerves, or the retentiveness of his memory, as on the merits of the preacher. Added to this, the impression made by public speaking is often aided, if not mainly caused, by adventitious circumstances, as expressive action, a striking and varied intonation of voice, great earnestness of manner, or extraordinary excitement in the subject. Or it may be that the listener's mind has been made a recipient of pleasure similar to that arising from a dramatic representation; he has been alternately astonished, soothed, or awe-struck, without any trouble to his understanding; his feelings have been touched, and he has not been required to think. But the hearer's pleasure, if so derived, fades the moment he leaves the orator's presence, and the orator's triumph is abated the moment he prints his composition; nevertheless, many possess and retain the praise of being eloquent, because they are heard, not read. But Robert Hall was great in the pulpit, and also great out of it: many of his warmest appreciators never heard the sound of his voice, or sat be-

neath the scintillation of his eye, but were made his admirers by the silent perusal of his writings, when the interest of such perusal necessarily depended on the merits of the composition. It was this which set him above so many distinguished compeers. He was indeed a great preacher; but the fame of that name, limited unavoidably to the years of his life, the congregation that heard him, their memories and power of judging, would have been a slight, and in time a perishable memorial. With powers, too, less exquisite in their symmetry and growth,—with an understanding less keenly exercised,—with an imagination inferior in strength and beauty, and a faculty of reason less fitted to rule over the splendid realm of his intellect with the grasp and vision of a legislator,—with a meaner endowment of grand and various properties,—Robert Hall might have attained the praise of oratory, but it required the association of all to make him what he was, and what his writings will always prove him to have been—a great man. Some persons may think that so high a title, to be deserved, requires more of action, and of action conversant with remarkable events; that a man to be great, must be a conqueror, a legislator, a discoverer, or at the very least an inventor; one whose existence must produce startling results, whose greatness is palpable to the senses, and whose achievements may be weighed and measured. Such persons may be reminded with advantage of Pascal's definition of the three orders of distinction;—that which is seen with the eye, that which is appreciated by the mind, and that which is recognised by God: the order of outward pomp, the order of intellect, and the order of holiness. To be classed with the first, Robert Hall had certainly no title, for he lived and died a humble dissenting minister: to the second and third class he belonged equally; and it was the perfect harmony that subsisted between his spirit and his understanding, between his devotional feelings and his mental vigour,—it was the lovely and long-continued union, manifest in his character, of talent and goodness, of intellect and piety, that gave him unquestionable right to the title of great. But whilst in his mind philosophy and religion maintained an inseparable, it was a distinct existence; he never attempted to reciprocate their characters or blend their instructions; knowing, to quote a remark of his own, ‘that Christianity, issuing perfect and entire from the hands of its Author, will admit of no mutilations or improvements; it stands most secure on its own basis; and without being indebted to foreign aids, supports itself best by its own internal vigour. It is dogmatic; not capable of being advanced with the progress of science, but fixed and immutable.

“He treated religion as a noble and intellectual thing, because he felt his own acute and comprehensive intellect quickened and amplified when borne upon its wings to the contemplation of things as they are. He neither allegorised the Scriptures, nor anathematised life, nor denounced the human mind, in terms which the Creator has not thought fit to use, but he pressed conviction home upon the conscience with the dignified severity of truth—shook with the grasp of a giant the painted pillars of worldly confidence and vanity—rent open the delusions of infidelity with a ‘flaming sword which turned every way to keep the way of the tree of life’—and then, sheathing that sword, scattered the dew of holy consolation on the spirits of the weary, the wretched, and the

penitent. The religion he advocated was neither one of ceremonies nor of abstractions; it neither savoured of a wild or effeminate fanaticism, nor yet of a cold vague philosophy: it was the inculcation of truths at once revealed, living, and divine—a religion that could renew, exalt, and strengthen alike the understanding and the affections—a religion with authority to command actions, with power to supply motives, power to impart a desire of approximating to Deity, of preferring the real and the unseen to the tangible and apparent—a true and vital principle of progression—‘a pure river of water of life.’

“Mr. Hall never struggled to set forth himself; and this self-oblivion, in coincidence with the chaste severity of his taste, the piercing vigour of his understanding, and the grave majesty of his imagination, which could not stoop to exaggeration or ornament, peculiarly fitted him to be a champion and delineator of Christianity. But although Mr. Hall’s conceptions were stamped with all the characteristics of a first-rate mind, that from youth had been elaborately cultivated, rigidly disciplined, and fed no less with gentle affection than with lofty thoughts, yet his eloquence would scarcely be considered eloquent by the multitude; many a sounding declaration, glittering with every species of literary vice, has been more vehemently applauded than productions developing the finest powers of the human mind, and affording the most perfect specimens of the English language. But if Mr. Hall wanted imagination, it was to those only who consider imagination as a kind of scene-shifter, or at most, a scene-painter to the feelings; and if he lacked fancy, it was to those who think the sole end of language is to arrange an antithesis or build up a simile. He was by no means favourable to a picturesque phraseology—to poetic diction in prose—to sudden changes of style, or to what are called bursts of eloquence—the said bursts frequently consisting of a regiment of similes, an attendant staff of epithets and conjunctions, the rear brought up by a grand personification, and a coinage of new words in honour of its appearance.

“To speak of Mr. Hall’s compositions merely with reference to their style, simplicity and discrimination mark his choice of words—strength, ease, and compactness, the construction of his sentences. He spoke frequently in epigrams and apophthegms, but he never wrote in them; and even his sparing use of alliteration and antithesis seems oftener the result of accident than intention. There is no balanced monotony between the first and last clause of his paragraphs: inartificial, yet elaborately correct; easy of apprehension, yet weighty with meaning, we find richness united with simplicity—transparency with depth—and symmetry with strength. It is, in fact, owing to these excellences, that solitary extracts give little notion of the value of the remainder. When fine passages are dovetailed in for effect, they may be quoted for effect; but not when they are the natural growth of the subject, and have an inseparable connexion with what precedes and with what follows. The sermon on Modern Infidelity is considered by able judges Mr. Hall’s best work; it may be considered perfect;—a sermon that contains far-extending thought, piercing argument, graphic delineation, and calm and noble seriousness. The reader’s interest in this production will not be lessened by knowing that Mr. Hall prepared it for the press from memory (the discourse not having been written); and that

part of it was prepared while lying on the floor to mitigate the agony he habitually endured in his back. Another sermon, ‘Thoughts Proper to the Present Crisis,’ preached and printed in 1803, affords a fine instance of the prophetic foresight of genius, and of the value, beyond the passing moment, of sentiments deduced from principles, and of warnings grounded on facts significant of human nature. Twenty-eight years have elapsed; but read even at the present crisis, nothing can be finer than his denunciations of the base and earth-born system of morals which, instead of appealing to any internal principle, leaves every thing to calculation, and determines every thing by expediency; which makes the grandest questions that can agitate the human mind mere questions of interest, and regards even the Scriptures as a spiritual ledger book of profit and of loss; which mechanises whatsoever it touches, turning from the beautiful with a contemptuous doubt of its utility, subjecting the good to an arithmetical process mis-called reasoning, flinging over the heart the frost-work of fashion, and making social intercourse a cold, false, brilliant, interchange of manners.”

HALLER, ALBERT, a distinguished physician, who was born at Berne in 1708. His father paid the greatest attention to his scholastic acquirements, and at ten years of age he appears to have been profoundly versed in the Latin and Greek languages. In 1726 he visited England, and became intimate with Cheselden and Sir Hans Sloane. After his return to Switzerland in 1736 he devoted much time to pursuits connected with natural history. His physiological labours were also unremitting, and his “*Primæ Linæ Physiologie*,” which appeared in 1747, is a work of great merit. His works connected with the various branches of medical science are exceedingly numerous; and yet he found leisure to write many volumes of poems and philosophical romances. Haller died December 12, 1777.

HALLEY, EDMUND, a very eminent English philosopher and astronomer, who was born in the parish of St. Leonard, Shoreditch, in October 1656. His father, a wealthy citizen, placed him at St. Paul’s school, where he made great progress in mathematical learning. In 1673 he was entered a commoner of Queen’s College in Oxford, where he applied himself to practical and geometrical astronomy, in which he was assisted by a valuable collection of instruments which his father purchased for him. Besides occasional observations made upon the celestial phenomena, he had from his first admission into the university endeavoured to ascertain the true places of the fixed stars in order to correct the errors of Tycho Brahe. His original intention was to carry on the design of that astronomer by completing the catalogue of those stars from his own observations, but finding this province occupied by Hevelius and Flamsteed he formed another, which was to perfect the whole plan of the heavens by the addition of the stars which lie so near the south pole that they could not be observed by those astronomers as they never rose above the horizon either at Dantzick or Greenwich. With this view he left the university before he had taken his degree, and applied to Sir Joseph Williamson, then secretary of state, who introduced him to Charles II. The king was much pleased with his design, and immediately recommended him to the East India Company, who promised to send him to St. Helena. Accordingly he



embarked for that island in November 1676, and on his arrival there devoted himself to the completion of his catalogue. This done, he returned to England in 1678; and having delineated a planisphere in which he depicted the exact places of all the stars near the south pole from his own observations, he presented it with a short description to his majesty. The king, who expressed great satisfaction with Halley, gave him at his request a letter of mandamus to the university of Oxford for the degree of M. A., the words of which were that "his majesty has received a good account of his learning as to the mathematics and astronomy, whereof he has gotten a good testimony by the observations he has made during his abode in the island of St. Helena." He was also chosen fellow of the Royal Society.

In 1679 he was selected by the Royal Society to go to Dantzick to adjust a dispute between Hevelius and Hooke respecting the construction of astronomical instruments. In 1680 he set out upon a tour, accompanied by the celebrated Mr. Nelson, who had been his schoolfellow. They crossed the water to Calais, and mid-way from thence to Paris Halley first saw the remarkable comet, as it then appeared in its return from the sun. He had previously seen it in its descent, and now hastened to complete his observations upon it in viewing it from the Royal Observatory of France.

Soon after his return to England he married the daughter of Mr. Tooke, auditor of the exchequer, and took a house at Islington, where he eagerly pursued his favourite study. He then published his "Theory of the Variation of the Magnetical Compass," wherein he supposes the whole globe of the earth to be one great magnet, having four magnetical poles or points of attraction, &c. His pursuits are said to have been interrupted about this time by the death of his father, who suffered considerably by the fire of London, as well as by a second marriage.

Shortly after he undertook to explain the cause of a phenomenon which had till that period baffled the researches of the ablest geographers. The Mediterranean Sea was known not to increase, although there was no visible discharge of the water which flows into it from large rivers, and the constant setting in of the current at the mouth of the straits. Mr. Halley proved by experiment that that great increase of water was actually carried off in vapours raised by the action of the sun and wind upon its surface, and he proceeded with the like success to point out the method used by nature to return the said vapours into the sea. Mr. Halley continued to labour in the "Philosophical Transactions," of which for many years he was the chief ornament and support. The merit of his writings is thrown into one view by the writer of his "Eloge," who having mentioned his "History of the Trade-winds and Monsoons," says: "This was immediately followed by his estimation of the quantity of vapours which the sun raises from the sea; the circulation of vapours, the origin of fountains, questions on the nature of light and transparent bodies, a determination of the degrees of mortality, in order to adjust the valuation of annuities on lives; and many other works, in which almost all the sciences, astronomy, geometry, and algebra, optics and dioptrics, balista and artillery, speculative and experimental philosophy, natural history, antiquities, philology, and criticism; being about twenty-five or thirty dissertations, which he produced during the

nine or ten years of his residence at London; and all abounding with ideas new, singular, and useful." Halley published his "Theory of the Variation of the Magnetical Compass" in 1683; which, though it was well received both at home and abroad, he found upon a review liable to great objections. He afterwards applied to King William, who appointed him commander of the vessel *Pink*, with express orders to seek by observations the discovery of the rule of the variations, and as the words of his commission run, "to call at his majesty's settlements in America, and make such further observations as are necessary for the better laying down the longitude and latitude of those places, and to attempt the discovery of what land lies to the south of the western ocean." He crossed the line, but the men growing sickly and untractable, and his first lieutenant mutinying, he returned home in June 1699. He again set sail in the September following, having the same ship with another of smaller size, of which he had also the command. He traversed the Atlantic Ocean from one hemisphere to another, as far as the ice would permit him to go; and in his way back touched at St. Helena, the coast of Brazil, Cape Verd, Barbadoes, Madeiras, the Canaries, the coast of Barbary, and many other latitudes, arriving in England in 1700. Having thus furnished himself with a competent number of observations, he published in 1701 "A General Chart, showing at one view the variation of the compass in all those seas where the English navigators were acquainted."

In 1703 Halley was appointed Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford, and had the degree of LL. D. conferred upon him by that university. He was scarcely settled at Oxford when Aldrick, dean of Christ Church, engaged him to translate into Latin from the Arabic "Apollonius de Sectione Rationis." At the same time, from the account given of them by Pappus, he restored the two books which are lost of the same author; and the whole work was published by him at Oxford in 1706. An offer was made him of being appointed mathematical preceptor to the duke of Cumberland; but he declined that honour, by reason of his advanced age, and because he deemed the ordinary attendance upon that employ not consistent with the performance of his duty at Greenwich. In August 1729 he was admitted as a foreign member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris. About 1737 he was seized with a paralytic disorder in his right hand, which, it is said, was the first attack he ever felt upon his constitution. This increasing, his strength gradually wore away, and he expired without a groan, January 14, 1742.

HALLORAN, SYLVESTER, an eminent Irish antiquary, who was born in 1728. He was educated for the surgical profession, which he followed till the time of his death in 1807. Mr. Halloran is best known for his "Introduction to the History and Antiquities of Ireland," and his general history of that country.

HAMILTON, ALEXANDER, a very talented medical practitioner long resident in Edinburgh. He wrote many works illustrative of the practice of midwifery, and a valuable treatise "On the Complaints of Females." The latter was published in 1797, and Dr. Hamilton died about five years afterwards.

HAMILTON, ANTHONY, an Irish poet and politician, who figured somewhat notoriously in the court of Charles II. He was born in 1646, and died at St. Germain's in 1720. His "Memoirs of Count

Grammont" exhibits a good picture of the licentious court of Charles.

HAMILTON, ELIZABETH, a celebrated literary lady, who was born at Belfast in 1758. Her "Letters of a Hindoo Rajah," "The Cottagers of Glenburnie," and the "Memoirs of Modern Philosophy," are replete with sound sense, and possess a high moral tone. Miss Hamilton died at Harrogate in 1816.

HAMILTON, GAVIN, a Scottish painter of considerable eminence, who was born at Lanark, and after a careful study of the old masters in Italy finally took up his residence at Rome, where he died in 1797. His "*Schola Italica Picturæ*" is a valuable work.

HAMILTON, JAMES, the founder of the system of teaching languages which goes by his name. Of his early history but little is known, but it may truly be said that, if we except a little of empiricism, he opened a path which might be advantageously followed in the acquirement of many branches of knowledge. He was engaged in the delivery of public lectures for many years, and he died at Dublin, where he had gone for that purpose, in 1829.

HAMILTON, PATRICK, one of the earliest Scottish martyrs. He was born in 1503, and educated at St. Andrew's. He afterwards proceeded to Germany, and there imbibed the principles of the reformed religion. On his return to Scotland he was made abbot of Ferne in Ross-shire. In this employment he was both zealous and successful, for he was a young man of great learning, of a courteous disposition, and unblamable in private life. This alarmed the clergy, who, under pretence of conferring with him, enticed him to St. Andrew's, at that time the principal seat of the dignified clergy, where after repeated disputation, in which some of the clergy appeared to lean to his opinions, he was one night suddenly apprehended in his bed, and carried prisoner to the castle.

The next day he was presented before the archbishop of St. Andrew's, James Beton, assisted by the archbishop of Glasgow, the bishops of Brechin, Dunkeld, and Dumblaine, with a number of abbots, priors, and doctors, before whom he was accused of the following articles: 1. That the corruption of sin remains in children after baptism. 2. That no man by the power of his free-will can do any thing that is truly good. 3. That no man is without sin altogether so long as he liveth. 4. That every true Christian may know himself to be in a state of grace. 5. That a man is not justified by works, but by faith only. 6. That good works make not a good man, but that a good man doeth good works, as it is the good tree which bringeth forth good fruit, not the fruit that maketh the tree good. 7. That faith, hope, and charity, are so linked together, that he who hath one hath all, and he who lacketh one lacketh all. 8. That remission of sin is not purchased by any actual penance. 9. That auricular confession is not necessary to salvation. 10. That there is no purgatory. 11. That the holy patriarchs were in heaven before Christ's passion. 12. That the pope is antichrist, and that every priest has as much power as the pope. In his defence he maintained the first seven of these articles to be undoubtedly true, and sound doctrine, and as such they appear to have been afterwards adopted by Calvin, and in substance make part of that system known by his name, and incorporated in the national creed of Scotland. The rest of the articles Mr. Ha-

milton allowed were disputable points, but such as he could not condemn, unless he saw better reasons than had been offered. They were all condemned, however, as heretical, and on the 1st of March, 1527, sentence was pronounced against him, declaring him a heretic, and giving him over to the secular power, to suffer the punishment due to heretics, which was burning alive. On the same day the secular power pronounced its sentence, which was immediately executed with every circumstance of savage barbarity, which, all historians agree, he bore with firmness and invincible constancy to the principles he had professed.

HAMILTON, WILLIAM.—There are several very eminent Scotchmen bearing this name, indeed it is one intimately connected with the history of that part of our island; our limits will, however, permit of our noticing but the following.—William Hamilton, a poet, better known as Hamilton of Bangor, was born in 1704, and after receiving a good education took an active part in the cause of Charles Stuart. He was present at the battle of Culloden, and escaping to France he died in that country in 1754. His works were published four years afterwards, and a new edition appeared in 1760.

Sir William Hamilton, well known for his scientific description of Vesuvius and Ætna, was born in 1730. In 1764 he received the appointment of ambassador to the court of Naples, where he resided for thirty-six years. He died at London in 1803. Sir William's unrivalled collection of vases form an important feature in the British Museum.

HAMMOND, JAMES, an elegiac poet of considerable talent, who was born in 1710, and received his education at Westminster school, where he formed an intimacy with lords Cobham, Chesterfield, and Lyttelton. He was appointed equerry to Frederick, prince of Wales, and in 1741 was chosen member of parliament for Truro. He died the following year, his health, if not his intellect, having been disordered by an unfortunate attachment to a young lady who rejected his addresses. After his death, a small volume of his love elegies was published, with a preface by Lord Chesterfield. They are chiefly imitations of Tibullus, and display a cultivated taste and warm imagination.

HAMPDEN, JOHN.—This distinguished patriot was born in 1594, and was distantly related to Oliver Cromwell, his father having married the protector's aunt. In 1609 he was sent to Magdalen College, Oxford; whence, without taking any degree, he removed to the inns of court, and made a considerable progress in the study of the law. In the second parliament of King Charles, which met at Westminster in February 1625-6, he was elected a member of the House of Commons, and continued to sit through the two next parliaments; but became most notorious in 1636, when he nobly resisted the unjust demand of ship-money. In consequence of this resistance the fury of the government was levelled against him, and he was accordingly brought to trial at the king's bench; and, though the decision of that court was against him, yet, as one of his most jealous enemies, Lord Clarendon, declares, he carried himself through the whole suit with such singular temper and modesty that he obtained more credit and advantage by losing it than the king did service by gaining it. Indeed, nothing more is necessary in order to convince posterity that Hampden was at once one of the most extraordinary and one of the



best of men than to notice the confessions and accidental implications of his opponents.

From the time of this trial he became one of the most popular men in the nation, and a leading member in the long parliament. "The eyes of all men," says Clarendon, "were fixed upon him as their *pater patriæ*, and the pilot that must steer the vessel through the tempests and rocks which threatened it." After he had held the chief direction of his party in the House of Commons against the king, he took up arms in the same cause, and was one of the first who opened the war, by an action at a place called Brill, about five miles from Oxford. He took the command of a regiment of foot, under the earl of Essex, and discovered a degree of skill and courage worthy of his character and his cause. But he was very early cut off by a wound which he received in a skirmish with Rupert at Chalgrove Field. He was struck in the shoulder with two carbine balls, which, breaking the bone, entered his body, and his arm hung powerless and shattered by his side. He rode off the field alone, and, with great pain and difficulty, reached Thame, where he lingered six days, and expired in the midst of earnest prayers for his country and himself."

"It was thus," says Lord Nugent, "that Hampden died, justifying, by the courage, patience, piety, and strong love of country, which marked the closing moments of his life, the reputation for all those qualities which had, even more than his great abilities, drawn to him the confidence and affections of his own party and the respect of all. Never, in the memory of those times, had there been so general a consternation and sorrow at any one man's death as that with which the tidings were received in London, and by the friends of the parliament all over the land. Well was it said in the 'Weekly Intelligencer,' of the next week 'The loss of Colonel Hampden goeth near the heart of every one that loves the good of his king and country, and makes some conceive little content to be at the army now that he is gone. The memory of this deceased colonel is such that in no age to come but it will more and more be had in honour and esteem; a man so religious, and of that prudence, judgment, temper, valour, and integrity, that he hath left few his like behind him.' Of Hampden's character," continues the noble author, "it would be presumptuous to say more than what his acts tell. The words are good in which it is shortly comprised in an inscription remembered by me, on many accounts, with many feelings of affection: 'With great courage and consummate abilities he began a noble opposition to an arbitrary court in defence of the liberties of his country; supported them in parliament, and died for them in the field.'"

HAMPER, WILLIAM, a writer on British antiquities, who passed the greater part of his life as a commercial traveller. In 1821 he was chosen a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and several of his papers appear in their "Transactions," but his principal work is "The Life, Diary, and Correspondence of Sir William Dugdale." Mr. Hamper died in 1831.

HANCOCK, JOHN, a distinguished American, who was born at Quincy, near Boston, in the United States. He was the son and grandson of eminent clergymen, but, having early lost his father, was indebted for his liberal education to his uncle, a merchant of great wealth and respectability, who sent him to Harvard University, where he was graduated

in 1754. He was then placed in the counting-house of his benefactor, and not long afterwards visited England, where he was present at the coronation of George III., as little prescient as the monarch himself of the part which he was destined to act in relation to the English government. On the sudden demise of his uncle in 1764 he succeeded to his large fortune and extensive business, both of which he managed with great judgment and care. As a member of the provincial legislature, he exerted himself with zeal and resolution against the royal governor and the British ministry, and became so obnoxious to them in consequence, that in the proclamation issued by General Gage, after the battle of Lexington, and a few days before that of Bunker Hill, offering pardon to the rebels, he and Samuel Adams were specially excepted, their offences being "of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." This circumstance gave additional celebrity to these two patriots, between whom, however, an unfortunate dissension took place, which produced a temporary schism in the party they headed, and a long personal estrangement between themselves. In fact, they differed so widely in their modes of living and general dispositions, that their concurrence in political measures may be considered one of the strongest proofs of their patriotism.

Hancock was president of the provincial congress of Massachusetts, until he was sent as a delegate from the province to the general congress at Philadelphia in 1775. Soon after his arrival there he was chosen to succeed Peyton Randolph as president of that assembly, and was the first to affix his signature to the declaration of independence. He continued to fill the chair until the year 1779, when he was compelled by disease to retire from congress. He was then elected governor of Massachusetts, and was annually chosen from 1780 to 1785. After an interval of two years, during which Mr. Bowdoin occupied the post, he was re-elected, and continued in the office until his death, which took place in 1793. In the interval he acted as president of the convention of the state for the adoption of the federal constitution, for which he finally voted. The talents of Hancock were rather useful than brilliant. He seldom spoke, but his knowledge of business and facility in despatching it, together with his keen insight into the characters of men, rendered him peculiarly fit for public life. In private life he was eminent for his hospitality and beneficence. He was a complete gentleman of the old school, both in his appearance and manners, dressing richly, according to the fashion of the day, keeping a handsome equipage, and being distinguished for politeness and affability in social intercourse.

HANDEL, GEORGE FREDERICK.—The history of this distinguished musician is the history of the school of which he was the founder, and his biography is peculiarly interesting from the fact of his having in a great measure educated himself. Handel was born at Halle in 1684. His father, who was a very humble practitioner of medicine, intended young Handel for the law, and the boy for many years received no assistance besides what he derived from a few books and his own laborious exertions. At nine years of age he occasionally officiated as organist in the cathedral of Halle, and in the year 1698 he was removed to Berlin to the court of the

elector of Brandenburg, afterwards king of Prussia, who at that time retained in his service many singers of eminence. Handel distinguished himself so highly as a performer that his electoral highness offered to send him into Italy at his own expense, for the completion of his musical studies. His father, however, declined this honour, and the young musician returned to Halle.

The death of his father took place soon after he left Berlin, and Handel, unable to support the expense of a journey to Italy, whither he was anxious to go, removed to Hamburg, in order to procure a subsistence by his musical talents, this city being next to Berlin then the most celebrated for its operas.

John Matheson, an able musician and voluminous writer, who resided at Hamburg during the whole time that Handel remained in that city, states that he arrived in Hamburg in the summer of 1703. "Here," says Matheson, "almost his first acquaintance was myself, as I met him at the organ of St. Mary Magdalen's church, on the 30th of July, whence I conducted him to my father's house, where he was treated with all possible kindness and hospitality, and I afterwards not only attended him to organs, choirs, operas, and concerts, but recommended him to several scholars. At first he only played a ripieno violin in the opera orchestra, and behaved as if he could not count five, being naturally inclined to dry humour.

"At this time he composed extremely long airs, and cantatas without end, of which though the harmony was excellent, yet true taste was wanting, which, however, he soon acquired by his attendance at the opera."

Soon after an opera called "Cleopatra," composed by Matheson, was performed on the Hamburg stage, in which he acted the part of Anthony himself, and Handel played the harpsichord; but Matheson being accustomed, upon the death of Anthony, which happens early in the piece, to preside at the harpsichord as composer, Handel refused to relinquish his post, which caused such a violent quarrel between them that a duel ensued before the door of the opera-house: luckily the sword of Matheson broke against a metal button upon Handel's coat, which put an end to the combat, and they were soon after reconciled.

This encounter took place in December 1704, and as a proof of their speedy reconciliation Matheson states that in the same month he accompanied the young composer to the rehearsal of his first opera, "Almira," at the theatre, and performed the principal character in it. In 1705 Handel produced a second opera, called "Nero," which as well as "Almira" met with a very favourable reception. Handel, having acquired at Hamburg a sum sufficient to enable him to visit Italy, set out for that seat of the Muses, a journey after which every man of genius so ardently pants. He proceeded first to Florence, where he composed the opera of "Rodrigo." He afterwards went to Venice, where in 1709 he produced his "Agrippina."

He then visited Rome, where he had an opportunity of hearing compositions and performers of the first class. Here the young composer produced a serenata, "Il Trionfo del Tempo." After this he proceeded to Naples, where he set "Acis e Galatea," in Italian, but totally different from the English drama written by Gay, which he set in 1721 for the

duke of Chandos. When he returned to Germany, on quitting Italy in the beginning of 1710, he proceeded immediately to Hanover, where he found a munificent patron in the elector, who afterwards, on the death of Queen Anne, ascended the English throne by the name of George I. This prince had already retained in his service, as *maestro di capella*, the elegant composer Steffani, whom Handel had before met at Venice, and who now resigned his office in his favour. This venerable musician served as a model to Handel for chamber duets, and facilitated his introduction to the smiles of his patron, the elector, who settled on him a pension of 1500 crowns, upon condition that he should return to his court when he had completed his travels. Handel, according to this proposition, went to Dusseldorf, where he had a flattering reception from the elector palatine, who wished to retain him in his service.

But, besides the engagement into which he had already entered, he was impatient to visit England, having received invitations from many of the nobility whom he had met in Italy and at Hanover. It was at the latter end of the year 1710 that Handel first arrived in London. His reception was highly flattering, and decided him to remain in this country instead of returning to more limited engagements at Hanover. On the arrival, however, of George I. in England, Handel, conscious of his deficiency in respect and gratitude to a prince who had honoured him with such flattering marks of approbation, did not venture to approach the court till, by the friendly interposition of Baron Kilmansegge, he was restored to favour in the following manner.

The king soon after his arrival having been prevailed on to form a party the on water, the design was communicated to Handel, who was advised to compose some pieces expressly for the occasion, the performance of which he secretly conducted in a boat which accompanied the royal barge. Upon hearing these compositions, which have been since so well known and so justly celebrated under the title of water music, his majesty, equally surprised and pleased by their excellence, eagerly inquired who was the author of them; when the baron acquainted the king that they were the productions of a faithful servant of his majesty, who, conscious of the cause of displeasure which he had given to so gracious a protector, durst not presume to approach his royal presence till he had assurances that by every possible demonstration of duty and gratitude in future he might hope to obtain a pardon. This intercession having been graciously accepted, Handel was restored to favour, and honoured with the most flattering marks of royal approbation; and as a ratification of the delinquent's peace, thus easily obtained, his majesty was pleased to double a pension of two hundred pounds a year, previously settled on him by Queen Anne; and not many years after, when he was employed to teach the princesses, another pension of two hundred pounds was added to the former grants by Queen Caroline.

From the year 1715 to 1720 we do not find that any opera was set by Handel. During the first three years of this period he chiefly resided with the earl of Burlington, and the other two years Handel was employed at Cannons, as *maestro di capella* to the duke of Chandos, who, among other features of magnificence, established a chapel, in which the cathedral service was daily performed by a choir of



voices and instruments superior, at that time, perhaps, in number and excellence, to that of any sovereign prince of Europe. Here Handel produced, besides his anthems, the chief part of his hautbois concertos, sonatas, lessons, and organ fugues, which are all so masterly, spirited, and exquisite in their several kinds.

The most splendid æra in the opera annals of this country, when the King's Theatre was under the direction of the Royal Academy of Music, and Handel the acting manager and composer, was likewise the precise moment when this great musician had arrived at the stage of existence which Dante calls "Il mezzo del cammir di nostra vita," when the human frame and faculties have attained their utmost strength and vigour. He was endowed with extraordinary natural powers, by that time highly improved by cultivation; with a hand which no difficulties could embarrass; a genius for composition original and inexhaustible; at the head of a profession which facilitates access to the great, and with extraordinary abilities ensures their patronage; high in the favour of the sovereign, nobles, and public of a rich and powerful nation, at a period of its greatest happiness and tranquillity; when it was not only blessed with leisure and zeal to cultivate the arts of peace, but with power and inclination liberally to reward those whose successful efforts had carried them beyond the regions of mediocrity.

Such were Handel's circumstances when he first entered into the service of the Royal Academy of Music. In his treatment even of first-rate singers Handel was somewhat "despotic," as the two following anecdotes will evince.

The very simple and well-known air, "Verdi Prati," in "Alcina," which was constantly encored, was at first sent back to Handel by Carestini as too trifling for him to sing, upon which he went in a great rage to his lodgings, and, with a tone in which few composers except Handel ever ventured to accost a first-rate singer, exclaimed, in his usual curious dialect, and with his accustomed impetuosity, "You tog! don't I know better as yourseluf vaat is pest for you to sing? If you vill not sing all de song vaat I give you, I vill not pay you ein stiver."

On a similar occasion, upon Cuzzoni refusing to sing his admirable air, "Falsa Imagine," in "Otho," he told her that he always knew she was a "very devil," but that he should now let her know, in her turn, that he was "Beelzebub, the prince of devils."

During the first years of Handel's retreat from the opera stage, the profits arising from his oratorios were insufficient to indemnify his losses, and it would remain a perpetual stigma on the taste of the British nation that his "Messiah," that truly noble and sublime work, was not only ill attended but ill received on its first performance in 1741, were not its miscarriage to be wholly ascribed to the resentment of the many great personages whom he had offended in refusing to compose for Senesino, by whom he considered himself affronted, or even for the opera, unless that singer was dismissed. This inflexibility being construed into insolence, was the cause of that powerful opposition, at once oppressive, mortifying, and ruinous to its victim.

Finding it impossible to stem the torrent of persecution, Handel visited Ireland, in order to try whether, in that kingdom, his oratorios would be out of the reach of prejudice and enmity.

Pope, on this occasion, personifying the Italian opera, put into her mouth the following well-known lines, which she addresses to the goddess of dulness:—

"Strong in new arms, lo! giant Handel stands,  
Like bold Briarius with his hundred hands: :  
To stir, to rouse, to shake the soul, he comes,  
And Jove's own thunders follow Mars's drums.  
Arrest him, empress! or you sleep no more:—  
She heard; and drove him to th' Hibernian shore."

Handel, on his arrival in Dublin, with equal judgment and humanity, began by performing the "Messiah" for the benefit of the city prison. This act of generosity and benevolence met with universal approbation as well as his music. Handel was assisted by Dubourg, as leader, and Mrs. Cibber, who sang "He was despised and neglected of men," in a manner truly touching to an Englishman. Her voice was a mere thread, and her knowledge of music inconsiderable; yet in this song (which was originally composed for her), by a natural pathos and perfect conception of the words, she often penetrated the heart, when others, with talents infinitely superior, could only reach the ear.

Handel remained eight or nine months in Ireland, where he extended his fame and began to repair his fortune. On his return to London in the beginning of 1742, as he had relinquished all thoughts of opposing the managers of the opera, former enmities began to subside; and when he recommenced his oratorios the Lent following, he found a general disposition in the public to countenance and support him.

"Samson" was the first oratorio he performed that year, which was not only much applauded by crowded houses in the capital, but was soon disseminated in single songs throughout the kingdom; and, indeed has ever been in greater favour than any one of his works, with the exception of the "Messiah," which that season was received with universal admiration and applause. This sacred oratorio, as it was originally called, on account of the words being wholly composed of genuine texts of Scripture, appearing 'to stand in such high estimation with the public, Handel formed the resolution of performing it annually for the benefit of the Foundling Hospital; which resolution was constantly put in practice to the end of his life.

From the time of his return from Ireland, with little opposition and a few thin houses, he continued his oratorios till within a week of his death. But though the "Messiah" increased in reputation every year, and the crowds that flocked to the theatre were more considerable every time it was performed, yet to some of his other oratorios the houses were so thin as not even to defray his expenses; but Handel is said to have philosophically consoled his friends, when, previous to the curtain being drawn up, they lamented that the house was so empty, by saying, "Never mind, de moosic vil sound de petter."

His majesty King George II. was a steady patron of Handel during these calamitous times, and constantly attended his oratorios when they were abandoned by his court. Handel, late in life, like the great poets Homer and Milton, was afflicted with blindness, which, however it might dispirit or embarrass him at other times, had no effect on his nerves or intellect in public, as he continued to play concertos and voluntaries between the parts of his oratorios to the last with the same vigour of thought

and touch for which he was ever so justly renowned.

During the oratorio season he practised almost incessantly; and indeed that must have been the case, or his memory uncommonly retentive, for after his blindness he played several of his old organ concertos, which must have been previously impressed on his recollection. Latterly, however, he rather chose to trust to his own inventive powers than those of reminiscence; for, giving the band only the skeleton or ritornels of each movement, he played all the solo parts extempore, which the other instruments left him *ad libitum*, waiting for the signal of a shake before they played such fragments of symphony as they found in their books.

Handel not only continued to perform in public after he was afflicted with blindness, but to compose in private. The duet and chorus in "Judas Macabæus," "Sion now his head shall raise," were dedicated to Mr. Smith by Handel, after the total privation of sight.

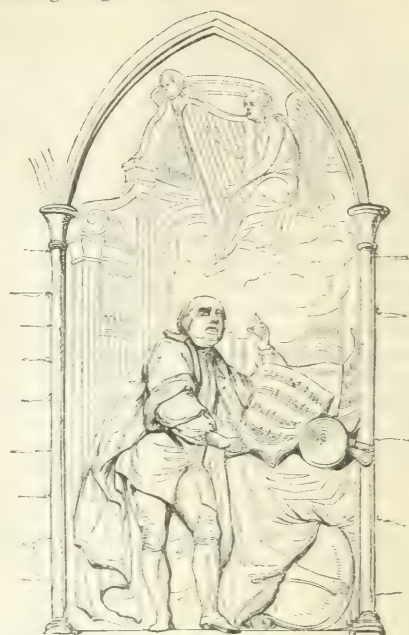
Subsequent to his privation of sight he was always much disturbed and agitated whenever the affecting air in "Samson," "Total Eclipse," was performed. The last oratorio at which he attended and performed was on the 6th of April, and he expired on Friday, the 14th, 1759.

Dr. Warren, who attended him in his last sickness, said that he was perfectly sensible of his approaching dissolution; and, having been always impressed with a profound reverence for the doctrines and duties of the Christian religion, that he had most seriously and devoutly wished, for several days before his death, that he might breathe his last, as actually happened, on Good Friday, in hopes he said, of meeting his good God, his sweet Lord and Saviour, on the day of his resurrection, meaning the third day, or Easter Sunday following.

The loss of sight was an awful warning, which wrought a great change in his temper and general behaviour. Throughout life he was a man of blameless morals, and manifested a deep and rational sense of religion. In conversation he would frequently declare the pleasure he felt in setting the Scriptures to music and how much a frequent contemplation of the many sublime passages in the Psalms had contributed to his edification; and now that he found himself near his end, these sentiments were improved into solid and rational piety, attended with a calm and even temper of mind. For the last two or three years of his life he constantly attended divine service in his own parish church of St. George, Hanover-square, where his looks and gesticulations indicated the utmost fervour of unaffected devotion. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, the dean, Dr. Pearce, bishop of Rochester, assisted by the choir, performing the funeral solemnity. Over the place of his interment is a monument, designed and executed by Roubilliac, representing him at full length in an erect posture, with a music paper in his hand, inscribed, "I know that my Redeemer liveth," with the notes to which these words are so admirably set in his "Messiah."

This master-piece of Roubilliac, which was the last monument he lived to finish, is exhibited in the accompanying sketch; and it is a curious circumstance that the artist's first work was a likeness of Handel, which being sculptured for Vauxhall Gardens, from its great excellence led to his subsequent success. The bust of Handel has been repeatedly

copied, and there is a cleaver basso relievo from the statue we have copied, but there is no other good whole-length figure extant.



Those who are but little acquainted with Handel are unable to characterize him otherwise than by his excellencies in his art and certain foibles in his nature which he was never studious to conceal. Accordingly we are told that he had an enormous appetite, that he preferred Burgundy to Port, and that when provoked he would break out into profane expressions. These are facts that cannot be denied; but there are also particulars which mark his character but little known, and which possibly may be remembered elsewhere when those that serve only to show that he was subject to human imperfections are forgotten. In his religion he was of the Lutheran persuasion, in which he was not such a bigot as to decline a general conformity with that of the country which he had chosen for his residence, at the same time that he entertained very serious notions in regard to its importance. These he would frequently express in his remarks on the constitution of the English government; and he considered as one of the greatest felicities of his life that he was settled in a country where no one suffers molestation on account of his religious principles.

His attainments in literature cannot be supposed to have been very great. The prodigious number of his compositions will account for a much greater portion of his time than any man could well be supposed able to spare from sleep and the necessary refreshment of nature; and yet he was well acquainted with the Latin and Italian languages, the latter of which was so familiar to him that few natives understood it better. Of the English also he had such a degree of knowledge as to be susceptible of the beauties of our best poets; and this he has sufficiently evinced by the admirable manner in which the sound is almost constantly an echo to the sense of those passages which he has selected and set to music.



The style of his discourse was very singular: he pronounced English as the Germans do, but his phraseology was exotic, and partook of the idiom of the different countries in which he had resided, a circumstance which rendered his conversation exceedingly entertaining. His habits of life were regular and uniform. For some years subsequent to his arrival in England his time was divided between study and practice, that is to say, in composing for the opera, and in conducting concerts at the duke of Rutland's, the earl of Burlington's, and the houses of others of the nobility who were patrons of music. There were also very frequently concerts for the royal family at the queen's library in the Green Park, in which the princes royal, the duke of Rutland, Lord Cowper, and other persons of distinction performed. Of these Handel had the direction, and as these connexions dissolved he gradually retreated into a state of retirement, showing no solicitude to form new ones.

He wrote very fast, but with a degree of impatience proportioned to the eagerness that possesses men of taste to see their conceptions reduced into form. Like many other of his profession, he was passionately fond of paintings; and, till his sight failed him, viewing collections of pictures upon sale was one of the few recreations in which he indulged himself.

Handel in his person was large and rather corpulent, ungraceful in his gait, which was ever sauntering, and had somewhat of that rocking motion which distinguishes those whose legs are bowed. His features were finely marked, and the general cast of his countenance placid, bespeaking dignity tempered with benevolence, and every quality of the heart which has a tendency to beget confidence and ensure esteem. Though he was impetuous, rough, and peremptory in his manners and conversation, yet was he totally devoid of ill-nature or malevolence; indeed, there was an original humour and pleasantry in his most lively sallies of anger and impatience which, united with his broken English, rendered him rather the cause of merriment than uneasiness. His natural propensity to wit and humour, and happy manner of relating common occurrences in an uncommon way, enabled him to throw persons and things into very ridiculous attitudes.

Dr. Burney states that, besides seeing Handel at his own house in Brook Street and at Carlton House, where he had rehearsals of his oratorios, by meeting him at Mrs. Cibber's and at Frasi's, who was then Burney's scholar, he acquired considerable knowledge of his private character and turn for humour. Handel was very fond of Mrs. Cibber, whose voice and manners had softened his severity, and atoned for her want of musical knowledge.

"I remember," says Dr. Burney, "at Frasi's, in the year 1748, he brought in his pocket the duet from 'Judas Maccabæus,' 'From these dread scenes,' in which she had not sung when that oratorio was first performed in 1746. When he sat down to the harpsichord to give her and me the time of it while he sung her part, I hummed at sight the second over his shoulder, in which he encouraged me by desiring that I would sing out; but unfortunately something went wrong, and Handel with his usual impetuosity grew violent, a circumstance very terrific to a young musician. At length, however, recovering from my fright, I ventured to say that I fancied there was a

mistake in the writing, which upon examination Handel discovered to be the case; and then, instantly with the greatest good-humour and humility, said, 'I pec your barton—I am a very odd tog; Maishter Schmitt is to plame.'"

Handel wore an enormous white wig, and when things went well at the oratorio it had a certain nod or vibration, which manifested his pleasure and satisfaction. Without this signal nice observers were certain that he was out of humour.

At the close of an air the voice with which he used to cry out "Chorus!!" was extremely formidable indeed; and at the rehearsal of his oratorios at Carlton House, if the prince and princess of Wales were not exact in entering the music room, he used to be very violent; yet such was the reverence with which his royal highness treated him, that admitting Handel to have had cause of complaint, he has been heard to say, "Indeed it is cruel to keep these poor people," meaning the performers, "so long from their scholars and other concerns." But if the maids of honour or any other female attendants talked during the performance, it is to be feared our modern Timotheus not only swore, but called names; yet at such times the princess of Wales used to say, "Hush! hush! Handel is in a passion!"

When he gave a concerto his usual method was to introduce it with a voluntary movement on the diapasons, which stole on the ear in a slow and solemn progression; the harmony close wrought, and as full as could possibly be expressed, the passages concatenated with great art, the whole at the same time being perfectly intelligible and carrying the appearance of great simplicity. This kind of prelude was succeeded by the concerto itself, which he executed with a degree of spirit and firmness that no one ever pretended to equal.

Such, in general, was the manner of his performance, but who shall describe its effects on his enraptured auditory! Silence, the truest applause, succeeded the instant that he addressed himself to the instrument; silence so profound that it checked respiration, and seemed to control the functions of nature, while the magic of his touch kept the attention of his hearers awake only to those enchanting sounds to which it gave utterance.

Wonderful as it may seem, this command over the human passions is the acknowledged attribute of music, and by effects like these the poets have ever described it, always supposing in the hearers a mind susceptible of its charms. But how are we to account for the influence of that harmony of which we are now speaking, on those who, as far as regards music, may be said to have no passions, no affections, on which it could operate? In all theatrical representations a part only of the audience are judges of the merit of what they see and hear, the rest are always drawn together by motives in which neither taste nor judgment have any share; and with respect to music, it is notorious that the greater number of mankind are destitute, though not of hearing, yet of that sense which, superadded to the hearing, renders us susceptible of the fascination of musical sounds; and in times when music was less fashionable than it is now many of both sexes were ingenious enough to confess that they wanted that sense, by saying, "I have no ear for music." Persons such as these, who, had they been left to themselves, would have interrupted the hearing of others by their talking, were, by the

performance of Handel, not only charmed into silence, but were generally the loudest in their acclamations.

This, though it could not be regarded as genuine applause, was a much stronger proof of the power of harmony than the like effect on an audience composed only of judges and rational admirers of his art.

He had never been a master of the violin, and had discontinued the practice of it from the time he took to the harpsichord at Hamburg; yet whenever he had a mind to try the effect of any of his compositions for that instrument his manner of touching it was such as the ablest masters would have been glad to imitate. But what is still more extraordinary, without a voice he was a most excellent singer of such music as required more of the pathos of melody than a quick and voluble expression.

To enter upon a critical inquiry into the several merits of the various works of this great master would far exceed the limits of this work. Of some of his productions a transient view has already been taken. Among those of the first and highest class no competent judge will hesitate to rank his "Te Deum" and "Jubilate," his Coronation, and other anthems, the "Dettingen Te Deum," and the truly sublime choruses in his oratorios.

To point out the various excellencies in the choruses of Handel would be an endless task. In general it may be observed that they are fugues in which the grandest objects are introduced and conducted with such art as only himself possessed. Some are in the solemn style of the church, as that of the conclusion of the first of "Saul;" others have the natural and easy elegance of madrigals; others are in the highest degree expressive of exultation, such as that in "Israel in Egypt," "I will sing unto the Lord," and those in the "Messiah," "For unto us a child is born," and "Hallelujah, for the Lord God Omnipotent reigneth." Lastly, there are others in a style peculiar to himself, and calculated to excite terror, such as "He gave them hailstones for rain," "But, the waters overwhelmed their enemies," and "Thy right hand, O Lord, hath dashed in pieces the enemy," in "Israel in Egypt." And though, perhaps, it may be said that Handel, agreeably to the practice of his countrymen, has too much affected imitation, particularly in the latter of the above-mentioned productions, by passages broken in the time to express the hopping of frogs, and others calculated to resemble the buzzing of flies,—and that in "Joshua" he has endeavoured by the harmony of one long-extended note to impress upon the imagination of his hearers the idea of the great luminary of the universe arrested in his course, or, in other words to make them hear the sun stand still, it may be justly said that they abound with innumerable examples of the true sublime and beautiful in music, and that they far surpass in majesty and dignity the productions of every other deceased or living author.

The character of an author is but the necessary result of his works, and the permanent fame of Handel must ultimately rest on the merits of his oratorios and other sacred productions. Many of the excellencies, which, as a musician, recommended him to the patronage of the public during a residence of fifty years in this country, he might perhaps possess in common with a few of the most eminent of his contemporaries; but till they were instructed by Handel, none were aware of that dignity and grandeur of sentiment which music is capable of conveying, or that

there is a sublime in music as well as in poetry and painting. This is a discovery which we owe to the genius and inventive faculty of this great man; and there is little reason to doubt that the many examples of sublimity with which his works abound will continue to engage the admiration of judicious hearers as long as the love of harmony shall exist.

We shall conclude the foregoing account of this great musician by an extract from a very able criticism in the "Quarterly Musical Review," where the author, in an essay on the formation of an English school of music, introduces the following observations on the works of Handel:—

"Though not strictly speaking an English composer, Handel has always been the first and most continual object of English admiration. But his popularity is fast ebbing away, and the higher classes are almost universally devoted to Italian music. Handel was a composer of great majesty and strength, even his elegance partakes of sublimity. His style is the great, and is simple in the degree which contributes most to this end. From a singer he requires more legitimate and genuine expression than any other master. In the hands of a common performer Handel's best pieces are heavy and fatiguing, but when we hear them from one who is alive to his subject, and whose expression is at all equal to the task, they awaken the noblest and best feelings of humanity. They produce in us a reverential awe for the power which they celebrate, while they elevate the soul into adoration and thanksgiving. But, alas! these sensations are now hardly ever felt, that dignified simplicity of manner, and that pure elocution that 'spoke so sweetly and so well,' the finest accordance of sentiment and of sound, are almost gone. Let us endeavour to ascertain the causes. It is admitted universally that one of the strongest impulses to pleasure is novelty. To this feeling, perhaps, may be traced the mental preparation which is now leading, or has led, to an entire change of musical opinion in this country. The managers of public music used not to be sufficiently attentive to variety in selection; not content with confining the bill of fare to Handel, they kept to particular songs, and I think I am warranted in saying that, while certain portions of his works have been performed night after night, much of very glorious composition is almost unknown. Satiation palled the appetite. Education has advanced hand in hand with the fine arts; the modern languages are now every where taught and understood. In every family of tolerable breeding Italian is thought indispensable; there is no longer that bar to Italian music—the ignorance of the language. Not to understand Italian, and not to sing Italian music, are now something allied to the disgrace of a defective education. Pride is therefore become a powerful advocate for the foreigner. The power of escaping the nice observation of English critics upon pronunciation, which the Italian language affords to professional singers, must not be overlooked; there is no judgment for them to dread in this respect, since, even at the opera, the performers are often known to use a provincial dialect without censure and almost without discovery. It also happens that the expression of Italian singing is not required by the English themselves to be so precise and absolute as the expression of their own words. It may be very easily imagined that the vocal expression of a passage may be agreeable in a language with which we are not thoroughly



conversant, although we do not perceive that is not the genuine and exact expression, which we should not fail to do were it in our own tongue. Hence Italian singing does not ask for an English audience the same nice finish which in English singing we cannot dispense with. We are apt too to consider what we do not entirely comprehend to be idiomatic and peculiar; and we are certainly much more easily satisfied with Italian than with English expression. Though these causes may appear somewhat subtle and remote, they have, I am persuaded, a very powerful operation. I shall now proceed to others which arise more immediately from the nature of the compositions of our English favourite and of Italian music.

"A certain portion of terror frequently mixes itself with the emotions of the sublime. In music this is frequently effected by association. When we hear and feel 'I know that my Redeemer liveth,' 'The trumpet shall sound,' or any song of a like cast, the ideas of death, resurrection, and judgment, fill all the mind. We cannot dwell without strong emotion upon such subjects; the sensation produced is too sublime and too awful, and when it is passed away we are not solicitous to recal it but at certain and solemn occasions. Such are the genuine effects of Handel. I have already remarked that even his lighter compositions partake of grandeur. In his 'Acis and Galatea,' in despite of music so exquisitely beautiful, descriptive, original, and impassioned, the mind is strained beyond its common pitch, and we are not affected by the tenderness of the lovers in the same manner, or in the same degree, as we are by the amatory compositions of the Italian masters. In the story itself love is mingled with apprehension, and pathos with ideas of the bulk, the ferocity, the strength, the hideous figure, and the rage of Polypheme. These serve to give the mind a contrary determination, and prevent it from sinking into that delicious languor which it is the sovereign art of the Italian school to produce.

"The genius of the Italian language, of its poetry and its music, is principally calculated to excite the gentler passions. The frequent recurrence of soft syllables, the sweetness of the passages, and the lubricity with which a true Italian singer glides through melody, melts us at once into a dream of pity or of love. Thus then we see that the passions which most agreeably bias and affect the mind are all on the side of Italy. If it should be urged that only one master is adduced against the whole Italian school, I reply that I have selected the man to whom the English are most devoted, and in truth the only one, nationally speaking, who is extensively known to the British public. The works of early English composers, Purcell, Croft, Blow, Greene, Boyce, and Arne, though high in the estimation of sound taste, are now seldom heard. Their style, with an exception, perhaps, in favour of the last master, is considered obsolete. It certainly lacks the improvement of modern art and modern taste, while the reasons produced against Handel bear still more strongly upon these really English writers. It appears to me that so far as appertains to composition, the Germans have already effected for themselves what I propose to the English. They have blended and incorporated with the happiest success the sweetness, the tenderness, and the variety of Italian melody, with a strong and natural character of German

music. Haydn and Mozart rank in the very highest order of genius, and so truly do their notions of expression accord with our own, that we may assert, no composers have treated the expression of most peculiar subjects with such eminent propriety. It is of little importance, I think, whether they wrote the words, or whether the words were written to the music in particular works. No Englishman could desire or conceive a more exquisite consent between sound and sense than is to be found in the writings of both these composers. The 'Creation' of Haydn contains most singular imitations; and although not comparable for grandeur, simplicity, and solemnity, and, indeed, not comparable at all with the 'Messiah' of Handel, which is addressed to a totally different class of thoughts and perceptions, it is nevertheless full of beauty, tenderness, and grace. I do not mean to draw a parallel between these great works of great men, but rather to contrast them, because they are really of a totally opposite nature, and because they ought never to be considered together as objects of comparison. Their beauties are as distinct and different as the poetry of the 'Paradise Lost' and of the 'Seasons,' to which, in point of style, they bear perhaps some analogy. The 'Creation' of Haydn then, if it seldom rises into magnificence, is full of elegance and invention, nor can I point out a single weak or uninteresting melody. Joy, gratitude, benevolence, and love, are expressed with as much purity and as much ecstasy by Haydn in the 'Creation' as are the sublime emotions which inspire all the hopes and the terrors of religion, all the blessing, and honour, and glory, and power, we assign to the great Creator and Preserver of mankind in the 'Messiah' by Handel."

HANMER, SIR THOMAS, one of the commentators on Shakspeare. He was born in 1676, and was educated at Christ Church, Oxford. When he arrived at years of maturity he was chosen knight of the shire for the county of Suffolk, and sat in parliament near thirty years, either as a representative for that county, or for Flintshire, or for the borough of Thetford. In the House of Commons he was soon distinguished, and his powerful elocution and unbiassed integrity drew the attention of all parties. In 1713 he was chosen speaker; which office, difficult at all times, but at that time more particularly, he discharged with becoming dignity. Having withdrawn himself by degrees from public business, he spent the remainder of his life in an honourable retirement amongst his books and friends, and there prepared an elegant and correct edition of the works of Shakspeare. This he presented to the university of Oxford, and it was printed there in 1744. He died in April 1746.

HANNIBAL, a celebrated Carthaginian leader, the son of Hamilcar. He was born B.C. 251. Bred in camps, the first sound his infancy could distinguish was the clashing of arms. In the Spanish campaigns the germs of future greatness disclosed themselves; and when at length Hamilcar sank into his grave, covered with the glory of many victories, this young hero, buckling on that sword which he had vowed never to sheath in amity with Rome, sprang from his paternal ashes, the avenger of the wrongs of Carthage. Immediately upon the fall of Saguntum, with the rapidity of lightning he subdued the nations beyond the Iberus; and, disregarding the dangers attendant upon a passage over the Alps,

he entered upon this, the greatest of his labours. After having encountered a most determined opposition from the barbarians of these almost inaccessible regions, and the still fiercer elements, the indefatigable warrior succeeded in attaining the summit of the mountains, and from thence, pouring down his hardy thousands, he burst like a thunder cloud on the devoted valleys of Italy. Clad in the awful grandeur of those energies which had remained unconquered by the fury of an elemental conflict, he appeared before the terror-stricken legions of Rome. Three armies were dispersed or cut to pieces by the invincible courage of his soldiers; and though the caution of Fabius partly checked his victorious progress, a more glorious battle-field than Trebia or Thrasymene still awaited him. Cannæ plunged every family of Rome in mourning, and reflected fresh lustre on the name of Hannibal. Here, however, his fame had "touched its zenith," and here did the jealousy of that faction which thwarted all his plans at home first manifest itself as conducing to his downfall. Had the necessary supplies of troops and money been granted by his ungrateful country, Rome would have shortly beheld the conqueror yet reeking with the blood of her slaughtered senators, and the fate of the universe might have been changed.

The cause of the second Punic war has been imputed by a celebrated Latin historian to the perfidious violation of the existing treaties by Hannibal, in attacking an ally of the Roman people: credit should however be given to the statements of Polybius, whose candour and disinterestedness may rather be trusted than the impartiality of one who must naturally have imbibed the prejudices of his countrymen against this their most hated enemy. In arraigning the perfidy of Hannibal, Livy would pass over the occupation of Sardinia, and the imposition of two thousand talents upon Carthage, at a period when her weakness prevented any opposition to the former, and when a refusal to comply with the latter could not be supported by an appeal to arms—would forget that these instances of the ambition and extortionate avarice of Rome left sufficient pretext for the rival city to make reprisals at the first opportunity, even without a formal declaration of hostilities. This, then, may be a justification of the siege of Saguntum, which may be considered the beginning, certainly not the cause, of this war; and here therefore may be grounded a refutation of the alleged perfidiousness of Hannibal; who, in wielding the arms of his country so successfully, executed only a terrible though just retribution on her enemies; though with the spirit he inherited from his father did he accomplish that vengeance which the precepts of Hamilcar had so frequently inculcated.

The celebrated battle of Zama having decided the contests of Hannibal with the Roman armies, he fled to Carthage, and from thence to Crete, where he poisoned himself.

**HANSARD, LUKE.**—This eminent printer was born in 1750, and he came to the metropolis a journeyman, having slender prospects of success beyond that to which his own personal application, perseverance, and merit, might entitle him. He was born near Norwich, and received the rudiments of education at a school in Lincolnshire, and was afterwards apprenticed to the then only printer in Norwich. The hard fare of his early probation, at school and during his apprenticeship, recurred frequently

to his recollection in after-life, and served as a theme for useful monition to the young people about him. No one about him could ever keep pace with his undeviating course of labour, the time allotted by him for rest never exceeding, at any season of the year, more than a sixth part of the twenty-four hours of each working day. This practice he pursued to within a very short period preceding his decease. With him every returning day brought a cheerful disposition for labour, and, from the sheer love of it, a perseverance that never relaxed, because it knew not to tire. To the remark of our great moralist, that "it seldom happens to a man that his business is his pleasure," Mr. Hansard was a striking exception. No one ever took greater delight in any pursuit than he did in his particular avocation; to that he devoted all his powers, bodily and mental, the force of which he multiplied at will by the rare tact of infusing into others a portion of his own extraordinary zeal. Mr. Hansard died October 29th, 1829.

To the society for educating the lower classes, to that for building churches, to the recently-projected institution of a metropolitan college, and to other public foundations, he was a liberal contributor; while his munificent gifts, vested in the Stationers' Company for poor printers, will convey a grateful memory of him to the latest posterity.

**HANWAY, JONAS.**—A celebrated philanthropist, who was born at Portsmouth in 1712, and was at a very early period apprenticed to a merchant at Lisbon. He afterwards travelled through Persia for commercial purposes, and in 1753 he published an account of his travels through Russia into Persia, and back again through Russia, Germany, and Holland. To this work also was added an account of the revolutions of Persia during the present century. His other publications are very numerous, and most of them were well received. The institution of the Marine Society, justly attributed to his activity and benevolence, was the favourite object of Mr. Hanway's care; and in 1758 he was also particularly instrumental in the establishment of the Magdalen charity. His public spirit, and, above all, his disinterestedness, was so conspicuous that a deputation of the principal merchants in London waited upon the earl of Bute when prime minister, and represented to him that an individual like Mr. Hanway, who had done so much public good to the injury of his private fortune, was deserving of some signal mark of the public esteem. He was accordingly made a commissioner of the navy, a situation which he held more than twenty years, and when he resigned he was allowed to retain the salary for life on account of his known exertions in the cause of universal charity. To enumerate the various instances in which the benevolent character of his heart was successfully exerted would be no easy task. Sunday-schools may in some measure look upon Mr. Hanway as their father; the chimney-sweepers' boys are much indebted to his humanity; and perhaps there never was any public calamity in any part of the British empire which he did not endeavour to alleviate. So greatly and so universally he was respected, that when he died, in 1786, a subscription of many hundred pounds was raised to erect a monument to his memory. The great character of his numerous works is a strong masculine spirit of good sense, and a very chaste simplicity. In his private life he was remarkable for the strictest



integrity of conduct, and for a frankness and candour which naturally inspired confidence.

**HARDICANUTE**, an early English king of England and Denmark. He was the son of Canute, by Emma, daughter of Richard duke of Normandy, and succeeded his father on the Danish throne in 1038, at the same time laying claim to that of England, which had devolved to his elder and half-brother Harold. A compromise was effected, by which the southern part of the kingdom was for a while held in his name by his mother Emma, and on the death of his brother he succeeded to the whole. His government was violent and tyrannical; he revived the odious tax of Dane-geld, and punished with great severity the insurrections which it occasioned. The death of this despicable prince, in consequence of intemperance at the nuptials of a Danish nobleman, brought his reign to an early termination, to the great joy of his subjects, in 1041.

**HARDINGE, NICHOLAS**, an English poet of considerable merit, who was born in 1701, and educated for the bar, but in 1731, being appointed chief clerk to the House of Commons, gave up his profession and devoted himself to political pursuits. He died in 1758.

His son George Hardinge was born in 1744, and having attained considerable eminence in the legal profession, he ultimately became a Welsh judge. He died at Presteigne, April 26, 1816, in the seventy-second year of his age, leaving behind him the character of possessing, rather than profiting by, great talents. From his father he enjoyed a very good hereditary estate, and with his wife he obtained a very handsome dower.

**HARDYNG, JOHN**, an English historian of considerable eminence. He was born in 1378, and being taken into the household of the earl of Northumberland, he served that nobleman for several years, and after his death he enlisted under the banners of Sir Robert Umfraville, with whom he had fought at Homildon, and who was connected with the Percies by the ties of affinity as well as those of arms. In 1405, when King Henry IV. reduced the fortresses of Lord Bardolph and the earl of Northumberland, Sir Robert Umfraville's services in the expedition were rewarded with the castle of Warkworth, under whom Hardyng became the constable. How long he remained at Warkworth does not appear, but his knowledge of French geography seems soon to have engaged him in the secret service of his country. In 1415 we find him attendant on the king at Harfleur, and his journal of the march which preceded the memorable battle of Agincourt forms one of the most curious passages among the additions to the last reprint of his "Chronicle." In 1416 he appears to have accompanied the duke of Bedford to the sea-fight at the mouth of the Seine. In 1424 he was at Rome, and employed partly in inspecting the great chronicle of Troilus Pompeius; but soon after he was again employed in collecting documents for ascertaining the fealty due from the Scottish kings, which seems to have been attended with some personal danger.

Hardyng completed one portion of his "Chronicle" in 1437. The Lansdowne manuscript closes with the life of Sir Robert Umfraville, who died, according to Dugdale, in 1436, and under whom Hardyng seems to have lived in his latter years as constable of Kyme Castle in Lincolnshire. Of the rewards

which he received for his services, we find only a grant for life of ten pounds per annum out of the manor or alien preceptory of Wyloughton in the county of Lincoln, in the eighteenth year of Henry VI.; and in 1457 he had a pension of twenty pounds a year for life.

During his latter days he appears to have re-composed his "Chronicle" for Richard, duke of York, father to King Edward IV., who was slain in the battle of Wakefield, December 31, 1460. It was afterwards presented to King Edward IV. himself. The history comes no lower than the flight of Henry VI. to Scotland, but from "the excusacion" touching his "defaultes," in which the queen is mentioned, it is evident that Hardyng could not have finished his work before 1465. How long he survived its completion is unknown, but he must then have been at least eighty-seven years of age. His "Chronicle of England, unto the Reign of King Edward IV." is in verse, and as a metrical composition is bad, but, as a record of facts, is highly interesting to the English historian and antiquary. It was first printed by Grafton in 1543.

**HARDOUIN, JOHN**, a learned French Jesuit, no less celebrated for his intimate acquaintance with the classical authors of antiquity than remarkable for the singularity of his opinions respecting the authenticity of their writings. He was born in 1646 at Quimper in Bretagne, and the work for which he is most celebrated, is his "*Chronologiæ ex Nummis Antiquis Restitutæ Prolusio de Nummis Herodiadum*," in which he supports the extraordinary hypothesis, that almost all the writings under the names of the Greek and Roman poets and historians are the spurious productions of the thirteenth century. His exceptions to this denunciation are, the works of Cicero and Pliny, as well as of some of those attributed to Horace and Virgil. He contends at the same time, that the two latter are allegorical writers, who, under the names of Lalage and Aeneas, have represented the Christian religion and the life of its founder. This treatise was condemned and proscribed, the author was called upon for a public recantation of his errors, which in fact he made, but he afterwards repeated his offence in other publications. Among his principal works are, "*Nummi Antiqui Populorum et Urbium Illustrati*," Pliny's "Natural History, in usum Delphini;" and another in twelve folio volumes of "The Councils." On this latter work he expended a great deal of time and labour, but it was suppressed by the parliament. Hardouin died early in 1729.

**HARDWICKE, PHILIP YORKE, EARL OF**, was born at Dover in Kent in 1690. He studied the law in the Middle Temple, and being called to the bar in 1714, he soon became eminent in his profession. In 1718 he sat in parliament as member for Lewes in Sussex, and in the two successive parliaments for Seaford. March 1719 he was promoted to the office of solicitor-general. About this period he gained much reputation in parliament by opening the bill against Kelly, who had been principally concerned in Bishop Atterbury's plot as his secretary. In 1723 he was appointed attorney-general, in the execution of which important office he was remarkable for his candour and lenity. As an advocate for the crown, he spoke with the veracity of a witness and a judge; and though his zeal for justice and the due course of law was strong, yet his

respect for the privileges of the subject was equally strong. Upon the resignation of the great seal by Peter Lord King in 1733, Sir Philip Yorke was appointed lord chief justice of the king's bench. He was soon after raised to the dignity of a baron of this kingdom, with the title of Lord Hardwicke, baron of Hardwicke, in the county of Gloucester, and called to the cabinet council. The salary of chief justice of the king's bench, being thought inadequate to the weight and dignity of that high office, was raised, on the advancement of Lord Hardwicke to it, from 2000*l.* to 4000*l.* per annum to the chief justice and his successors; his lordship refusing to accept the augmentation of it in any other manner, or any other advantage in lieu of it: and the adjustment of the two vacancies of the chancery and king's bench between his lordship and Lord Talbot, upon terms honourable and satisfactory to both, was thought to do as much credit to the wisdom of the crown in those days as the harmony and friendship with which they co-operated in the public service did honour to themselves. In the midst of the general approbation with which he discharged his office there, he was called to that of lord high chancellor, on the decease of Lord Talbot in 1736.

The integrity and abilities with which he presided in the court of chancery, during the space of almost twenty years, appears from this remarkable circumstance, that only three of his decrees were appealed from, and even those were afterwards affirmed by the House of Lords. After he had executed that high office about seventeen years, in times and circumstances of accumulated difficulty and danger, and had twice been called to the exercise of the office of lord high steward on the trials of peers concerned in the rebellion, he was in 1754 advanced to the rank of an earl of Great Britain, with the titles of Viscount Royston and earl of Hardwicke. His resignation of the great seal in 1756 gave an universal concern to the nation, however divided at that time in other respects. But he still continued to serve the public in a more private station—at council, at the House of Lords, and upon every occasion where the course of public business required it—with the same assiduity as when he filled one of the highest offices in the kingdom. His constitution in the earlier part of his life did not seem to promise so much health and vigour as he afterwards enjoyed for a longer period than usually falls to the share of men of more robust habit of body. But his care to guard against any excesses secured to him an almost uninterrupted tenour of health; and his habitual mastery of his passions gave him a firmness and tranquillity of mind unabated by the fatigues and anxieties of business, from the daily circle of which he rose to the enjoyment of the conversation of his family and friends with the spirits of a person entirely vacant and disengaged. Till the latter end of his seventy-third year he preserved the appearance and vivacity of youth in his countenance, in which the characters of dignity and amiableness were remarkably united; and he supported the tedious disorder which proved fatal to him with an uncommon resignation, and even cheerfulness, till the close of life. He died in his seventy-fourth year, March 6, 1764.

HARE, DR. FRANCIS, a celebrated English bishop, of whose birth we have no particulars. He was bred at Eton school, and from that foundation

became a fellow of King's College, Cambridge, where he had the tuition of the marquis of Blandford, only son of the duke of Marlborough, who appointed him chaplain-general to the army. He afterwards obtained the deanery of Worcester, and from thence was promoted to the bishopric of Chichester, which he held with the deanery of St. Paul's to his death, which happened in 1740. He was dismissed from being chaplain to George I. in 1718 by the strength of party prejudices, in company with Dr. Moss and Dr. Sherlock, persons of distinguished rank for parts and learning.

About the latter end of Queen Anne's reign he published a remarkable pamphlet, entitled, "The Difficulties and Discouragements which attend the Study of the Scriptures in the Way of Private Judgment," in order to show that since such a study of the scriptures is an indispensable duty, it concerns all Christian societies to remove as much as possible those discouragements. He published many works against Bishop Hoadly in the Bangorian controversy as it is called; and also other learned works, which were collected after his death, and published in four volumes, octavo. He also prepared an edition of Terence, with notes, and "The Book of Psalms in the Hebrew, put into the Original Poetical Metre." In this last work he pretends to have discovered the Hebrew metre, which was supposed to have been lost; but his hypothesis, though defended by some, yet has been confuted by several learned men, particularly by Dr. Lowth.

HARLES, THEOPHILUS CHRISTOPHER, a celebrated German critic, who was born in 1738. He was educated at Erlangen, and appointed professor of Greek in the gymnasium of Cobourg in 1765. From this period till the time of his death he was engaged in the publication of classical and critical productions, of which the most important was a new edition of the "Bibliotheca Græca" of Fabricius. Professor Harles died November 2nd, 1814.

HARLEY, ROBERT, earl of Oxford and Mortimer, and lord high treasurer in the reign of Queen Anne. He was eldest son of Sir Edward Harley, and was born in London on the 5th of December, 1661. He was educated under the Rev. J. Birch, at Shilton, near Burford, in Oxfordshire, which, though only a private school, was remarkable for producing at the same time a lord high treasurer, viz. Lord Oxford; a lord high chancellor, viz. Lord Harcourt; a lord chief justice of the common pleas, viz. Lord Trevor; and ten members of the House of Commons, who were all contemporaries both at school and in parliament. During the Revolution Sir Edward Harley and his eldest son raised a troop of horse at their own expence; and after the accession of King William and Queen Mary he was first chosen member of parliament for Tregony in Cornwall, and afterwards served for the town of Radnor. In 1690 he was chosen by ballot one of the nine members of the House of Commons' commissioners for stating the public accounts, and also one of the arbitrators for uniting the two India companies. In 1694 the House of Commons ordered Mr. Harley to prepare and bring in a bill "For the frequent meeting and calling of parliaments;" which he accordingly did, and it was received by both houses without any alteration or amendment. In 1701 he was chosen speaker of the House of Commons, and that parlia-



ment being dissolved the same year by King William, and a new one called, he was again selected to fill that office, as he also was in the first parliament by Queen Anne.

In April 1704 he was sworn of her majesty's privy council, and in the May following he became one of the principal secretaries of state. In 1706 he was appointed one of the commissioners for the treaty of union with Scotland, and resigned his place of principal secretary of state in February 1707. In 1710 he was constituted one of the commissioners of the treasury, also chancellor and under-treasurer of the exchequer. On the 8th of March following, the marquis of Guiscard, a French Catholic then under examination of a committee of the privy council at Whitehall, stabbing him with a penknife, Guiscard was imprisoned, and died in Newgate in the same month, and an act of parliament was passed immediately making it felony, without benefit of clergy, to attempt the life of a privy counsellor in the execution of his office; and a clause was inserted, "To justify and indemnify all persons, who, in assisting in defence of Mr. Harley, chancellor of the exchequer, when he was stabbed by the sieur de Guiscard, and in securing him, did give any wound or bruise to the said sieur de Guiscard, whereby he received his death."

In 1711 Queen Anne raised him to the peerage, creating him Baron Harley of Wigmore in the county of Hereford, earl of Oxford, and earl Mortimer, with remainder, for want of issue male of his own body, to the heirs male of Sir Robert Harley, knight of the Bath, his grandfather. In May 1711 he was appointed lord high treasurer of Great Britain, and in the August following, at a general court of the South Sea Company, he was chosen their governor. Shortly after the death of Queen Anne he was impeached by the House of Commons of high treason, and high crimes and misdemeanours, was committed to the Tower by the House of Lords, where he suffered a lengthened confinement, but he was finally acquitted by his peers. He died in 1724 after having been twice married. Pope has celebrated his memory in the following lines:—

"A soul supreme, in each hard instance tried,  
Above all pain, all anger, and all pride,  
The rage of power, the blast of public breath,  
The lust of lucre, and the dread of death."

This nobleman was a great collector of curious books, especially those relating to the history of his own country, which were preserved and increased by his son.

HARMAR, JOHN, a good Latin scholar, who was born in 1594. He was educated at Oxford, and obtained some preferment in the church of England. His principal work is entitled "Praxis Grammatica," but his "Etymological Lexicon of the Greek Tongue" is still employed. He died in 1670.

HARMER, THOMAS.—This eminent dissenting clergyman was born in 1715, and after he had received a good classical education he was placed with a small congregation in Suffolk. The favourite object of his pursuit was oriental history, which he applied to the illustration of the sacred writings. Observing a striking conformity between the present customs of the eastern nations and those of the ancients, as mentioned or alluded to in various passages of scripture, he formed a design at a very early period of making extracts of such passages in books

of travels and voyages as appeared to him to furnish a key to many parts of the scriptures.

In 1764 Mr. Harmer published a volume of "Observations on Divers Passages of Scripture," &c. The favourable reception which this work met with encouraged Mr. Harmer to proceed in it, and in 1776 he gave the public an enlarged edition of it in two volumes octavo. By the preface to this edition we learn that Dr. Lowth, bishop of London, furnished him with some MS. papers of Sir John Chardin. In 1787 Mr. Harmer published two other volumes. He was author also of the "Outlines of a New Commentary on Solomon's Song, drawn by the help of Instructions from the East," an "Account of the Jewish Doctrine of the Resurrection of the Dead," &c. Mr. Harmer died in 1788.

HARMS, KLAUS, a celebrated preacher and author, who was born in May 1778 at Fahrstedt, a village in Holstein. He was the son of a miller, and until his twelfth year he studied in the village school, after which he learned the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages from the preacher of the village. From his seventeenth year, when his father died, he assumed the duties of the head of the family; but in his nineteenth year, his mother having sold the mill, he entered the school at Meldorf, in Ditmarsh, studied in 1799 at Kiel, and became a tutor. In 1806 he was chosen by the society at Lunden, in North Ditmarsh, as deacon, and in 1816 was elected archdeacon at Kiel. As a pulpit orator, he ranked very high; his words flowed with ease and facility, "often rushing, powerful, and energetic, as a torrent," and his style was simple, original, and perspicuous.

HAROLD, HARFAGAR, or the fair-haired, a celebrated king of Norway, son of Hafdan the Black; one of the greatest monarchs of that country. At the time of his father's death he was in the Dofrefield mountains, and had already evinced great talent and personal prowess in several battles. He had offered his hand to Gida, the daughter of a neighbouring king, but the proud beauty replied to Harold's ambassadors, that she would only consent to become his wife when he had subjected all Norway. Harold swore he would not cut his hair till he had accomplished Gida's desire, and in ten years succeeded in obtaining sole possession of Norway. In the mean time his hair had grown long and beautiful, from which circumstance he derived his surname. While he reduced the lesser kings, he left them, with the title of *jarl*, the administration of their territories, and the third part of their income; but many of them emigrated and founded Norwegian colonies. Herolf, or Rollo, emigrated to Neustria. Others, with their followers, established themselves in Iceland, the Shetland Isles, Faroe, and the Orcades, all which were then uninhabited. When Harold found that the emigrants often extended their incursions into his dominions, he embarked with a naval force to subdue them. After a bloody war he is said to have conquered Scotland, the Orcades, &c., and returned home. He fixed his residence at Drontheim, and died there in 930, after having raised his country to a prosperous state by wise laws and the encouragement of commerce.

HAROLD, surnamed Harefoot, an early king of England, who succeeded his father Canute in 1035, notwithstanding a previous agreement that the sovereignty of England should descend to the issue of Canute by his second wife, the Norman princess

Emma. His countrymen, the Danes, maintained him upon the throne against the efforts of Earl Godwin, in favour of Hardicanute; but Harold gaining over that leader by the promise of marrying his daughter, a compromise was effected, and they united to effect the murder of Prince Alfred, son to Etheldred II. After a reign of four years, in which nothing memorable occurred, Harold died in 1039.

HAROLD II., king of England, was the second son of Godwin, earl of Kent. He succeeded his father in his government and great offices, and upon the death of Edward the Confessor in 1066, stepped without opposition into the vacant throne, without attending to the more legal claim of Edgar Atheling, or the asserted bequest of Edward in favour of the duke of Normandy. The latter immediately called upon him to resign the crown, and upon his refusal prepared for invasion. He also instigated Harold's brother Tosti, who had retired to Flanders, to infest the northern coasts of England, in conjunction with the king of Norway. The united fleet of these chiefs sailed up the Humber, and landed a numerous body of men, who defeated the opposing forces of the earls of Northumberland and Mercia, but were totally routed by Harold, whose brother Tosti fell in the battle. He had scarcely time to breathe after this victory before he heard of the landing of the duke of Normandy at Pevensey in Sussex. Hastening thither with all the troops he could muster, a general engagement ensued at Hastings, in which this spirited prince, after exerting every effort of valour and military skill, was slain with an arrow; and the crown of England was the immediate fruit of William's victory.

HAROUN, or AARON AL RASHID, a celebrated caliph of the Saracens, who was the second son of the caliph Mahadi. He succeeded his elder brother Hadi in the caliphate A. D. 786, and was the most potent prince of his race, ruling over territories extending from Egypt to Korasan. He obtained the name of Al Rashid, or the Just, but his claim to the title must be regarded with considerable allowance for eastern notions of despotic justice. One of his noblest qualities was his love of learning and science. He caused many Greek and Latin authors to be translated and dispersed throughout his empire, and made his subjects acquainted with the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. He eight times invaded the Greek empire, and, on the refusal of the emperor Nicephorus in 802 to pay tribute, addressed to him a singularly arrogant epistle, and followed it up by an irruption into Greece, which terminated in the defeat of Nicephorus, who was obliged to pay an augmented tribute, and agree not to rebuild Heraclea and the other pillaged and dilapidated frontier towns.

During these transactions the ruin of the family of the Barmecides exemplified the despotic rigour of Haroun's character. Yahia, the head of it, had superintended his education; and of his four sons, the eldest was a successful general; the second, the caliph's prime vizier, Giaffer; and the third and fourth in dignified stations. The generosity, munificence, and affability of the Barmecides rendered them the delight of all ranks of people; and Giaffer was so much in his master's graces that the caliph, in order to enjoy his company in the presence of his sister Abassa, to whom he was equally attached, formed a marriage between the princess and vizier,

but with the capricious restriction of their forbearing the privileges of such an union. Passion broke through this unjust prohibition, and the caliph, in his revenge, publicly executed Giaffer, and confiscated the property of the whole family. Haroun attained the summit of worldly power and prosperity, and the French historians mention a splendid embassy which he sent to Charlemagne, which, among other presents, brought a magnificent tent, a water-clock, an elephant, and the keys of the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, implying a permission for European pilgrims to visit it. Haroun was seized with a mortal distemper while on the point of marching to put down a rebellion in the provinces beyond the Oxus; and retiring to Tous, in Korasan, expired in the forty-seventh year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign. The popular fame of this caliph is evinced by the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments," in which Haroun, his wife Zobeide, his vizier Giaffer, and his chief eunuch Mesrou, are frequent and conspicuous characters.

HARPER, ROBERT GOODLOE, an American lawyer of considerable eminence, who was born near Fredericksburg, Virginia, of poor but respectable parents. He displayed in his boyhood great vivacity of spirit and versatility of talent, and before the age of fifteen possessed the rudiments of a liberal education, and the ardour of his character prompted him at that age to join a troop of horse composed of the young men of the neighbourhood, to which he acted as quarter-master, and with them he participated in Greene's campaign; but his thirst for learning and intellectual culture soon induced him to withdraw from the military career and seek some situation in which he could complete his studies. He procured admission into Princeton College, where he taught one or two of the inferior classes while he gained instruction and distinction in the upper. About the age of twenty he accompanied a fellow student to Philadelphia on a visit, and there formed the resolution to embark at once for England, and make the tour of Europe on foot. This romantic project was frustrated by ice in the Delaware, that prevented the departure of any vessel during many weeks, in the course of which the youthful adventurer nearly exhausted his purse, and had leisure to reflect upon the difficulties of the enterprise. As soon as the river became navigable, he resolved to sail for Charleston, and try his fortune there, his new scheme being to study the law. He arrived, after a short passage, at that city, and found himself on the wharf, a stranger to every one, with but a dollar or two in his pockets. As he stood ruminating on his condition, he was accosted by a man of respectable appearance, who asked him whether he had not taught a class at Princeton College, in which there was a youth of a certain name; and, being answered affirmatively, he proceeded to say that the youth was his son, who had rendered him familiar with the name of his tutor by the affectionate testimony often repeated in his letters. He professed a strong desire to serve his new acquaintance, mentioned that he kept a tavern, and offered him any assistance which he might require. The welcome kindness was accepted: the generous friend introduced him to a lawyer, under whom he prepared himself for the same profession; and in less than a twelvemonth he undertook causes on his own account. The hope of speedier success in his profession induced him to



retire from Charleston to an interior district; and in this residence he first acquired some political consideration by a series of essays, in a newspaper, on a proposed change of the constitution of the state; and he was the following year elected into the legislature.

The reputation which he gained as a speaker and man of business soon placed him in congress. It is unnecessary to follow him, in his legislative course of eight or nine years, from the commencement of the French revolution to the year 1802, when the democratic party had succeeded to the national government. He sided with the federalists, and zealously supported the policy and measures of Washington, of whom he was the personal friend, as he was also of Hamilton and others of the principal federal statesmen. Many years afterwards he collected into an octavo volume a portion of his circulars and addresses to his constituents, and a few of his speeches, as they were printed while he was a representative. These attest the vigour of his faculties, the depth of his views, and the extent of his knowledge. No member of the national councils was better acquainted with the foreign relations of his country and the affairs of Europe, or could discuss them in a more instructive, argumentative, and fluent strain. His pamphlet, published in 1797, entitled "Observations on the Dispute between the United States and France," acquired great celebrity at home, passed rapidly through several editions in this country, and was esteemed, over Europe, one of the ablest productions of the crisis. Soon after the downfall of the federal party he retired from congress, and, having married the daughter of the distinguished patriot Charles Carroll of Carrolltown, resumed the practice of the law in Baltimore, where he soon became eminent in his profession. Judge Chase, when impeached by the house of representatives, engaged Mr. Harper for his defence, and committed to him the duty of preparing his full answer to the articles of impeachment. The victorious answer, a masterpiece in all respects, was thought to be the work of the judge himself, and excited a lively admiration of the supposed author's powers; but he furnished towards it only a few manuscript pages of loose heads, leading topics, most of which were either omitted or essentially modified. Mr. Harper attended almost every session of the supreme court from the time of its removal to Washington to that of his death, and was always listened to with respect by the court. His style of writing was animated and uncommonly perspicuous. Juries especially felt the combined influence of his clear natural tones, simple, easy gesture, lucid arrangement, and impressive exposition of facts, and his facility in applying general principles, and deducing motives or consequences at the exact point of time. Mr. Harper was a diligent reader of history, geography, travels, and statistics. He was versed in the sciences of morals and government, and was particularly well acquainted with political economy, and well knew how to use in his public addresses the stores with which his excellent memory readily supplied him. The federal party happening to acquire the ascendancy in Maryland, Mr. Harper was immediately elected by the legislature a senator in congress; but this position the demands of his profession obliged him soon to relinquish. The same councils bestowed upon him the rank of major-general in the militia. About the years 1819-20

he set out for Europe with a part of his family, and visited in succession England, France, and Italy. Favourable circumstances, and his own reputation and merit, procured for him access to many of the most renowned personages and brilliant circles both of Great Britain and the continent. During the few years between his return and death he employed himself chiefly in plans of a public character, such as the promotion of internal improvement and the colonization of the blacks. He delighted in topographical and geographical studies, and the particular notice which he had bestowed upon African geography served, besides his philanthropic zeal, to draw him into the scheme of African colonization.

HARRINGTON, JAMES, a celebrated political writer, was born at Upton in Northamptonshire, in 1611, and was educated at Trinity College, Oxford, under the care of the celebrated Chillingworth. On the death of his father he visited the Netherlands, where he entered Lord Craven's regiment, and, being quartered at the Hague, frequented the courts of the prince of Orange and the queen of Bohemia, and accompanied the elector palatine to Denmark. He subsequently visited Germany, France, and Italy, and on his return to England took part with the parliamentary party; and in 1646 he accompanied their commissioners to Charles I. at Newcastle, and on their recommendation was appointed groom of the stole to the king. In this capacity he never disguised his republican sentiments; yet he was desirous of producing an accommodation between Charles and the parliament, which is supposed to have produced his removal from the king's person. During the protectorate he passed his time in retirement, and occupied his leisure in writing his celebrated work "*Oceana*," which, after some opposition on the part of Cromwell, was published in 1656. In order to propagate his opinions he established a sort of club, or debating society, called the Rota, which was terminated by the Restoration. Being arrested for a supposed plot against the government, of which he was entirely innocent, he was treated with great severity, and his release by habeas corpus evaded by an arbitrary removal to St. Nicholas Island, near Plymouth. Here, either from distress of mind or improper medical treatment, his faculties became impaired; which being represented to the king by his relations, led to his release. He partly recovered, and married a lady to whom he had been early attached. He died of paralysis in 1677, and was buried at St. Margaret's, Westminster. Harrington was a profound thinker. His "*Oceana*," which is a political romance, and the Utopian image of a republic, is a work of genius, thought, and invention, and is characterized by an enthusiastic love of liberty.

HARRINGTON, SIR JOHN, an ingenious English poet, was the son of John Harrington, Esq., who was imprisoned in the Tower under Queen Mary for holding a correspondence with the lady Elizabeth, with whom he continued in great favour to the time of his death. Sir John was born at Kelston, near Bath, in Somersetshire, about 1561, and had Queen Elizabeth for his godmother. He was instructed in classical learning at Eton school, and from thence removed to Cambridge, where he took the degree of M. A. Before he was thirty years of age he published a translation of Ariosto's "*Orlando Furioso*," by which he gained a considerable reputation, and for which he is now principally known. After this he

published some books of epigrams. In the reign of James he was created a knight of the Bath, and, being a courtier, presented a MS. to Prince Henry, levelled chiefly against the married bishops, which was intended only for the private use of his royal highness; but, being published afterwards, created great clamour; and it was said by the clergy that his conduct was of a piece with his doctrines, since he, together with Robert earl of Leicester, supported Sir Walter Raleigh in his suit to Queen Elizabeth for the manor of Banwell, belonging to the bishopric of Bath and Wells, on a presumption that the incumbent had incurred a *præmunire* by marrying a second wife. Wood furnishes the following account of the transaction. He says that "Sir John Harrington, being minded to obtain the favour of Prince Henry, wrote a discourse for his private use, intitled, 'A Brief View of the State of the Church of England, as it stood in Queen Elizabeth's and King James's Reign, to the year 1608.' This book is no more than a character and history of the bishops of those times, and was written to the said prince Henry, as an additional supply to the catalogue of bishops of Dr. Francis Godwin, upon occasion of that proverb—

'Henry the Eighth pulled down monks and their cells:  
Henry the Ninth shall pull down bishops and their bells.'

In the said book the author Harrington doth, by imitating his godmother Queen Elizabeth, show himself a great enemy to married bishops, especially to such as had been married twice; and many things therein are said of them that were by no means fit to be published, being written only for private use. But so it was, that the book coming into the hands of one John Chetwind, grandson by a daughter to the author, a person deeply principled in Presbyterian tenets, did when the press was open, print it at London in 1653; and no sooner was it published and came into the hands of many, but it was exceedingly clamoured at by the loyal and orthodox clergy, condemning him that published it."

HARRIOT, THOMAS, a mathematical and miscellaneous writer, who was employed by Sir Walter Raleigh to colonize, and subsequently to describe, the settlement of Virginia. He was for some time a resident at Sion College, where he died in 1621. His "Artis Analyticæ Praxis" is a valuable work.

HARRIS, JAMES, a learned writer on philology and the philosophy of language, was born at Salisbury in 1709. Having passed through his preliminary studies, he entered as a gentleman commoner of Wadham College, Oxford, at the age of sixteen; after which he became a probationer at Lincoln's Inn. The death of his father put him in possession of an independent fortune at the age of twenty-three, on which he retired to his native place to dedicate his time to classical literature. In 1744 he published a volume containing three treatises—On Art; on Music and Painting; and on Happiness. This was a prelude to the most celebrated of his productions, "Hermes, or a Philosophical Enquiry concerning Universal Grammar." This work displays much ingenuity and an extensive acquaintance with the writings of the Greek poets and philosophers; but the author's ignorance of the ancient dialects of the northern nations has caused him to take an imperfect survey of his subject. In 1761 he was chosen member of parliament, and held several public places. In 1775 he published "Philosophical Arrangements,"

forming part of a systematic work which he had projected as an illustration of the logic of Aristotle. His concluding work, "Philological Inquiries," was completed in 1780, but was not published till after his death, which took place in December 1780.

HARRIS, JOHN, a clever encyclopædist, who received his education at Cambridge, and in 1698 obtained the degree of D.D. Notwithstanding his having held several valuable church preferments at different periods of his life, he died in indigence in 1719. He is principally known as the compiler of a work entitled "Lexicon Technicum, or a Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences." He also compiled a "History of the County of Kent," a "Collection of Voyages and Travels," and several mathematical works of considerable merit.

HARRIS, WILLIAM, a Protestant dissenting minister of considerable abilities, who resided at Honiton in Devonshire. In September 1765 the degree of D.D. was conferred on him by the university of Glasgow, by the unanimous consent of the members of that body. He published an historical and critical account of the lives of James I., Charles I., and Oliver Cromwell. He also wrote the life of Hugh Peters, besides many other works of merit. Dr. Harris died at Honiton in 1770.

HARRISON, BENJAMIN, an American gentleman of considerable eminence, who was descended from a highly respectable family in Virginia. He went early into public life (in which his ancestors had long been distinguished), commencing his political career, in 1764, as a member of the legislature of his native province. The eminence which he acquired in that capacity, combined with the influence naturally accruing from fortune and distinguished family connexions, rendered it an object for the royal government to enlist him in their favour; and he was accordingly offered a seat in the executive council of Virginia,—a station analogous to that of a privy-counsellor in England. This was a tempting bait to an ambitious young man; but as, even at that time, the measures of the British ministry indicated an oppressive spirit, he refused the proffered dignity, and always exerted his influence for the benefit of the people. When the time came for active resistance to the arbitrary acts of the government, he was not found backward. In the first general congress of 1774 he was a delegate, and consecrated his name by affixing it to the declaration of independence. It is related concerning him, that, whilst signing the instrument, he happened to stand near Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, who was of a slender and spare form, while he was very corpulent; and, turning to him, after laying down the pen, he said, in a facetious way, "When the time of hanging comes, I shall have the advantage over you. It will be over with me in a minute, but you will be kicking in the air half an hour after I am gone." Mr. Harrison was particularly useful as chairman of the board of war. After his resignation of his seat, in 1777, he was elected to the house of burgesses of Virginia, of which he was immediately chosen speaker. This situation he occupied until the year 1782, when he was made chief magistrate of the state, and was twice re-elected. In 1785 he retired into private life, but in 1788 became a member of the convention of Virginia that ratified the constitution of the United States. Of the first committee appointed by this body, that of privileges and elec-



tions, he was chosen chairman; but his age and infirmities prevented him from taking an active part in the debates. He, however, advocated the adoption of the constitution with certain amendments. He died of the gout in 1791.

HARRISON, JOHN, an accurate English mechanic, who was the inventor and maker of a time-keeper for ascertaining the longitude at sea, and also of the compound, or, as it is commonly called, the gridiron-pendulum. He was born at Foulby, near Pontefract, in Yorkshire, in 1693. His father was a carpenter, in which profession the son assisted; occasionally also surveying land, and repairing clocks and watches. In 1700 he removed with his father to Barrow in Lincolnshire, where, though his opportunities of acquiring knowledge were very few, he eagerly improved every opportunity of obtaining information. He frequently employed all or great part of his nights in writing or drawing, and always acknowledged his obligations to a clergyman who officiated in his neighbourhood for lending him a MS. copy of Professor Saunderson's Lectures, which he carefully transcribed, with all the diagrams. In 1726 he constructed two clocks, in which he applied the escapement and compound pendulum of his own invention.

In 1728 Mr. Harrison came to London, with the drawings of a machine for determining the longitude at sea, in expectation of being able to execute one by the board of longitude. Upon application to Halley, he referred him to Mr. Graham, who advised him to make his machine before he applied to the board of longitude. He went home to perform this task, and in 1735 came to London again with his first machine, with which he was sent to Lisbon the next year for a trial of its properties. In this short voyage he corrected the dead reckoning about a degree and a half, a success that procured him both public and private encouragement. About 1739 he completed his second machine, which was more simple in its construction than the former, and answered much better; but his third machine, produced in 1749, was still less complicated than the second, and superior in accuracy. While employed in endeavouring to improve pocket-watches he found the principles he applied to surpass his expectations so much as to encourage him to make his fourth time-keeper, which is in the form of a pocket-watch, about six inches in diameter. With this time-keeper his son made two voyages, the one to Jamaica, the other to Barbadoes; in both which experiments it corrected the longitude within the nearest limits required by the act of the 12th of Queen Anne; and the inventor, at different times, though not without great trouble, received the promised reward of 20,000*l*.

The latter part of Harrison's life was employed in making a fifth time-keeper, on the same principles as the preceding one, which, at the end of a ten weeks' trial, 1772, in the king's private observatory at Richmond, erred only four seconds and a half. In 1775 he published "A Description concerning such Mechanism as will afford a Nice or True Measurement of Time," &c. This work also includes an account of his new musical scale; for he had, in his youth, been the leader of a distinguished band of church-singers, and had an excellent ear for music.

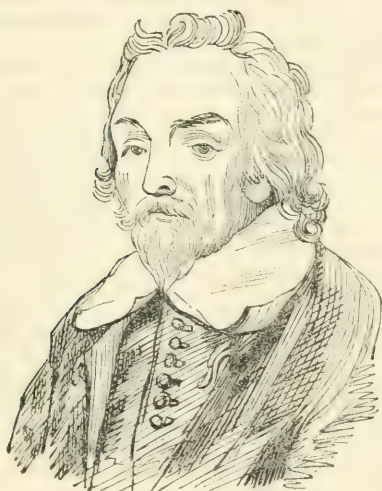
Mr. Harrison died at his house in Red Lion Square, London, in March 1776.

HARTE, WALTER, a biographical writer and poet of some celebrity in the eighteenth century. The precise time of his birth is not known, but before he had attained his nineteenth year he had written a volume of poems still much read and admired. In 1730 he published his "Essay on Satire," and in 1735 the "Essay on Reason," to which Pope contributed very considerably. He afterwards published two sermons, the one entitled "The Union and Harmony of Reason, Morality, and Revealed Religion," preached at St Mary's, Oxford, in February 1736, which passed through five editions: the other was a "Fast Sermon," preached at the same place in January 1739. He was afterwards created vice-principal of St. Mary Hall, and had so high a reputation as a tutor that Lord Lyttelton, who was one of his earliest friends, recommended him to the earl of Chesterfield as a private and travelling preceptor to his natural son. With this young man, to whom his lordship addressed those letters which have so much injured his reputation, Mr. Harte travelled from 1746 to 1750. Lord Chesterfield is said to have procured for him a canonry of Windsor in 1751, "with much difficulty," arising from his college connexions. In 1759 he published his "History of Gustavus Adolphus," a work on which he had bestowed much labour, and in which he has accumulated very valuable materials. Mr. Harte continued to devote his time to literary pursuits till his death, which occurred at St. Austel in 1774. His last work was entitled "The Amaranth."

HARTLEY, DAVID, an English physician, who was principally celebrated as a writer on metaphysics and morals. He was born in 1705, and at the age of fifteen was sent to Jesus College Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. He engaged in the study of medicine, and practised as a physician in Nottinghamshire, and subsequently in London. When Mrs. Stephens, a female empiric, professed to have found out a specific for the stone, Dr. Hartley contributed towards her obtaining the grant of 5000*l*. from parliament for her discovery. He spent the latter part of his life at Bath, and he died there in August 1757. His fame as a philosopher and a man of letters depends on his work entitled "Observations on Man." This treatise exhibits the outlines of connected systems of physiology, mental philosophy, and theology. His physiology is founded on the hypothesis of nervous vibrations. The doctrine of association, which he adopted and illustrated, explains many phenomena of intellectual philosophy; and this part of Hartley's work was published by Dr. Priestley in a detached form, under the title of the "Theory of the Human Mind."

HARTLEY, DAVID, a distinguished politician and an ingenious projector, who was for some time member of parliament, and uniformly displayed liberal views. His steady opposition to the war with the American colonies led to his being appointed one of the plenipotentiaries to treat with Dr. Franklin at Paris, and some of his letters on that occasion were published in the correspondence of that statesman in 1817, and are contained in the diplomatic correspondence of the American revolution. In the House of Commons Hartley was one of the first promoters of the abolition of the slave-trade. This benevolent philosopher died at Bath in December 1813, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

**HARVEY, WILLIAM**, an eminent English physician, who first discovered the circulation of the blood. He was born at Folkstone, in Kent, in April 1578. At ten years of age he was sent to a grammar school at Canterbury, from which he was removed to Caius College in Cambridge. Having completed his education he proceeded on his travels through France and Germany to Padua, where he was created doctor of physic and surgery in that university in 1602. Soon after returning to this country he was incorporated M. D. at Cambridge. In 1615 he was appointed lecturer on anatomy and surgery in that college, and the year after delivered a course of lectures there, in which he explained his discovery respecting the circulation of the blood. In 1628 he published his "*Exercitatio Anatomica de Motu Cordis et Sanguinis*," and dedicated it to Charles I. There is also another dedication to the College of Physicians, in which he observes that he had frequently before, in his anatomical lectures, declared his new opinion respecting the motion and use of the heart, and the circulation of the blood, and for above nine years had confirmed and illustrated it before the college, by reasons and arguments grounded upon ocular demonstration, and defended it from the objections of the most skilful anatomists.



In 1632 he was made physician to Charles I., as he had been previously to King James; and upon the breaking out of the civil wars he attended his majesty at the battle of Edge Hill, and afterwards to Oxford, where in 1642 he was incorporated M.D. In 1645 the king obtained his election to the office of warden of Merton College in that university; but upon the surrendering of Oxford the year after to the parliament, he left that office and retired to London. In 1651 he published his book entitled "*Exercitationes de Generatione Animalium; quibus accedunt quædam de parte, de membranis, ac humoribus uteri, et de conceptione.*" This is a curious work, and had certainly been more so but for some misfortunes by which his papers perished during the time of the civil wars. For although he had an express order from the parliament to attend his ma-

jesty upon his leaving Whitehall, yet his house in London was in his absence plundered of all the furniture, and his "*Adversaria*," with a great number of anatomical observations, were taken away.

In 1654 he was chosen president of the College of Physicians, but his age and weakness were so great that he could not discharge the duty incumbent upon that office, and therefore requested them to choose Dr. Prujean, who had deserved so well of the college. As he had no children he made the college his heirs and settled his paternal estate upon them in July following. He had three years before built them a combination-room, a library, and a museum; and in 1656 presented the college with the deeds of his estate. He was then present at the first festival instituted by himself, and to be continued annually, together with a commemoration speech in Latin. He died in June 1656, and was interred at Hempsted in Hertfordshire, where a monument is erected to his memory. We need hardly add that Dr. Harvey lived to see his theory respecting the circulation of the blood firmly established.

**HARVEY, GIDEON**, an English physician of some eminence, who was born in Surrey, and was admitted to Exeter College, Oxford, in 1655. He afterwards went to Leyden, where he was admitted fellow of the College of Physicians at the Hague, being at that time physician in ordinary to Charles II. in his exile. On his return to London he was appointed physician to the English army in Flanders. He afterwards passed through Germany into Italy, spent some time at Padua, Bologna, and Rome, and then returned through Switzerland and Holland to England, and became physician in ordinary to his majesty. He died about 1700. He is principally remarkable from having waged a perpetual war with the College of Physicians, whom he endeavoured to injure in a work entitled "*The Conclave of Physicians: detecting their intrigues, frauds, and plots against their patients*," &c.

**HARWOOD, EDWARD**, a dissenting clergyman, who gave great attention to the Greek and Latin classics. He was born in 1729, and, after acquiring a good education, he in 1754 undertook the care of a grammar school at Congleton in Cheshire, and preached for some years in the vicinity of that town. In 1764 he removed to Bristol, and in about five years he was obliged, as he stated, to quit his situation on account of his principles as an Arian and Arminian, being for some time scarcely able to walk along the streets of Bristol without insult; but the truth was that a charge of immorality was brought against him, which he never satisfactorily answered, and which sufficiently accounted for his unpopularity. He had previously to this, in 1768, obtained the degree of D.D. from the university of Edinburgh, and with this he came to London and obtained literary employment from the booksellers, but he died very poor in 1794, after having been confined many years in consequence of a paralytic attack. He was author of many works, the most important of which is "*A View of the Various Editions of the Greek and Roman Classics*," which has been several times reprinted, and has, as well as his "*Introduction to the New Testament*," been translated into several foreign languages. His other works were pamphlets on the Arian and Socinian controversy, if we except an edition of the Greek Testament, and a



"Translation of the New Testament," to the latter of which but little praise can be given.

**HASSELQUIST, FREDERICK**, a Swedish naturalist, who devoted himself to illustrate the doctrines of Linnaeus. He was born in 1722, and educated at the university of Upsal. In 1749 he went to Syria, and passing through Palestine made extensive collections for the natural history of that country; but as he died at Smyrna in 1752, the task devolved on Linnaeus. The work ultimately appeared under the title of "*Iter Palæstinum*."

**HASTED, EDWARD**, an English antiquary, whose only published work is entitled to considerable praise for its laborious industry. His "*History of Kent*" occupied more than forty years, and he ultimately succeeded to very extensive estates in that county. Mr. Hasted was born in 1732 and died in 1812.

**HASTINGS, WARREN**.—This individual, who acted so important a part in the aggressions of the British authorities in India, was born in 1733 at Churchill in Oxfordshire. He received a good plain education at home, and after passing a short time at Westminster school received an appointment in the service of the East India Company. On his arrival in the East he devoted himself to acquiring a knowledge of the Persian and Hindostanee languages, which in 1758 procured him the appointment of resident agent at the court of the Nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn



In 1764 Mr. Hastings returned to England, but in four years afterwards he was appointed second in command at Madras. Having landed there in 1770, he remained for about two years, and in 1772 he proceeded to Bengal, in consequence of an appointment on the part of the directors at home to be president of the supreme council; and as about this period the different presidencies, all of which claimed equal powers, had not coalesced in a friendly manner, it was determined to create a paramount jurisdiction, and accordingly Mr. Hastings, at this critical period, was invested with supreme authority as governor-general of Bengal. Meanwhile, the situation of England had also become critical in the extreme. The fatal attempt to coerce America produced an alliance between her and France; Holland and Spain

soon after joined in the same league, and a long, sanguinary, and expensive war ensued, the events of which soon extended to India, and finally involved the best and dearest interests of the company.

Hyder Ally, a warlike prince, at that period wielded the sceptre of Mysore, and having collected a formidable army, and formed many considerable alliances, particularly with the Mahrattas, threatened havoc and destruction to the English. He accordingly made an irruption into the Carnatic, which occasioned the immediate flight of the chief in command at Madras. The defeat of the British army under Sir Hector Munro produced new fears and confusion; but when a strong detachment under Colonel Baillie was cut off, a panic terror ensued for a time, and much doubt was engendered in respect to the issue of the contest. It must be allowed by all that on this great and trying occasion the conduct of the governor-general was replete with ardour. Undismayed by the combination against him, he stretched forth a succouring arm from Calcutta to the remotest of the British settlements in Hindostan; sometimes by means of the most refined policy he dispelled a formidable league, and sometimes by means of money bought off an enemy. On other occasions he had recourse to open force, and, with a new and formidable army under Sir Eyre Coote, carried all before him. However, in the midst even of his victorious career, some murmurings were heard both in England and India. He was accused on one hand of squandering the public money in improvident contracts; and on the other, of obtaining supplies from allied and dependent states, by means of injustice and oppression: his peace with the Mahrattas in particular was declared dishonourable.

In 1776 the government at home openly expressed their displeasure with his general conduct, and measures were accordingly adopted at the India House for his recall; but a majority of the court of proprietors being of a different opinion, he was suffered to remain. On May 28th, 1782, the House of Commons declared that it was the duty of the court of directors to remove him. The motion for this purpose was made by Mr. Dundas, afterwards Lord Melville, on the arrival of a despatch containing the account of an act "of the most flagrant violence and oppression, and of the grossest breach of faith committed against Chet Sing, the rajah of Benares." A second order for the recall of Mr. Hastings was accordingly issued; but this also was afterwards rescinded, in consequence of a second vote of the court of proprietors in his favour. On these however, as on all other occasions, the capacity and talents of this gentleman for supreme command were freely allowed and universally acknowledged by all parties; while it was at the same time frankly confessed that the company had greatly increased both its territories and its revenue under his administration. Meanwhile, however, a regular plan had been formed at home to bridle his power, and circumscribe his authority, if at any time it should be exerted for unwise or unworthy purposes. With this view three gentlemen were selected of known ability and high consideration: these were Sir Philip Francis, General Clavering, and Colonel Monson, who had seats at the council board.

On their appearance they were not treated with ordinary respect, and soon after their arrival many disagreements took place; but as they constituted a

majority, they carried all questions by plurality of votes. Mr. Hastings's policy did not always meet their approbation, and many of his projects seemed to them to be big with ruin; accordingly they frequently entered their protest, and sternly refused their assent to several of his measures. In consequence of express orders from the court of directors, they now proceeded to inquire into all acts of bribery, peculation, and oppression, committed by any of the company's servants. On this, Nundcomar, a native of high consideration, perceiving their divisions, gave information of certain charges of corruption, to the supreme council, and challenged the governor-general, who was implicated, to a denial of them; but without ever declaring they were false, Mr. Hastings refused either to meet or refute them. He however vilified his accuser, and repeatedly dissolved the council, by which measure his colleagues were prevented from proceeding in their inquiries. Some progress however was made, for the evidence of Nundcomar, together with that of his son Rajah Goudass, was obtained; in the course of which it appeared that they themselves had conveyed large sums of money to him in the name of Munry Begum. So particular were they in their details that they mentioned all the intermediate agents, the very species of coin in which the bribe was paid, the colour of the bags delivered, and the rate of exchange paid on the occasion. The whole was corroborated by a letter from Munry Begum himself, and, to crown all, it was desired that Canto Baboo, Mr. Hastings's Hindoo secretary, might be examined in respect to all these points. The governor-general, however, refused to allow him to be produced; he himself also declined to meet his accusers, and to these specific charges merely opposed the integrity of his character. But a sudden stop by means equally new and unexpected was put to this inquiry. Nundcomar was arrested on a charge of forgery, and, having been committed to the common jail, was soon after tried before Sir Elijah Impey, the chief justice, convicted, and executed for the breach of an act of parliament that did not extend to Scotland, and was supposed incapable of being applied to Asia. The sudden death of General Clavering, followed by that of Colonel Monson soon after, gave Mr. Hastings once more a preponderance in the council.

Sir Philip Francis also returned to Europe, and from that moment Mr. Hastings conducted the affairs of his government in a triumphant manner; for by his casting vote he nullified the propositions of Mr. Wheeler; and when Mr. Barwell afterwards acted as his colleague, this gentleman acceded to all his measures, and contributed every thing in his power to their success. On the other hand, the governor-general conducted the war against Hyder with extraordinary ability; the want of money was supplied by the resources of his own mind, fertile in invention; the company's revenues were increased under his administration, and his influence both in India and England seemed to be unbounded. At length, on the 9th of February, 1785, Mr. Hastings deemed it prudent to embark for Europe, and although fully conscious that he was returning to pass through the fiery ordeal of an impeachment, his mind appears to have been unmoved by the approaching contest.

On the 17th February, 1786, the official proceedings against Mr. Hastings commenced in the House of Commons; and the following articles may be con-

sidered as an outline of the charges when they assumed a tangible form:—

1. With exhibiting gross injustice, cruelty, and treachery, against the faith of nations, in hiring British soldiers for the purpose of extirpating the helpless people who inhabited Rohillacund.
2. With bereaving the Great Mogul of considerable territory, and withholding forcibly the tribute of twenty-six lacks of rupees for holding in his name the Duannee of the valuable provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa.
3. With extortion, followed by expulsion, in respect to the rajah of Benares.
4. With the numerous and insupportable hardships to which the royal family of Oude had been reduced.
5. With having by no less than six revolutions brought the fertile and beautiful province of Farruckabad to a state of the most deplorable ruin.
6. With impoverishing and depopulating the whole country of Oude, and rendering that country, which was once a garden, an uninhabited desert.
7. With a wanton, unjust, and pernicious exercise of his powers, and the great situation of trust which he occupied in India, by overturning the ancient establishments of the country, and extending an undue influence by conniving at extravagant contracts and appointing inordinate salaries.
8. With receiving money against the orders of the company, the act of parliament, and his own sacred engagements, and applying that money to purposes totally improper and unauthorized.
9. With having resigned by proxy for the obvious purpose of retaining his situation and denying the deed in person, in opposition to all those powers under which he acted.
10. With having conducted himself with treachery to Muzuffer Jung, who had been placed under his guardianship.
11. With enormous extravagance and bribery, with a view to enrich his dependants and favourites. All these charges were afterwards restricted to the four points connected with Benares, the Begums, the presents, and the contracts.

On May 1st Mr. Hastings was called to the bar of the House of Commons and read his defence, which occupied two whole days in the recitation. He commenced by observing, "that the grounds of crimination were ill founded, aspersive, and malicious; that the various publications of the times contained the most unwarrantable observations on his conduct, and that the press daily teemed with the most gross libels upon every part of his administration in India. He was obliged on the present occasion to reply to charges containing nothing specific; they might indeed be called historical narratives with voluminous commentaries. He had been in India from a schoolboy, and during a period of thirty-six years' servitude he had always the happiness to maintain a good and respectable character. By the evil machinations of a few individuals, men of notoriety, he now appeared in an unfortunate situation; but he chose to come forward on the occasion and meet his fate, rather than be subjected to the continual threats of a parliamentary prosecution. In respect to his public conduct he had ever acted according to the emergencies of the times, and he had been frequently reduced to such extremities as to defy the sanction of any precedent. No man had ever been in more perilous situations, and amidst his disasters he was entirely left to the resources of his own mind. He had resigned the government of India amidst the regret of his fellow-subjects; he had



repeatedly received the thanks of his employers, the directors of the East India Company; he had the satisfaction of discharging the trust reposed in him with unanimous approbation, and he believed that no other power on earth had a right to call his conduct in question."

After the trial had been continued for more than five years, Mr. Hastings entered on his defence before the House of Lords. It was of considerable length, and towards the conclusion the ex-governor-general of Bengal enumerated all his services in a most eloquent and affecting peroration. "During my last residence of thirteen years, while Great Britain lost one half of its empire, and doubled its public debt, the territories over which I presided were not only preserved entire, but increased in population, wealth, agriculture, and commerce. The form of government established for the provinces of Benares and Oude, with all its dependent branches of revenue, commerce, judicature, and military defence, was suggested and superintended by me, and still subsists unchanged; two great sources of revenue, opium and salt, were of my creation: in short, I maintained all the provinces under my immediate administration in a state of peace, plenty, and security, when every other member of the British empire was involved in external wars or civil tumult. In a dreadful season of famine I repressed it on its approach to the countries under the British dominion; and by timely and continued regulations prevented its return; and, lastly, I raised the collective annual revenue of the company's possessions, during my administration, from three to five millions sterling. I am arraigned in the name of the Commons of England for desolating the provinces of their dominion in India—I dare to reply, that they are the most flourishing of all the states of India; and it was I who made them so. The valour of others acquired, but it was I who enlarged and gave shape and consistency to your dominions. I maintained the wars which were of your formation, not mine. I dispelled a confederacy of the native powers. I neutralized their efforts, I divided their members. I gave you all, and you have rewarded me with confiscation, disgrace, and a life of impeachment."

At length, on Thursday, April 23rd, being the eighth year of the trial, sixteen distinct questions were separately put to the lords, who pronounced the prisoner "Not Guilty." On this the lord chancellor declared, "that a large majority of the lords then present having answered the sixteen questions then propounded to them in the negative, Warren Hastings, Esq., is acquitted of the articles of impeachment exhibited against him for high crimes and misdemeanours, and all things contained therein."

The remainder of Mr. Hastings's life was spent at Daylesford in adorning his grounds and improving his estate. Every field recalled to his mind the scenes of his boyish days, and produced pleasing and even delightful associations. Here it was that he consoled himself for the persecution of his enemies, the luke-warm attentions of his friends, and the utter neglect of his superiors. He indeed lived long enough to behold many of his plans realized through the agency of others; for the brilliant acquisitions of the marquises of Wellesley and Hastings are to be considered but as the early projects of a man whose gigantic ambition had grasped at the subjugation of all Asia. Mr. Hastings employed himself in his re-

tirement at Daylesford in literary pursuits, and he had nearly completed a work on India at the time of his death, which occurred August 22nd, 1818.

The subjoined autograph is copied from a letter written during his trial.

*Warren Hastings*

HATTON, SIR CHRISTOPHER.—This distinguished statesman was the son of a poor country gentleman, and while a member of the Inner Temple was accidentally introduced to the notice of Queen Elizabeth at a masqued-ball, where his graceful manners made a deep impression on her majesty. He was from this time in the way to preferment; from one of the queen's pensioners he became successively a gentleman of the privy chamber, captain of the guard, vice-chamberlain, and privy-counsellor, and by these unusual gradations he ultimately rose to the office of lord chancellor in 1587, when he was likewise elected a knight of the Garter. His insufficiency is said at first to have created strong prejudices among the lawyers against him, founded, perhaps, on some degree of envy at his sudden advancement without the accustomed studies; but his good natural capacity supplied the place of experience and study, and his decisions were not found deficient either in point of equity or judgment. In all matters of great moment he is said to have consulted Dr. Swale, a civilian. "His station," says one of his biographers, "was great, his despatches were quick and weighty, his orders many, yet all consistent, being very seldom reversed in chancery, and his advice opposed more seldom in council. He was so just that his sentence was a law to the subject, and so wise that his opinion was an oracle to the queen." When in 1586 Queen Elizabeth sent a new deputation to Queen Mary of Scotland, informing her that the plea of that unhappy princess, either from her royal dignity or from her imprisonment, could not be admitted, Sir Christopher Hatton was one of the number, along with Burleigh and Bromley the chancellor; and it was by Hatton's advice chiefly that Mary was persuaded to answer before the court, and thereby give an appearance of legal procedure to the trial. Sir Christopher did not enjoy his high office above four years, and died unmarried in September 1591 of a broken heart, as usually reported, owing to the stern perseverance with which Elizabeth had demanded an old debt which he was unable to pay.

HATSELL, JOHN.—This gentleman was for many years chief clerk of the House of Commons, and, while he held that office, published a "Collection of Precedents and Proceedings," and a collection of Cases. He died in 1820.

HAUKSBEE, FRANCIS, a clever English natural philosopher, who is best known for his discoveries in electricity. The date of his birth is not known, but his first published work, entitled "Physico-mechanical Experiments," appeared in 1709.

HAUY, RENE JUST, ABBE, a distinguished mineralogist, who was born in 1743, at St. Just, in the department of the Oise. He was at first chorister, then studied theology, and during twenty-one years

occupied the place of a professor, at first in the college of Navarra, and afterwards in that of the Cardinal Le Moine. He studied botany as a recreation, but his taste for mineralogy was awakened by the lectures of Daubenton. An accident led him to the formation of his system of crystallography. As he was examining the collection of minerals belonging to M. France de Croisset, he dropped a beautiful specimen of calcareous spar crystallized in prisms, which was broken by the fall. Haüy observed with astonishment that the fragments had the smooth regular form of the rhomboid crystals of Iceland spar. "I have found it all," he exclaimed; for at this moment he conceived the fundamental idea of his new system. He took the fragments home, and discovered the geometrical law of crystallization. He then studied geometry, and invented a method of measuring and describing the forms of crystals. He now for the first time ventured to communicate his discovery to his instructor Daubenton, who with Laplace could with difficulty persuade the modest Haüy to communicate his discovery to the academy, which in 1783 received him as adjunct in the class of botany. He now devoted himself wholly to his studies, so that he remained a stranger to the revolution with all its horrors until, having refused to take the oath of obedience to the constitution required of the priests, he was deprived of his place, and was arrested in the midst of his calculations as a recusant priest.

In the mean time one of his pupils, Geoffroi de St. Hilaire, afterwards member of the academy, exerted himself in favour of Haüy; and the remark of a tradesman, an officer of police in the quarter where Haüy lived, that "it was better to spare a recusant priest than put to death a quiet man of letters," saved his life. Geoffroi hastened to him with an order for his release. It was very late, and Haüy, occupied only with his researches, wished to remain in prison until the next day. Haüy continued his studies, and even ventured to write in favour of Lavoisier, who was then in prison, and of Borda and Delambre, who had been removed from their places. After the death of Daubenton the academy wished to name the modest Haüy his successor, but he recommended Dolomieu, who was imprisoned in Sicily in violation of the laws of nations; the latter however having died soon after his liberation, Haüy received his place from the first consul. The convention had already appointed him keeper of the mineralogical collections of the *école des mines*, and the directory had created him professor in the normal school, and secretary of the commissioners appointed to regulate weights and measures, the result of whose labours was the new decimal system, he was also made a member of the National Institute. Bonaparte appointed him professor of mineralogy in the museum of natural history, and afterwards professor in the academy of Paris. By his influence the study of mineralogy received a new impulse, the collections were increased fourfold and excellently arranged. He was a most obliging and instructive superintendent of this collection. In 1803, at the command of Napoleon, he wrote his "*Traité de Physique*" in six months. Being directed to ask some favour, he asked for a place for the husband of his niece. Napoleon granted his request, besides conferring on the modest *savant* a pension of 6000 francs. The esteem which the emperor had for this distinguished

man was the more honourable both to him and to Haüy, as the latter had never stooped to flattery, and had even opposed Bonaparte's elevation to the imperial dignity, by signing *non* when the question was proposed for the ratification of the nation. When the emperor, after his return from Elba, visited the museum, he said to Haüy, "I read your '*Physics*' again in Elba with the greatest interest;" he then decorated Haüy with the badges of the legion of honour. Haüy was in the habit of amusing himself by conversing with the pupils of the normal school who often visited at his house, and whom he always received and entertained with kindness. He was gentle, indulgent, and benevolent. Nothing could ruffle his quiet temper but objections to his system. Notwithstanding his feebleness he attained the age of nearly eighty years, and died in June 1822.

HAWES, STEPHEN, an early English poet, who wrote some short pieces about the middle of the fifteenth century. He held a lucrative post in the household of Henry VII. The "*Pastime of Pleasure*," by this author, was printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1517, and furnished a fine specimen of the typography of the period.

HAWES, WILLIAMS, an English physician, best known as the founder of the Royal Humane Society. He was born in 1736, and steadily pursued his medical career till the time of his death in 1808. He prepared the "*Transactions of the Humane Society from 1774 to 1784*."

HAWES, THOMAS, a theological writer, who was born at Truro in 1834. He was educated at Cambridge, and obtained the living of Aldwinkle in Northamptonshire. He was warmly patronised by the countess of Huntingdon, and is best known by his commentary on the Bible and "*History of the Church*." Mr. Hawes died in 1820.

HAWKE, EDWARD, LORD. — This distinguished naval commander was promoted to the rank of captain in 1734, and placed over a squadron in 1747. He was twice successfully engaged with the enemies' ships when they were very superior to his own in point of numbers, and for these services he was made vice-admiral of Great Britain. He was also called to the peerage, an honour he enjoyed but four years, dying in 1784.

HAWKER, ROBERT. — This laborious evangelical clergyman was for more than fifty years vicar of the parish of Charles the Martyr at Plymouth, where he died in 1827. Dr. Hawker published a commentary on the Bible, and a number of sermons and tracts which have had a prodigious circulation.

HAWKESWORTH, JOHN, a distinguished English essayist, who commenced his career as a watchmaker at Bromley. Disliking his employment, he was afterwards engaged as a law writer at a small salary, and occupied his leisure hours in preparing papers for the magazines. He was afterwards employed as compiler of the "*Parliamentary Debates*." The collection of essays entitled "*The Adventurer*" procured Hawkesworth the patronage of Archbishop Carteret, who made him LL.D. by virtue of his office. In 1773 he completed a general account of the "*Voyages of Discovery made in the Pacific*." He continued his literary labours to the time of his death, which occurred soon after.

Hawkesworth's most popular work remains to be noticed. It is entitled "*Amurath*," and is in some respects superior to "*Almorán and Hamet*." The



fable is very simple, and resembles much the style of the "Arabian Nights." The fiction of the ring is pleasing, and its powers are judiciously called into action. The gradations by which Amurath advances from a state of comparative innocence into that vice which finally degrades him from manhood and sends him as a monster into the desert, are perhaps too abrupt; but the tale is, on the other hand, too compressed to allow room for any more detailed exhibition of the gradual fall of nature from virtue into the most abandoned profligacy. Too much is not to be expected in these abridged moral portraits. The displeasure of the sultan at the vizier, who, being commanded to lay aside all ceremony and imagine his sovereign his equal, literally obeyed the command and indulged in the full liberty of friendship, is well imagined and well represented. The disgust which Amurath at length conceives at his ring, and his anxiety rather to be rid of his monitor than by correcting his irregularities to render it harmless, are equally natural and contain an equally good moral. It is another stroke of nature in this tale that the resentment of the sultan against Alibeg is but more violent in proportion to its injustice, and the bitterness of his reflections upon treating a faithful servant so unjustly only further exasperates him, and renders him more precipitate against his object. This is nature and the human mind. The manner in which Amurath finally throws away the admonitory ring, his soliloquy which accompanies this action, the appearance and the address of the Genius, and finally the transformation of Amurath into a satyr—in all these circumstances Dr. Hawkesworth seems so far to exceed himself that we find it almost difficult to persuade ourselves that this tale was the production of his own unassisted powers.

There are, however, many improprieties of conception in the tales of Hawkesworth that have seldom been adverted to, because they are, generally speaking, hedged round by moral and biblical apothegms. "We do not pretend," says a judicious critic, "to more delicacy of feeling than our neighbours, but we must say, that in looking over the stories of Hawkesworth we were a good deal surprised at the indelicate ground-work upon which almost the whole of them are constructed. It may be enough to remark, that the scene of many of his tales in "The Adventurer" is either an eastern seraglio or a London brothel. What can be more vile, for instance, than the conception of a virtuous wife personifying a strumpet for the purpose of detecting her husband's infidelity? Or what more loathsome than the story of Agamus, an old debauchee, who is brought to the brink of committing incest with his own daughter, and who, breaking down the sacred barrier of relationship, is made to send the Adventurer a minute history of her prostitution, *as narrated to him by her*? It is very well to tag a moral to such things, but we need not feel grateful to him who gives an antidote to his own poison; and although it may gain Dr. Hawkesworth the praise of good intention, it cannot prevent the purity of his taste from being questioned." A single example selected from the tale to which we have already alluded will serve as a pleasing specimen of his style:—

"Amurath, sultan of the East, the judge of nations, the disciple of adversity, records the wonders of his life: let those who presumptuously question

the ways of Providence blush in silence and be wise; let the proud be humble and obtain honour; and let the sensual reform and be happy. The Angel of Death closed the eyes of the sultan Abradin my father, and his empire descended to me in the eighteenth year of my age. At first my mind was awed to humility, and softened with grief; I was insensible to the splendour of dominion; I heard the addresses of flattery with disgust, and received the homage of dependent greatness with indifference. I had always regarded my father not only with love but reverence, and I was now perpetually recollecting instances of his tenderness, and reviewing the solemn scene in which he recommended me to Heaven in imperfect language, and grasped my hand in the agonies of death.

"One evening, after having concealed myself all day in his chamber, I visited his grave; I prostrated myself on his tomb; sorrow overflowed my eyes, and devotion kindled in my bosom. I felt myself suddenly smitten on the shoulder as with a rod; and looking up I perceived a man whose eyes were piercing as light and his beard whiter than snow. 'I am,' said he, 'the Genius Syndarac, the friend of thy father Abradin, who was the fear of his enemies, and the desire of his people; whose smile diffused gladness like the lustre of the morning, and whose frown was dreadful as the gathering of a tempest: resign thyself to my influence, and thou shalt be like him.' I bowed myself to the earth in token of gratitude and obedience, and he put a ring on the middle finger of my left hand, in which I perceived a ruby of a deep colour and uncommon brightness. 'This ring,' said he, 'shall mark out to thee the boundaries of good and evil, that without weighing remote consequences thou mayest know the nature and tendency of every action. Be attentive, therefore, to the silent admonition; and when the circle of gold shall by a sudden contraction press thy finger, and the ruby shall grow pale, desist immediately from what thou shalt be doing, and mark down that action in thy memory as a transgression of the rule of right: keep my gift as a pledge of happiness and honour, and take it not off for a moment.' I received the ring with a sense of obligation which I strove to express, and an astonishment that compelled me to be silent. The Genius perceived my confusion, and, turning from me with a smile of complacency, immediately disappeared.

"During the first moon I was so cautious and circumspect that the pleasure of reflecting that my ring had not once indicated a fault was lessened by a doubt of its virtue. I applied myself to public business; my melancholy decreased as my mind was diverted to other objects; and lest the youth of my court should think that recreation was too long suspended, I appointed to hunt the lion. But though I went out to the sport rather to gratify others than myself, yet my usual ardour returned in the field; I grew warm in the pursuit, I continued the chase, which was unsuccessful, too long, and returned fatigued and disappointed. As I entered the seraglio I was met by a little dog that had been my father's, who expressed his joy at my return by jumping round me and endeavouring to reach my hand; but as I was not disposed to receive his caresses, I struck him in the fretfulness of my displeasure so severe a blow with my foot that it left him scarce power to crawl away and hide himself under a sofa

in the corner of the apartment. At this moment I felt the ring press my finger, and looking upon the ruby I perceived the glow of its colour abated. I was at first struck with surprise and regret; but surprise and regret quickly gave way to disdain. 'Shall not the Sultan Amurath,' said I, 'to whom a thousand kings pay tribute, and in whose hand is the life of nations, shall not Amurath strike a dog that offends him without being reproached for having transgressed the rule of right?' My ring again pressed my finger, and the ruby became more pale; immediately the palace shook with a burst of thunder, and the Genius Syndarac again stood before me.

"Amurath," said he, 'thou hast offended against thy brother of the dust; a being who, like thee, has received from the Almighty a capacity of pleasure and pain; pleasure which caprice is not allowed to suspend, and pain which justice only has a right to inflict. If thou art justified by power in afflicting inferior beings, I should be justified in afflicting thee; but my power yet spares thee, because it is directed by the laws of sovereign goodness, and because thou mayest yet be reclaimed by admonition. But yield not to the impulse of quick resentment, nor indulge in cruelty the forwardness of disgust, lest by the laws of goodness I be compelled to afflict thee; for he that scorns reproof must be reformed by punishment or lost for ever.'"

HAWKINS, SIR JOHN, an able naval commander, who appears to have been one of the earliest English officers engaged in that most nefarious of all traffics—the barter and sale of human beings. He was born at Plymouth in 1520, and entered the sea service at a very early age. His three principal voyages are thus briefly described by an early naval chronicler:—"He departed from the coast of England in the month of October 1562, and sailed first to Teneriffe, where he took in several refreshments. From there he went to Sierra Leone, by the natives called Tegarín, on the coast of Guinea, where he made some stay, and during that time got into his possession, partly by the sword, and partly by other means, upwards of three hundred negroes, beside several commodities which that country affords. With this booty he set sail for Port Isabella in the island of Hispaniola, in the West Indies, where he found a good vent for his English commodities and some of his negroes, but was obliged to be on his guard against the treachery of the Spaniards. From Port Isabella he went to Puerto de Plata, where he likewise trafficked, but still in danger. Thence he sailed to Monte Christi, another port on the north side of Hispaniola, where he was allowed to traffic peaceably, and sold the rest of his negroes. He made so good a return that he not only loaded his three ships with hides, ginger, sugar, and a good quantity of pearls, but he freighted two hulks with hides and other commodities, which he sent to Spain. Having thus finished his commerce, he went out by the islands of the Caycos without entering farther into the Bay; and so, returning with good success and great advantage to himself and his co-partners, arrived in England, September 1563.

"He commenced his second voyage in the year 1564, and having met with so good success in his first undertaking, resolved upon a second voyage for the coast of Guinea, and from thence, with negroes, to the West Indies. For this voyage he had two ships and two barks; the *Jesus of Lubeck*, of

seven hundred tons; the *Solomon*, of one hundred and forty tons; the *Tiger*, of fifty; and the *Swallow*, of thirty tons. With these he departed on the 18th of October from Plymouth. The same day they met, about ten leagues out at sea, the *Minion*, one of the queen's ships, commanded by Captain David Carlot, and the John Baptist of London, who were likewise bound for Guinea; but the *Minion*, leaving the John Baptist in the company of Mr. Hawkins, went in search of the *Merlin* of London, who had been separated from them. The 21st they had a violent storm that continued for three and twenty hours, during which they lost the company of the John Baptist and the *Swallow*, and the other three ships received considerable damage. The 23rd they met with the *Swallow* again, ten leagues to the northward of Cape Finisterre. The wind continuing contrary, on the 25th they put into Ferrol, in Galicia, where they stayed five days. The 26th the *Minion* joined them there, having had the unhappiness to see the *Merlin* blow up and her hulk sunk, all that were in her being drowned excepting a very few whom they took up miserably burnt. The 30th they all set sail together; the 4th of November they had a sight of the island of Madeira; and the 6th, of Teneriffe. There they stayed till the 20th; and, then departing, arrived on the 25th at Cape Blanc on the coast of Africa. Here they took in several refreshments, particularly fish; and departing the 26th came the 29th to Cape Verd, in the latitude of fourteen degrees and a half. Here they proposed to have taken some negroes by force, but the *Minion's* crew betrayed their design and prevented them. They therefore departed on the 7th of December, and came the next day to the island of Alcatrarga. Here the two ships rode at anchor while the two barks went to the island of the *Sapies*, called *La Formio*, where they landed with eighty men in armour, thinking to take some negroes, but they were too nimble for them.

"The 14th they came to the island of *Sambula*, where they staid several days, and took every day some of the inhabitants, burning and ravaging their towns. The 21st, having their negroes on board, and being furnished with what provisions they wanted in great plenty, they set sail and arrived the next day at the River of *Callowsa*, at the mouth of which the two ships came to anchor, while the two barks, with the John's pinnace, and the *Solomon's* boat, went up the river, and returned with two caravels loaded with negroes.

"The 27th, the Portuguese having informed them of a town of negroes called *Bymbo*, where they said they would find a great quantity of gold if they would hazard the attack, Hawkins resolved to try his fortune; but by the carelessness and avarice of the men, who separated, every man his own way, in search of booty, they only brought off ten negroes, with the loss of seven of their best men (among whom was Mr. Field, the captain of the *Solomon*) and twenty-seven men wounded. The 28th they returned to their ships, where, in the mean time, four men had been killed, and one wounded, by sharks; and on the 30th they departed for Taggarin.

"The first of January, 1565, the barks and boats went into a river called *Casserroes*, and having despatched their business on the 6th, returned to their ships, which were at anchor at Taggarin. They continued on the coast till the 29th, and then, hav-



ing completed their number of negroes, set sail for the West Indies. Being becalmed at sea for eighteen days, they did not arrive at the island of Dominico till the 9th of March, when they were reduced to the very brink of despair for want of water; and then, with great danger of being cut off by the cannibals, only got some rain water, which drained from the hills and lay in puddles in the dales. They departed the 10th, the 15th had a sight of the Testigoes, and the 16th arrived at the island of Margarita, where they were kindly entertained by the alcade, who furnished them with bullocks and sheep, but the governor not only refused them the liberty of trafficking there, and denied them a pilot whom they had actually hired, but sent a caravela to inform the governor of St. Domingo of their arrival, who thereupon sent a command to the Spaniards all along the coast to have no dealings with the English.

"Hawkins, finding there would be no traffic for him here, departed on the 20th, and came on the 22nd to a place on the continent, called Santa Fe, where they found excellent watering and some other refreshments. From hence they departed on the 25th, and the next day passed between the continent and the island of Tortuga. They kept along the coast till, on the 3rd of April, they came to a town called Burboroata. Here Hawkins was obliged to ride at anchor and solicit fourteen days for liberty of traffic; and when he at last obtained this freedom, it was clogged with an article of such extravagant duty to the king of Spain as would more than have eat up the profit. Finding, therefore, that nothing was to be done by fair means, on the 16th he landed a hundred men well armed, and marched directly up to the town. By this means he brought the Spaniards to reason, who afterwards suffered him to traffic peaceably, and upon paying a moderate duty.

"The year 1567 Captain John Hawkins (or as Camden calls him Mr. John Hawkins, afterwards Sir John Hawkins, a merchant) undertook a third voyage to Guinea and the West Indies.

"He went himself as captain-general in the ship *Jesus of Lubeck*, one of the Queen's ships, of seven hundred tons, which had been his admiral-ship in the foregoing voyage. Besides this he had five other ships under his command; the *Minion*, Captain John Hampton; the *William and John*, Captain Thomas Bolton; the *Judith*, Captain Francis Drake; together with the *Angel* and the *Swallow*. He set sail the 2nd of October from Plymouth, and had tolerable weather for five days; but, being then forty leagues north of Cape Finisterre, they had so violent a storm for four days, that the ships were separated, all their boats lost, and the *Jesus* almost disabled for the voyage. But the storm ceasing on the 11th, they pursued their course. On the coast of Guinea they took in, after great difficulties and the loss of many of their men, about five hundred negro slaves, and sailed with them to the islands of the Spanish West Indies, departing from Guinea the 3d of February 1568, to sell them to the Spaniards, as he had a right to do by virtue of a treaty yet subsisting between Charles V. and Henry VIII."

In 1573 Sir John Hawkins was appointed treasurer of the navy, which office he held till the time of his death in 1595.

**HAWKINS, SIR JOHN.**—This individual was the son of an eminent surveyor and builder, and born in 1719. After having passed through the usual

course of school education, he was placed under the care of Mr. Hoppus, for the purpose of being brought up to his father's business. This, however, having been found contrary to the general bent of his inclination, he was afterwards articled as a clerk with an attorney. In this situation, by abridging himself of rest at night and rising every morning at four o'clock, he not only found an opportunity for reading all the most eminent law-writers, but also the works of the most celebrated authors both in verse and prose. In 1742 he published, in conjunction with a Mr. Stanley, six cantatas for vocal and instrumental music, the words of which were furnished by him and the music by Mr. Stanley. These succeeding beyond their most sanguine expectations, a second set was published a few months afterwards, which succeeded equally well. On the death of his wife's brother in 1759, having received a large addition to his fortune, he retired from business and bought a house at Twickenham; and two years afterwards his name having been inserted in the commission of the peace for the county of Middlesex, he became a most active and useful magistrate. Mr. Hawkins's love of music induced him to form a collection of the works of the best composers, and among other acquisitions he had the good fortune to become possessed of several most scarce and valuable theoretical treatises on the science, which had formerly been collected by Dr. Pepusch. With the knowledge which he acquired from these books he was requested by several eminent musical men to set about the preparation of materials for a work then much wanted, the "*History of the Science and Practice of Music.*" After sixteen years' labour he, in 1776, published in five quarto volumes his history, which he dedicated to the king. Few works have been attacked with more acrimony and virulence than this. Its merit, however, as containing much original and curious information, which, but for its author, must have forever perished, has been amply attested by the approbation of some of the first judges of science and literature. The university of Oxford, in consequence of its publication, offered to him an honorary degree of doctor of laws as indicative of their opinion of the value of his book. This honour, however, he declined.

From a long and very intimate acquaintance with Dr. Johnson, and, as it is generally believed, in consequence of a conversation that passed between them on the subject, Sir John Hawkins, at his death, undertook to write a life of the doctor, which he afterwards published. Scarcely three months after the commencement of this undertaking he sustained a most severe loss in the destruction of his library by fire. This catastrophe for a short time put a stop to the progress of his undertaking, but he recommenced his office of biographer to Johnson and editor of his works, which he completed and published, in 1787, in eleven volumes octavo.

With this production he terminated his literary labours; and having for several years been accustomed to pass all his leisure time in theological and devotional studies, he now still more closely attended to them in order to prepare himself for that event, which in the common course of nature he knew could not be at a great distance. On the 14th of May, 1789, he was seized with a paralytic affection, under the effects of which he lingered until the 21st of the same month, when he expired.

HAWKWOOD, SIR JOHN.—This distinguished English warrior was born at the commencement of the fourteenth century. At about thirteen years of age he was placed apprentice to a tailor in London, "but soon," says Fuller, "turned his needle into a sword and his thimble into a shield," being pressed into the service of Edward III. for his French wars, where he acted so bravely, that from a common soldier he was promoted to the rank of captain, and for some farther good service had the honour of knighthood conferred on him by that king, though he was



at that period the poorest knight in the army. His general, the black prince, highly esteemed him for his valour and conduct, of which he gave extraordinary proofs at the battle of Poitiers. Upon the conclusion of the peace between the English and French, by the treaty of Bretagne in 1360, Sir John, finding his estate too small to support his title and dignity, associated himself with one of the "Free Companies." These were formed by persons of various nations, who, having hitherto found employment in the wars between England and France, and having held governments, or built and fortified houses in the latter kingdom, which they were now obliged to give up, found themselves, reduced to this desperate method of supporting themselves and their soldiers by marauding and pillaging, or by engaging in the service of less states, which happened to be at war with each other. Villani indeed charges Edward III. with secretly authorizing these ravages in France, while outwardly he affected a strict observance of the peace. "At this time, in the summer," continues this historian, "an English tailor, named John della Guglea, that is, John of the needle, who had distinguished himself in the war, began to form a company of marauders, and collected a number of English who delighted in mischief and hoped to live by plunder, surprising and pillaging first one town and then another. This company increased so much that they became the terror of the whole country. All who had not fortified places to defend them were forced to treat with him, and furnish him with provision and money, for which he promised them his protection. The effect of this was, that in a few months he acquired great wealth. Having also received an acces-

sion of followers and power, he roved from one country to another, till at length he came to the Po. The court of Rome was much alarmed at these proceedings, and made preparations to oppose these banditti; but on the arrival of some Englishmen on the banks of the Po, Hawkwood resigned his command to them, and professed submission to the king of England, to whose servants he presented a large share of his wealth." Hawkwood entered the Pisan service in 1364, after which period he fought, as different occasions presented themselves, in the service of many of the Italian states. In 1387 we find him engaged in a hazardous service in defence of the state of Florence. The earl of Armagnac, the Florentine general, having been lately defeated by Venni, the governor of the Siennese, the victors marched to surprise Hawkwood, and encamped within a mile and a half of him. But this cautious general retreated into the Cremonese; and when by several skirmishes he had amused the enemy, who kept within a mile of him and thought to force his camp, he sallied out and repulsed them with loss. This success a little discouraged them. Venni is said to have sent Hawkwood a fox in a cage, alluding to his situation; to which Hawkwood returned for answer, "the fox knew how to find his way out." This he did by retreating to the river Oglio, placing his best horse in the rear till the enemy had crossed the river, on whose opposite bank he placed 400 English archers on horseback. The rear by their assistance crossed the river and followed the rest, who, after fording the Mincio, encamped within ten miles of the Adige. The greatest danger remained here. The enemy had broken down the banks of the river and let out its waters, swollen by the melting of the snow and mountains to overflow the plains. Hawkwood's troops, surprised at midnight by the increasing floods, had no resource but immediately to mount their horses, and leaving all their baggage behind them, marched in the morning slowly through the water. By evening, with great difficulty, they gained Baldo, a town in the Paduan. The pursuers, seeing the country under water, and concluding the whole army had perished, returned back. The historian observes, that it was universally agreed no other general could have got over so many difficulties and dangers, and led back his small army out of the heart of the enemy's country, with no other loss than that occasioned by the floods, which no precaution could have prevented. One of the most celebrated actions of Hawkwood's life, says Muratori, was this retreat performed with so much prudence and art that he deserves to be paralleled with the most illustrious Roman generals; having, to the disgrace of an enemy infinitely superior in number, and, in spite of all obstructions from the rivers, eluded the vigilance of his foes, and brought off his army safe to Castel Baldo on the borders of Padua. At the end of 1391 the Florentines made peace with Galeazzo, though on disadvantageous terms; and to reduce the expences of the state, they discharged all their foreign auxiliaries except Hawkwood, of whose valour and fidelity they had had such repeated proofs, with one thousand men under his command. At the close of the year 1393 the Florentines sustained a great loss in Sir John Hawkwood, who died at an advanced age at his house near Florence, and his funeral was celebrated with great magnificence.

HAY, WILLIAM, a miscellaneous writer of some



celebrity in the last century. He was educated at Oxford, and was chosen a member for the borough of Seaford in 1734. His principal work is entitled "Religio Philosophi," and he translated several works from the Latin. His works were published collectively by his daughter in 1794.

**HAYDN, FRANCIS JOSEPH.**—This celebrated musical composer was born in March 1732 at Rohrau, a small town about fifteen leagues from Vienna. His father was a wheelwright, and besides his trade was the parish sexton. He had a fine tenor voice, and liked music in general, but was particularly fond of the organ. During one of those excursions which are often undertaken by German artisans, being at Frankfort on the Maine, he learnt to accompany himself a little on the harp; and on holydays, after the service of the church, he always amused himself with this instrument while his wife sang. Young Haydn's birth did not in the least change the peaceable habits of this family. The little concert was renewed every week, and the child placing himself before his parents with two pieces of wood in his hands, one for a violin and the other for a bow, accompanied his mother's voice. Haydn, full of years and covered with glory, would frequently call to mind the simple airs she sung, so deeply were these little melodies impressed on his soul! A schoolmaster of Haimburg, of the name of Frank, was present during the performance of one of these family trios; when he noticed that the child, then not six years old, beat time with the utmost correctness and precision. Frank understood music and begged his relations to allow him to take little Joseph back to Haimburg with him and attend to his education. They accepted the proposition with delight, in the hopes of getting Joseph more easily into holy orders.

Frank, who, to repeat Haydn's own words, treated his young cousin with more blows than bonbons, soon taught him to play not only the violin and other instruments, but also to sing in a style that ere long made him known throughout the canton. Chance brought to Frank's house Reuter, the chapel-master of St. Stephen's cathedral at Vienna, who was searching for additional voices for his choir; the schoolmaster immediately introduced his little relation to him, when Reuter gave him a canon to sing at first sight. The precision, distinctness of tone, and fire, with which it was performed by the child, astonished Reuter; but, above all, he was enchanted with the beauty of the boy's voice. He remarked, however, that he did not shake, and on asking him, smilingly, the reason, the child replied with quickness, "How should I know how to shake when my cousin himself does not?" "Come to me," said Reuter to him, "and I will teach you." He took him on his knees, showed him how to make two sounds succeed each other quickly, by holding his breath and agitating the top of the pallet. The child succeeded immediately. Reuter, delighted with the success of his little pupil, took a plate of fine cherries, and emptied them into the boy's pocket. Haydn often mentioned this little incident in after life, and added, laughing, that whenever he made a shake he fancied he still saw the fine cherries. It may easily be concluded that Reuter determined on not returning alone to Vienna, but took young Haydn, then about eight years old, with him. Haydn has said that, dating from this time, a single day never passed at Reuter's without his having practised six-

teen, and sometimes eighteen hours. This is especially remarkable, because, whilst at St. Stephen's he was almost entirely his own master, the children of the choir being only obliged to practise two hours a day.

With less precocity of genius than Mozart, who, when only thirteen years old, wrote a much admired opera, Haydn, at the same age, tried to compose a mass, which was, not without some reason, ridiculed by Reuter, to the great astonishment at first of the young musician; his good sense, however, even at that early age, soon convinced him of the justice of its condemnation. He now began to perceive that a knowledge of counterpoint and of the rules of harmony was requisite; but how was he to learn them? Reuter did not instruct the children of the choir in composition, and never gave more than two lessons in it to Haydn. Mozart had an excellent master in his father, who was a good violin player. But poor Haydn was less fortunate, being only a discarded chorister at Vienna, who must pay for any lessons he received, and who had not a fund to apply to that purpose; for his father, although he had two trades, was so poor that Joseph having once had his clothes stolen, and having informed his father of the circumstance, sent him six florins towards refitting his wardrobe. Of course no master in Vienna would give lessons gratis to a little unpatronised chorister; his situation was therefore truly embarrassing. He persevered, however, and in the first place, like Jean Jacques Rousseau, he purchased, at a second-hand shop, some old books on the theory of music, among others the treatise by Fux, which he began to study with a degree of assiduity not to be checked even by the tremendous abstruseness of Fux's rules. Alone, and without a master, he laboured on, and made a number of little discoveries which were subsequently useful to him. Poor, freezing with cold in his garret, without fire, and overcome with sleep, he studied on by the side of his old broken harpsichord, and thought himself happy. Thus days and nights flew rapidly by, and he has frequently been heard to say, that he never in after-life experienced so much felicity. Haydn's predominant passion was rather the love of music than the love of fame; and yet his aspirations after fame had not a tinge of ambition in them. He sought more to please himself in composing music than to acquire celebrity.

It was not of Porpora that Haydn learnt recitative, as has been represented; his recitatives, so inferior to those of the inventor of this kind of music, prove this; but he acquired through Porpora the true Italian style of singing, and the art of accompanying on the piano-forte, which, to do well, is more difficult than is commonly imagined.

At the age of nineteen his voice broke, and he was obliged to leave his situation in the class of *soprani* at St. Stephen's, or rather he was expelled from it. One day, in a lively frolic, he took it into his head to cut off the tail of one of his companions' gowns, a crime which was judged unpardonable. He had sung eleven years at St. Stephen's, and the day he left it his only fortune was his rising talent,—a poor resource indeed till it becomes known. He had, however, one admirer. Forced to seek a lodging, by chance he met with a wig-maker, named Keller, who had often noticed and been delighted with the beauty of his voice at the cathedral, and now offered him an asylum. This Haydn most gladly accepted,

and Keller received him as a son, insisted upon his participation of their frugal repast, and entrusted to his wife the care of the young man's wardrobe.

Haydn finding himself thus established in the house of the wig-maker, and exempt from all pecuniary cares, pursued his studies without interruption, and made rapid progress. His residence here had, however, a fatal influence on his after-life. The Germans have a mania for marriage; and indeed, among a gentle, affectionate, and retiring people, domestic happiness is necessarily a principal object. Keller had two daughters; his wife and himself soon began to think of uniting the young musician to one of them, and even ventured to name the subject to Haydn; who, completely engrossed in his studies, had no thoughts to bestow on love, but made no objection to the proposal. He afterwards kept his word with that scrupulous honour which was his greatest characteristic, and this union proved far from happy. He now began to think of procuring money by some of his compositions, and his first productions were some little sonatas for the piano, which he sold at a moderate price to the few scholars whom he had been able to meet with; also some minuets, allemandes, and waltzes for the ridotto. He then wrote for his amusement a serenade for three voices, which, with two of his friends, he used to perform on fine nights in the streets of Vienna. A celebrated buffoon named Curtz, commonly called Bernardone, was then director of the theatre of Carinthia, and afforded much entertainment to the public by his jokes. Crowds were attracted to the theatre by his originality, and by his good buffa operas. Curtz was so struck with the originality of this music, that he came into the street to enquire who was the composer. "I," answered Haydn, confidently. "How! you, at your age?" "Every one must have a beginning." "Well! this is singular enough; come in with me." Haydn followed the harlequin, was introduced to his wife, and took his leave with the poem of an opera entitled "The Devil on Two Sticks," to which he was to compose the music. It was finished in a few days, was received with applause, and Haydn received twenty-four sequins (12*l.*) for it. But a nobleman who had no beauty to boast, discovering that he was alluded to under the name of "The Devil on Two Sticks," had the piece prohibited.

In the composition of this opera Haydn often said, that it cost him more trouble to find out a way to represent the movement of the waves in a tempest than it afterwards did to write a difficult fugue. Curtz, who had much mind and taste, was very difficult to please about this tempest, and neither he nor Haydn had ever seen either the sea or a storm. How then could they describe either one or the other? Curtz, in the greatest agitation, walked to and fro, and round and round the composer, who was seated at his piano. "Imagine," said he to him, "a high mountain, and then a valley, then another mountain, and then another valley; these mountains and valleys following each other rapidly, alps and abysses alternately succeeding." This fine description had no effect. In vain did Curtz add to it thunder and lightning: "Come," he incessantly repeated, "now, Haydn, describe all these horrors distinctly in music, but especially the mountains and valleys." Haydn ran his fingers rapidly over the keys, then across the semitones, was prodigal of sevenths, and modulated

in an instant from sharp to flat; still Bernardone was not satisfied. At last, the young musician, completely out of patience, extended his hands to the two extremities of the instrument, and drawing them quickly together over the whole keys, exclaimed, "The devil take the tempest!" "That's it! that's it!" cried Bernardone, throwing himself on his neck, and almost smothering him with his embraces. Haydn added, that, passing some years afterwards the straits of Calais in bad weather, he could not help laughing the whole time at the remembrance of the tempest in "The Devil on Two Sticks."

About a year after the production of the "Devil on Two Sticks," Haydn entered on his proper career, presenting himself in the lists as composer of six trios. The singularity of the style, and the novelty of this description of music, gave these pieces an immediate celebrity; but the grave German musicians warmly attacked the dangerous innovations in them, and especially the members of the musical academy, a sort of club of amateurs who were patronised by the emperor Charles VI., himself one of the most ardent dilettanti of his capital. We may here take the opportunity of stating that, before Haydn no one had an idea of an orchestra composed of eighteen sorts of instruments. Other improvements of Haydn were, the obliging the wind instruments to execute *pianissimo*, also the extension of the scale into the heights of *altissimo*. It was about the age of twenty that he produced his first quartett in B flat, which all the musical amateurs soon learnt by heart. About this time he quitted the house of his friend Keller, for what cause is not known; but it is certain that his talents, though they had already spread his fame, had not yet raised him from indigence. He was now offered board and lodging by a Mr. Martinez, on condition of giving lessons on the piano and in singing to his two daughters. It is a singular circumstance that two apartments in the same house then contained the first poet of the age and the greatest symphonist in the world, as Metastasio likewise lodged at the residence of Mr. Martinez. The poet, however, being in the employ of the emperor Charles VI., lived comfortable at least, while poor Haydn remained in bed most of the days of winter for want of fuel.

For six long years Haydn endured this conflict against penury, which has been the usual concomitant in the early part of the career of most young artists who have attained to celebrity. If at that time he had been patronised by some men of distinction, and sent into Italy for two years with a pension of a hundred louis, nothing would perhaps have been wanting to the perfection of his talent; but he had not, like Metastasio, his "Gravina." At length an opportunity presented itself of improving his circumstances, and he quitted the house of Martinez, entering into the employment of Count Mortzin in 1758. This nobleman gave evening musical parties, and had a private orchestra in his play-house. By chance the old Prince Esterhazy, a passionate amateur of music, was present at one of these concerts, which commenced with Haydn's symphony in A  $\frac{3}{4}$  time. The delight of the prince at this piece was unbounded; and he immediately begged Count Mortzin to allow him to receive Haydn into his own orchestra, of which he proposed making him sub-director. Mortzin consented. The author had been prevented that day by indisposition from attending the concert; and as



the will of princes, if not instantly complied with is liable to change, or to be forgotten, many months elapsed before Haydn, who of course was extremely anxious to enter into the service of the first nobleman in Europe, heard any thing more on the subject.

A means of recalling the young artist to the mind of the prince was eagerly sought by Friedberg, a composer attached to his highness; and he conceived the idea of making him compose a symphony to be performed at Eisenstadt, the residence of Prince Antony, on his birthday. The composition was completed, and was worthy of its author. On the day of the ceremony the prince, surrounded by his suite, and seated on his throne, was present as usual at the concert. Haydn's symphony began, but scarcely was the first allegro half over, than the prince, interrupting the performers, asked whose was that fine composition? "Haydn's," replied Friedberg; and poor Haydn, trembling from head to foot, was made to advance. The prince on seeing him, exclaimed, "What! is that the music of this little Moor?" (It must be owned Haydn's complexion justified the appellation.) "Well, Moor, henceforth I retain you in my service. What is your name?" "Joseph Haydn." "Why, I remember that name; I had already engaged you; why have I not seen you before?" Haydn, awed by the cortège which surrounded the prince, made no answer. "Go," added the prince, and dress yourself as my chapel-master; I command you never to appear again in my presence as you are now. You are too little, and have a pitiful looking face. Get a new coat, a curled wig, a collar, and red-heeled shoes; but, above all, they must be high, that your stature may agree with your mind. You understand; go, and every thing requisite shall be given you."

Haydn kissed the hand of the prince, and went and placed himself in a corner of the orchestra, rather unhappy at being obliged to give up wearing his own hair, and to disguise his youthful figure. The day following he appeared at the prince's levee in the grave dress which had been appointed to him. He was nominated second professor of music, but always retained among his new companions the name of "the Moor."

In consequence of the death of Prince Antony, which took place a year afterwards, the title descended to Prince Nicolas, a yet more enthusiastic amateur, if possible, of music than the former. Haydn was now obliged to compose a great number of pieces for the baryton, a very complex instrument not now in use. It was, however, the favourite of this prince, who performed on it himself, and every day desired to have a new piece for it on his desk. Most of Haydn's compositions for the baryton were accidentally burnt; those that remain are useless. Haydn said, that the obligation he was under to compose so much for this instrument improved him considerably.

An event occurred about this period which for some time disturbed the tranquillity of Haydn's life. As soon as he had obtained the means of subsistence, he did not forget to fulfil his promise to his old friend Keller, of marrying his daughter Anne; but he soon found that she was a prude, who had, in addition to her tiresome parade of virtue, a mania for priests and monks. The house of our poor composer was thus constantly beset by them, and he was himself incessantly annoyed and interrupted in his studies by their clamorous conversation. Added to all this he

was under the necessity, as the only means of living at all on good terms with his wife, of composing, gratis, masses and motets for the convents of those good fathers; but such an employment, imposed on him by her troublesome importunities, could not but be extremely disagreeable to a man whose productions were from the impulse of his own mind.

Attached to the service of a patron immensely rich and passionately fond of music, Haydn now enjoyed in the family of Prince Esterhazy that happy union of circumstances where every thing concurred to give opportunity for the display of his genius. From this period his life was uniform and devoted to study. He rose early in the morning, dressed with extreme neatness, and seated himself at a little table by the side of his piano, where the dinner usually still found him. In the evening he went to the rehearsals, or to the opera, which took place four times a week at the palace of the prince.

Haydn produced in the space of fifty years 527 instrumental compositions without ever copying himself, at least, intentionally. Leonardo da Vinci always carried about with him a little book, in which he sketched the singular faces he met with. In the same way Haydn also carefully noted down in a pocket-book the ideas and passages which occurred to him.

It has been remarked, that no man ever understood the various effects of colours, their relations and the contrasts that they may form, so well as Titian. So Haydn had the most perfect acquaintance with all the instruments of which his orchestra was composed. No sooner did his imagination furnish him with a passage, a chord, or a simple idea, than immediately he saw by what instrument it ought to be executed to produce the most agreeable and most sonorous effect. Had he any doubts on this subject when composing a symphony, the situation which he occupied while at Eisenstadt afforded him the easiest means of clearing them. He assembled the musicians and had a rehearsal—he made them execute in two or three different ways the passage he had in his head, selected which he preferred, then sent away the musicians, and continued his work. We often meet with singular modulations in Haydn's compositions, but he felt that what is extravagant draws the attention too much from the beautiful. He never attempted any extraordinary change without having first prepared the ear by degrees for it by the preceding chords; and thus, when it occurs it does not shock the ear by the suddenness of the transition. He said that he had borrowed the idea of many of his modulations from the works of Bach, and that Bach himself brought them from Rome.

Haydn had some particular and singular rules for composition which he never would divulge to any one. It is well known that the ancient Greek sculptors had certain invariable rules of beauty, called *canons*. These rules are lost, and their existence is buried in profound obscurity. Haydn, it seems, had discovered something of the same nature in music. The composer Weigl begged him one day to instruct him in these rules, and could obtain nothing more from Haydn than this reply, "Try and find them out."

Haydn, when asked to which of his works he gave the preference, replied, "The Seven Words." The following is an explanation of the title. A service called the "Entierro" (funeral of the Redeemer) was

celebrated at Madrid about seventy years ago. The serious and religious feeling of the Spaniards invested this ceremony with amazing pomp and magnificence. The seven words uttered by Jesus on the cross were successively explained by the bishop from the pulpit, the intervening time between each exposition being filled up by music worthy of the sublimity of the subject. This sacred performance was circulated, by order of the directors, throughout Europe; and a considerable reward was offered to any composer who would write seven grand symphonies, expressive of the sentiments which the seven words of the Saviour were calculated to inspire. Haydn alone made the attempt, and produced those symphonies which are very generally considered to be the finest of his compositions. Fully to enter into their spirit, however, they must be heard with the feelings of a Christian. Michael Haydn, the brother of our composer, afterwards added words and an air to this sublime instrumental music, and, without altering it in any respect, rendered it an accompaniment. Some of Haydn's symphonies were composed for holidays, and even in the religious feeling which they express the characteristic vivacity of Haydn is discernible; and in some parts there are movements of anger, which are probably meant to designate the feelings of the Jews and Hebrews crucifying their Saviour.

Of all Haydn's comic pieces the only one extant is that well-known symphony in which all his instruments cease successively, one after the other, so that at the conclusion the violin is left to perform alone.

Haydn worked incessantly, but with difficulty, which in him could not possibly arise from any deficiency of ideas, but his taste was not easily satisfied. A symphony cost him a month's labour, a mass almost double that time. His rough copies are filled with different passages, and for one symphony sufficient ideas are noted down for three or four. Haydn himself has said that his greatest happiness was study. "Solitary and sedate as Newton, and wearing the ring given him by the great Frederick, Haydn would seat himself at his piano, when, in a few moments, his imagination soared among the angelic choirs." Nothing disturbed him at Eisenstadt; he lived solely for his art, exempt from any earthly cares; and this uniform and peaceable life, devoted to the occupation most pleasing to himself, continued till the death of the prince Nicolas, his patron, in 1789.

At one time he was requested by the principal managers of the theatres of Naples, Milan, Lisbon, Venice, London, &c., to compose operas for them. But the love of peaceful retirement, his attachment to the prince and to his own methodical habits, retained him in Hungary, and were even more powerful than his wish to pass the mountains. It is probable, had not Mademoiselle Boselli died, he would never have quitted Eisenstadt; but he then began to feel a void in his life. He had sent a refusal to the directors of the *concert spirituel* at Paris, but since his favourite no longer existed he accepted the proposals of Salomon, who was then giving concerts in London, and who thought that a man of such genius as Haydn being on the spot, and composing expressly for his concerts, would certainly make them fashionable. He gave twenty concerts a year, and offered Haydn fifty pounds for each one;

and accordingly he set out for London in 1790, when in the fifty-ninth year of his age. He remained there rather more than a year, and the music he composed for these concerts met with universal approbation. His amiable manners, in addition to his genius, rendered his success amongst us highly flattering to his feelings.

In 1794 Haydn again visited London, when he was engaged by Gallini, manager of the King's Theatre, Haymarket, to compose an opera which should be got up in the most splendid manner. The subject was the descent of Orpheus into hell. Haydn began the work, but some difficulties having arisen as to the opening of the theatre, the composer, who secretly regretted his peaceful home, could not wait till the permission to do so was obtained, and quitted London with eleven pieces of his "Orpheus," which, it is said, are the best of his theatrical compositions. He then returned to Austria, and never afterwards left it.

George III., who was fond of no music but Handel's, still highly appreciated that of Haydn, and the German professor met with the most flattering reception from him and the queen. Haydn had further the honorary degree of doctor of music conferred on him by the university of Oxford—an honour which Handel himself had never obtained, and which had been bestowed on only four persons since the year 1400.

Haydn left London delighted with Handel's music, and in passing through Germany, on his return, gave several concerts, which increased his little fortune considerably. He received little in money from the family of Prince Esterhazy, but the respect he ever met with from the members of that noble house was infinitely more grateful to a man of Haydn's disposition than any pecuniary advantages would have been. He was admitted at all times to the prince's table, and was always presented by his highness with a court dress, when he gave a uniform to his orchestra. Haydn brought no more with him from London than one thousand pounds, but some years subsequently he obtained the additional sum of 1000*l.* from the sale of the scores of the "Creation" and the "Four Seasons," with which he bought a small house and garden in the faubourg of Gumpendorff, near Schonbrunn. Here he received a very flattering letter from the French Institute nominating him one of their members. As Haydn perused this letter he melted into tears, and never afterwards alluded to it without expressing a feeling of gratitude; in fact, the letter was expressed in that dignified and elegant style of compliment peculiar to the French nation. Haydn, who had early discovered the barrenness of ancient sacred music, the profane luxuriousness of the modern Italian masses, and the monotonous and insipid style of the German hymns, felt that to compose sacred music as it really should be he must work on a system altogether different: he borrowed, therefore, few ideas from dramatic music, but preserved by the solidity of the harmony some resemblance to the fine and solemn airs of the ancient school, sustaining, by the richness of his orchestra, melodies, solemn, tender, and at the same time dignified and brilliant; he even permitted, in his sacred airs, occasional graces and ornaments which happily relieve from time to time the general loftiness and magnificence of his sacred style.



It was in 1795 that Haydn, then sixty-three years of age, undertook his great work of the "Creation;" he laboured at it two whole years. When any one hastened him in the work, he replied with tranquillity, "I am long about it, for I wish it to last long." At the commencement of the year 1798 the oratorio was finished, and the following Easter was performed for the first time in the room of the Schwartzenburg palace, at the expense of the Dilettanti Society, who had purchased it of the author. The enthusiasm, delight, and applause expressed at this first performance can scarcely be depicted,—every thing united to render it more imposing. The choicest society of men of letters and amateurs of music filled the saloon, which was in every way perfectly adapted for music; Haydn himself led the orchestra. The most profound silence, and an almost universal feeling of devotion and respect, reigned throughout the assembly as the first chords resounded from the instruments. Expectation was not deceived. A rapid succession of hitherto unknown beauties unfolded themselves to the ear, overcame every hearer, and all agreed they had felt for two successive hours a delight scarcely possible to analyze, produced by excited desires, ever renewed and ever satisfied.

The "Creation" met with rapid success: at that time every German paper was filled with eulogiums on this great effort of genius and the astonishing effect it had produced in Vienna, and the score which appeared a few weeks subsequently satisfied all amateurs of music as to the correctness of this statement. The wonderful sale of this score augmented by some hundred louis the limited income of the author. The librarian had set both German and English words to the oratorio, which were afterwards translated into the Swedish, French, Spanish, Bohemian, and Italian languages.

Haydn's musical career finished with "The Four Seasons." Old age and the labour which this work had cost him exhausted his strength. "I have done," he said some time after he had completed this oratorio, "my head is no longer what it has been. Formerly ideas came to me unsought, now I am obliged to seek them, and I am not equal to this."

From this time he never left his villa at Gampendorff. When he wished to remind his friends that he was still living, he sent them a visiting card with some notes of his own composition on it.

About this time it was determined that the "Creation" should be performed with the Italian words of Carpinì, and a hundred and sixty musicians met for this purpose at the palace of Prince Lobkowitz. They were greatly assisted by the beautiful voices of Madame Friescher of Berlin, Messrs. Weitmüller and Radichì. More than fifteen hundred people were present. The poor old man insisted, notwithstanding his weakness, upon once more seeing that public assembled for whom he had laboured so much. He was conveyed in his arm-chair into the magnificent saloon. The Princess Esterházy and Madame de Kurtzbeck, the friend of Haydn, met him. The flourishes of the orchestra, and still more the agitation of the spectators announced his arrival. He was placed in the middle of three rows of seats occupied by his friends and the principal persons at Vienna. Before the music began Salieri, the director of the orchestra, came to receive Haydn's orders. They embraced; Salieri then hastened to his place, and, amidst the general emotion of the

assembly, the orchestra commenced. The effect produced by this sacred music, added to the sight of its great composer on the point of quitting this world, may be conceived. Surrounded by the nobility of Vienna and by his friends, whose eyes were all fixed on him, listening to the praises of God, which he himself had composed, Haydn bid a glorious adieu to the world and to life.

So great a triumph frequently caused him to weep, and he found himself much exhausted at the conclusion of the first act. His chair was then brought in, and as he was about to leave the concert-room, ordering those who carried him to stop, he first bowed to the public, and then turning to the orchestra, with real German feeling, he raised his hands to heaven, and with tears in his eyes, blessed the former companions of his labours.

Before Haydn had entered his seventy-eighth year, he was become extremely infirm. It was the last of his life. The moment he went to the piano-forte, the vertigo returned, and his hands quitted the keys to have recourse to his rosary, which was his last consolation. War broke out between France and Austria: this intelligence troubled Haydn and exhausted the remains of his strength. He every moment inquired what news there was, went to his piano, and with a feeble voice sang, "God save the Emperor."

The French armies advanced rapidly, and on the night of the 10th of May, having reached Schonbrunn, about half a league distant from Haydn's little villa, they fired the next morning fifteen hundred cannon-shot, only a hundred yards from his house, upon Vienna, that town so much beloved by him. He pictured it to himself destroyed by fire and sword. Four bombs then fell close to his house, when his two servants, with terror depicted in their countenances, ran to him; the old man by an effort rose from his arm-chair, and with a dignified air cried "Why such alarm! know that where Haydn is no evil can happen." But this exertion was beyond his strength; a convulsive shivering prevented him from adding more, and he was immediately conveyed to his bed. On the 26th of May he was almost completely exhausted, notwithstanding he had his piano moved towards him, and sung three times, with as loud a voice as he could, "God save the Emperor."

They were his last words. At his piano he became insensible, and expired on the morning of the 31st, at the age of seventy-eight years and two months. Madame Kurtzbeck had sent to him, during the occupation of Vienna, to beg that he would suffer himself to be removed into the city; but he could not be persuaded to quit his beloved retreat. Mozart's "Requiem" was performed a few weeks afterwards in honour of him, at the Scotch church. The same homage was rendered to his memory at Breslau, and at the conservatory at Paris, and a hymn of Cherubini's composition was sung. The music is worthy of the great man it celebrated.

Haydn was very religious; it may even be said that through his firm faith in the truths of religion his talent was increased. The commencement of all his scores are inscribed with some of the following mottoes: "In Nomine Domini," or "Soli Deo Gloria;" and, at the end of them all, "Laus Deo." If, when he was composing, he felt his imagination cool, or that some insurmountable difficulty prevented his

proceeding, he rose from his piano, took his rosary, and began to repeat it. He said this method never failed. "When I was working at the 'Creation,'" said he, "I felt myself so penetrated with religion, that before I sat down to my piano I prayed confidently to God to give me the talent requisite to praise him worthily."

**HAYES, CHARLES.**—This ingenious mathematician was born in 1678, and early in life published "A Treatise on Fluxions" which excited considerable attention. In 1710 he produced a small pamphlet entitled "A New and Easy Method to find out the Longitude from observing the Altitudes of the Celestial Bodies;" also in 1723 he published "The Moon, a Philosophical Dialogue," tending to show that the moon is not an opaque body, but has native light of her own.

To great skill in the Greek and Latin languages as well as the modern tongues he added a competent knowledge of Hebrew; and he published several works relating to the translation and chronology of the Scriptures. During a long course of years he had the chief management of the African company, being annually elected sub-governor. But on the dissolution of that company in 1752 he retired to Down in Kent, where he devoted himself to study. He afterwards, however, returned to London, where he died in December 1760, in his eighty-second year.

**HAYGARTH, JOHN,** a celebrated English physician, who wrote several popular works on medicine. He was many years resident at Bath, where he composed the "Clinical History of Diseases." He died in 1813.

**HAYLEY, WILLIAM.**—This excellent scholar and biographer was the intimate friend of Romney, Gibbon, and Cowper, whose lives he has admirably portrayed, and has left his own as a beacon to guide other aspirants after literary reputation. He was born at Chichester in 1745, and lost his father when only three years of age; but this loss was abundantly supplied by the kind attentions of an excellent mother. Young Hayley was well acquainted with Latin and Greek before he went to Eton; and he left that school for Cambridge, where he seems not to have been very emulous of academic honours.

Before he quitted Cambridge Mr. Hayley took a house in Great Queen Street, which he believed to have been the residence of Sir Godfrey Kneller. The house was lofty and commodious, and a few trees in the area behind it gave the library windows "an appearance of verdure and retirement." Here he deposited and arranged the books which his father had left (a considerable collection for those times), and those which he had added to them, for he had early begun to lay in materials for a literary life. In 1767, a few months after he had quitted Cambridge, he set out to visit two of his college friends who were then in Edinburgh. A journey to Edinburgh in those days was not so frequently undertaken for mere amusement by English gentlemen as a voyage to Egypt is now. The stage coaches, in fact, appear not to have proceeded farther north than Newcastle; for having travelled so far in the stage, he tells us in his own memoirs, which we shall after have occasion to quote, that with the assistance of the bellman he obtained a fellow-traveller to proceed in post-chaises. From Edinburgh he and his friends planned a journey to Inverness, for the sake of visiting the scene of Macbeth. The motive was a worthy one,

but the manner in which it is mentioned is one proof of many that even the most refined of our countrymen had not at that time acquired a taste for the sublimer scenes of nature. Not allowing themselves leisure for this, they took what he calls "an extensive view of the country, visiting Glasgow and Stirling, and the seat of the duke of Hamilton and the Falls of Clyde." Loch Lomond, it seems, was not thought worth seeing, and Loch Kattern had not then been heard of. Hayley has recorded in familiar verse a pleasant day at Glasgow with the Foulis' and Simpson, and preserved a singular remonstrance in rhyme from his mathematical teacher at Edinburgh, upon his want of diligence and regularity as a pupil.

When Mr. Hayley arrived in London he commenced the study of the law, which he soon relinquished for dramatic composition. Like most young poets, his thoughts were directed towards the drama; and he expected to obtain immediate fame and fortune by writing for the stage. Dryden had engaged to produce four new plays every year: he "thought himself modest in his purpose of composing only two in the same space of time, and moderate in calculating upon a thousand a year from the profit. A newspaper supplied him with a subject for his first serious attempt. The story was deeply tragical: a son, condemned for a capital offence, takes poison, with which his father supplies him, to avoid the shame of a public execution, and, when it was too late, tidings come that a pardon has been obtained. It appeared to him singularly adapted for moral as well as dramatic effect. The piece was finished, and having obtained the approbation of the "partial friend" to whom it had been shown, was presented to Garrick by a gentleman intimate enough with him to expect sincere and summary proceedings. "If you think it unfit for the stage," said he, "send it back to me with any mark of rejection, and we will pester you no more on the subject; but if you think of it as I do, and resolve to produce it, I will then bring to you my friend the author. But remember you are upon honour, and engaged not to ask even his name, unless you have previously determined to try the success of the play." After the anxious suspense of a few weeks' Hayley was informed that he was to breakfast with Garrick, who was delighted with the tragedy, and who accordingly, upon their meeting, declared that he had not seen for years any new piece of which he could entertain such high expectations. Another breakfast was appointed, at which all particulars were to be settled—when, to the bitter disappointment of the poet and his friends, Garrick told them he had re-considered the play, and was afraid it was not calculated for stage-effect; a profusion of compliment and professions followed, and the tragedy ended in a farce of adulation.

After the disappointment of his first dramatic attempt, he was advised to gain a footing on the stage by new modelling some celebrated piece from the French, either of Racine, or Corneille, or Voltaire, which might make way by its success for an original production. The advice appears to have been given by George Steevens, and Hayley must have learnt to see things with a jaundiced eye when he afterwards persuaded himself that it was given with the insidious and envious motive of diverting him from a bold original effort. Believing it, however, to be sincerely given at the time, he followed it, and finished a tragedy from the *Rodogune*, which he called the "Syrian



Queen." It was presented to Colman, who, without keeping him in suspense, sent it back with a courteous letter, pointing out in what respects he had injured the play, by weakening the character of Rodogune and aggravating the horror of Cleopatra's part, which was too horrible already. Hayley was not insensible to the justice of this criticism; nevertheless the rejection occasioned some degree of indignation that the theatres should, as he thought, thus be shut against him, and, "being persuaded by his own sensations that he had a considerable portion of native poetic fire, he resolved to display it in a composition not subject to the caprice of managers, yet more arduous in its execution." He determined to begin an epic poem. Holding it for a maxim that a poet in his works of magnitude ought *celebrare domestica facta*, to devote his talents to the glory of his country, he resolved to choose his subject from English history, and his "passion for freedom" made him fix upon Magna Charta, taking "for his heroes the barons and their venerable director the archbishop Stephen Langton." The subject is perhaps the best which our history, barren as it is in such subjects, could afford, but it is one thing to fix upon a fine situation for building, and another to erect an edifice there which shall not disfigure instead of ornamenting the scene.

In 1775 Mr. Hayley lost his mother, and the style of his poetry at this period cannot be better illustrated than by taking a selection from the lines addressed to her memory:—

"If heart-felt pain e'er led me to accuse  
The dangerous gift of the alluring Muse,  
'Twas in the moment when my verse impress'd  
Some anxious feelings on a mother's breast.  
O thou fond spirit, who with pride hast smiled,  
And frown'd with fear on thy poetic child,  
Pleased, yet alarmed, when in his boyish time,  
He sigh'd in numbers, or he laugh'd in rhyme;

'Twas thine with constant love, thro' lingering years,  
To bathe thy idiot orphan in thy tears,  
Day after day, and night succeeding night,  
To turn incessant to the hideous sight,  
And frequent watch, if haply at thy view  
Departed reason might not dawn anew.  
Though medicinal art, with pitying care,  
Could lend no aid to save thee from despair;  
Thy fond maternal heart adhered to hope and prayer:  
Nor pray'd in vain; thy child from Powers above  
Received the sense to feel and bless thy love.  
O might he thence receive the happy skill  
And force proportioned to his ardent will,  
With truth's unflinching radiance to embleze  
Thy virtues, worthy of immortal praise!  
Nature, who deck'd thy form with Beauty's flowers,  
Exhausted on thy soul her finer powers;  
Taught it with all her energy to feel  
Love's melting softness, Friendship's fervid zeal.  
The generous purpose and the active thought,  
With Charity's diffusive spirit fraught:  
There all the best of mental gifts she placed,  
Vigour of judgment, purity of taste,  
Superior parts without their spleenful leaven,  
Kindness to earth, and confidence in Heaven.  
While my fond thoughts o'er all thy merits roll,  
Thy praise thus gushes from my filial soul.  
Nor will the public with harsh vigour blame  
This my just homage to thy honoured name;  
To please that public, if to please be mine,  
Thy virtues train'd me,—let the praise be thine."

Hayley had attained his thirty-third year before he fairly came before the public as an author; at which time he published his *Essays on Painting*, in two letters to Romney the artist. In this poem, and in the *Essays on History* and on *Epic Poetry* by which it was followed, Hayley's intention was that the composition should be historical rather than preceptive, presenting a general view of the art in question, with a just and animating character of its most

eminent professors. "There is," he says, "a season of life in which poems of this nature may be read with the happiest effect. The first and perhaps the most important step towards forming a great artist in any line, is to inspire a youth of quick feelings with an enthusiastic passion for some particular art, and with an ingenuous delight in the glory of its heroes. These poems were singularly successful, and obtained for the author a reputation which satisfied his warmest expectations. There were two causes for this success,—the verse was just upon a level with the taste of the age, and the notes contained what was at that time an extraordinary display of reading, more particularly in the fine literature of Italy and Spain; for the English had long been as indifferent to foreign literature as foreigners were to that of England.

The "Essay on Epic Poetry" was addressed to Mason, with the view of inciting him to undertake a great poem upon a national subject. Hayley had abandoned his own attempt, contented with the thought that the part which he had executed would appear among his posthumous works; and it was the generous temper of his mind to acknowledge the superiority of others in his favourite art, and bear a prompt and willing testimony to the merits of his contemporaries. His hopes were now satisfied with a humbler flight; and these *Essays*, with his "Triumphs of Temper," made him the popular poet of the day.

Few poems have been more successful than the "Triumphs of Temper." Its immediate reception equalled his own most sanguine expectations. He had declared in his preface that it was a duty incumbent on those who made poetry the business of their lives "to raise, if possible, the dignity of a declining art, by making it as beneficial to life and manners as the limits of composition and the character of modern times will allow;" and he had expressed hopes that his poem might prove of some service to society by inducing his young and fair readers to cultivate their gentle qualities and maintain a constant flow of good humour. If this hope should prove chimerical, it was at least, he said, one of those pleasing and innocent delusions in which a poetical enthusiast might safely be indulged. He had afterwards the pleasure of hearing from the mother of a large family, that she was beholden to this poem for a complete reformation in the conduct and character of her eldest daughter, "who, by an ambition to imitate Serena, was metamorphosed from a creature of a most perverse and intractable spirit into the most docile and dutiful of children," and this he declared was the greatest reward he ever received as an author:—so early sometimes does the young mind receive that bias whereby the course of after-life is determined, to the right hand or to the left! Were parents to consider this as they ought to do, some of the most celebrated and fashionable productions of these days would be transferred from the drawing-room to the fire.

After the publication of the "Triumphs of Temper," and the "Essay on Epic Poetry," Hayley lived for some years in the possession of unrivalled popularity. None of the ordinary devices of puffing had been employed for forcing his works into favour; he was connected with no party, literary, political, or sectarian; had addressed himself neither to the bad nor the baser passions; nor had he flattered, or even followed, the taste of the public, to which Cowper,

truly independent as his mind was in other respects, with all his genius, thought it was the business of an author to condescend. As little may his success be ascribed to his condition in life, his personal influence, and the sphere in which he moved; for though brilliant in conversation, and every way qualified for shining in society, his habits had always been those of a student. He had always loved the country, and circumstances had now combined with inclination to make him almost a recluse. No reputation therefore could be more completely natural in its growth.

His next publication was a volume of plays "written for a private theatre," by which Hayley meant only to express that they had not been written with a view to public representation. It contained three comedies in rhyme and two tragedies. In his preface he acknowledged that Dryden, who so strenuously argued for the use of rhyme in English tragedy, had expressly condemned its use in comedy; but as his opinion had been proved erroneous in the one point, Hayley expressed a hope that it would be found equally so in the other. But he was well aware that he had great prejudices to encounter, and therefore apologized for his experiment by the authority of Ariosto and Molière, and by the fact that our oldest comedy is written in rhyme. He used the same argument to justify this metre for comic dramas by which the use of blank verse is justified, applying Sir Joshua's principle, that the most absolute possible resemblance is not the most pleasing resemblance, nor the best. And he expressed a hope that in thus attempting to introduce a variety, he should find the public as tolerant in the forms of literature as they were in those of religion. Considering how strong the disposition to intolerance always is, they were much more tolerant than any one who knew them would have expected. The comedies were light and lively stories in three acts, in the easy cantering measure of the "Bath Guide." One of the tragedies was upon the fate of Lord Russel. "Marcella," the other, is founded upon an abominable story which Richardson had recommended to Young, and which Young had begun to dramatise, but left unfinished at his death, and the fragment disappeared, by which the world lost nothing. A few days after the appearance of the volume, to his great surprise, Hayley was informed that Colman had applied, through the publishers, for permission to bring out two of these pieces at the Haymarket Theatre. As a theatrical trader, he said he could not but regret that they should have lost the edge of novelty by publication; still he should be glad to bring them forth; and though a comedy in rhyme was a bold attempt, yet when so well executed as in the present instance, he thought it would be received with favour, especially in a small theatre. The "Two Connoisseurs" and "Lord Russel" were the pieces which he would select. The proposal was gladly accepted. Both pieces were acted with success, greatly to the satisfaction of the author; though for some unexplained reason he received no emolument from the representation. The comedy derived great advantage from an act of kindness and liberality on the part of Flaxman, who, having been engaged in decorating Hayley's library at Eartham, became from that time one of his most valued friends.

The last of Hayley's works which excited interest on its appearance was his "Philosophical, Historical, and Moral Essay on Old Maids." It was published

anonymously, widely read, much talked of, severely censured, and greatly admired. "Never," he says, "was a book projected and written with more guileless or more benevolent intentions, yet a host of prudes and hypocrites railed against it as immoral and irreligious." It was immediately ascribed to the real author from an opinion that the genius, and wit, and learning which it displayed were not to be found united in any other. All three were estimated too highly, but there are finer touches of feeling in the work than in any of his other productions, and some of the tales which it contains would not have been unworthy to have appeared with the masterpieces of Mackenzie in the "Mirror" and "Lounger."

Hayley early in life made a marriage of affection, and yet ere he had attained its meridian we find him separating from his wife, for whom he seemed but little fitted, and he for many years devoted himself to the education of his son.

In 1790 Hayley formed the design of going abroad with his son, and joining Flaxman at Rome, who was then pursuing his studies there. He thought of fixing his abode there for some years, but from this he was diverted by a proposal from Messrs. Boydell and Nicol, who were about to undertake a splendid folio edition of Milton's poems, and wished him to write a life of Milton. Hayley was well inclined for this, for the pleasure of vindicating Milton from what he called the malignant asperity of Dr. Johnson, and the persuasions of his friend Romney came in aid of his inclination. It happened that Johnson the bookseller had planned a similar edition, which he had engaged Cowper to edit, and to supply with translations of the Italian and Latin poems. The first intimation which Hayley obtained of this was from a newspaper paragraph, stating that he and Cowper were each writing a life of Milton, in competition with the other. A little inquiry satisfied him that what he had undertaken did not clash with Cowper's design, and he immediately wrote a courteous and cordial letter to him, stating this, disclaiming all rivalry, and inclosing a complimentary sonnet. The letter was left at Johnson's to be forwarded, and there it remained six weeks. Cowper was greatly vexed at this delay, well supposing that it would occasion some uncomfortable feelings to Hayley. He wrote instantly to acquit himself of this apparent discourtesy. "From his reply," says he, "which the return of the post brought me, I learn that in the long interval of my non-correspondence he had suffered anxiety and mortification enough, so much that I dare say he made twenty vows never to hazard again either letter or compliment to an unknown author. What, indeed, could he imagine less than that I meant by such an obstinate silence to tell him that I valued neither him, nor his praises, nor his proffered friendship; in short, that I considered him as a rival, and therefore, like a true author, hated and despised him? He is now, however, convinced that I love him, as indeed I do, and I account him the chief acquisition that my own verse has ever procured me."

The correspondence which had been thus begun, produced a visit from Hayley; and so cordially did they soon learn to esteem and like each other that Cowper, who had not left his abode before for twenty years, made a journey to Eartham that autumn. Hayley's son was then in his thirteenth year. Cowper was delighted with the boy;—a happier example indeed of what might be accomplished by domestic



education could no where have been found (a subject upon which he felt strongly); and he thought so highly of his talents and proficiency that, with his characteristic good nature, he asked him to criticise his Homer, which he was then correcting for a second edition; and replied to the boy's criticisms in a letter not less admirable for its good sense than for the playfulness and benignity of mind which it indicates. This kindness, which in any other man would have appeared like condescension, was natural in him; and it was well bestowed upon one whose course was so wisely steered that he was in no danger of grounding upon the shoals of self-conceit. It had been Hayley's first intention to educate his son for the profession of physic, but many circumstances combined to give him a strong inclination for that of the arts; his father's long and uninterrupted intimacy with Romney, who had fitted up a painting-room at Eartham, was alone likely to have produced this determination of his talents.

Flaxman, the sculptor, undertook to gratuitously instruct young Hayley in the processes of his art, and he accordingly became his pupil. Many letters have been published that passed between them while he was prosecuting his studies, but that of Hayley's in reply to an intimation of the son's, that so frequent a correspondence with home took up a larger portion of time than ought to be spared from his pursuits, represents the poet in so favourable a point of view that it would be injurious to omit it in any account of his life:—

"I shall acquiesce in your inclination, and not write again till this day fortnight; yet I confess I felt rather more than a philosopher should feel of something like disappointment and mortification in perceiving how very ready you are to relinquish the privilege which you alone possessed, of hearing weekly from your old bosom-friend, as you most endearingly used to call him. Your readiness to resign this distinction brought too forcibly to my mind and heart those touching verses of our beloved Cowper:—

— 'We wilfully forewent  
That converse, which we now in vain regret.  
How gladly would the man recall to life  
The boy's neglected sire.'

"Do not, however, my dearest of friends, survey in too strong a light this not perfectly apposite quotation; for I should be ungrateful indeed, both to you and to Heaven, if I called myself a neglected sire, when my heart tells me that your feelings towards me are truly filial, and your virtues and your talents are nobly exercised and improved, so as to afford me inexpressible delight, and awaken in my soul the most lively gratitude to Heaven. I was early desired by my own incomparable parent, never to expect from any son, or even daughter, that sort of exquisite attention, which, by the wise ordinances of nature, can only be paid by a parent to a child. Their affections may and ought to be mutual, but never can and never ought to be equal. Thus, my dearest of dear friends, I am duly prepared, as I should be, to see you deeply engaged in noble and manly pursuits and affections, without fancying you deficient in regard to me. I even hope to see you love other objects infinitely more than it is possible to love the tenderest of fathers; and my chief prayer is, that your affections may be as well placed and as happy, as I am persuaded they will be keen," &c.

But the angel of death had already spread his cloudy pinions over the poet's child, and a disease insidious in its kind was making a rapid progress in his frame. Two miserable years he watched the progress of this dreadful malady in his only child, seeing him become gradually more and more diseased, till all hope, first of the use of his limbs, then of life itself, was lost; the patient the while supporting his sufferings with a calm and cheerful equanimity which made him an object of admiration not less than of compassion. How the father supported himself during the severest discipline which the heart of man can undergo is seen in these productions of his sleepless nights:—

## SONNET.

"Thou, dearest object of incessant care,  
For thee before the throne of Heaven I bend,  
Constant as days arise and nights descend,  
Imploping God, who seems thy life to spare,  
To give thee only good; and if to share  
That good my worn existence may extend,  
Be it in forming, as thy firmest friend,  
Part of thy bliss, the subject of my prayer.  
Spirits of light, who, tender as the dove,  
On viewless wings o'er earth's rough confines range,  
Forbidding worldly demons to estrange  
Hearts form'd to harmonize by powers above,  
In us for ever guard the sweet exchange  
Of perfect filial and parental love."

## SONNET,

*Written subsequent to the preceding.*

"Angelic sufferer, whose existence seems  
Supported only by a feeble thread,  
In troubled visions I have seen thee dead,  
And waking scenes, as fearful as my dreams,  
Show me thy shatter'd frame, in pain's extremes;  
Yet unobscured, and nobly free from dread,  
The lucid spirit of thy heart and head  
Outshines Hyperion's unobstructed beams.  
Desponding Friendship with compassion cries,  
"Poor martyr, mild and quick by thy release!"  
So prays not Nature. Hope can never cease,  
In hearts parental, till celestial peace  
Has, by clear mandate from the pitying skies,  
Seal'd with the seal of God his servant's eyes."

Cowper and young Hayley died within a week of each other, and the poet determined on embodying a memoir of his son with his own life and also to prepare a biographical account of his long cherished friend Cowper. Both these tasks he lived to execute in a way as creditable to his talents as a literary man as to his feeling as a father and friend. Early in his son's illness Hayley had begun to build what he called a marine hermitage in the village of Felpham, boldly, as he said, plunging into brick and mortar with the prudence of a poet, as the first step in a plan of economy. Eartham had in fact become too expensive for him, and hoping that his son might one day retire to it as his paternal seat, his intention was to let it in the intermediate years, and retire to this nook himself. After his son's death there was an additional reason for adhering to this plan; the youth died in that library where he had so often played in infancy, and where he had imbibed that generous ambition which had put forth so fair a blossom. The father therefore shrunk from a scene which recalled such painful thoughts, and past the remainder of his life at Felpham. He survived his son twenty years, dying in 1820.

HAYMAN, FRANCIS.—Of the early history of this artist but little is known. He appears to have been born early in the eighteenth century, and commenced his career as a scene painter. He devoted a considerable time to the decoration of Vauxhall Gardens, and was afterwards made librarian to the Royal

Academy, which office he held till the time of his death in 1776.

HAYNE, ISAAC, a distinguished American, who was descended from a highly respectable family in South Carolina; and when the struggle between the colonies and the mother country commenced, he was living on his plantation, in the enjoyment of an independent fortune. In 1780 he held the rank of captain in a corps of militia artillery at the same time that he was serving as a senator in the state legislature. Having been disgusted by the promotion of a junior officer over his head, he resigned his commission, and returned to the ranks of the company which he had commanded as a private, in which capacity he served during the siege of Charleston by the royal troops. After the capitulation of that city, by which the persons and property of the Americans were guaranteed, though it precluded them from again bearing arms, Mr. Hayne returned to his farm. Here, in the beginning of 1781, when his wife and several of his children were dangerously sick of the small-pox, he was required by the commander of the British forces in his neighbourhood to take up arms as a British subject or repair to Charleston as a prisoner. He refused to do either, protesting his inviolability under the capitulation of Charleston. At length, however, he was induced to go to Charleston by the assurance that he would be permitted to return to his family on engaging to "demean himself as a British subject so long as that country should be covered by a British army." He obtained a written agreement to that effect, and after repairing to Charleston, showed it to Brigadier-general Patterson, and solicited permission to return home. This was refused, and he was told that he must either swear allegiance to the British government or be subjected to close confinement. Thus deceived, he at length consented to subscribe a declaration of his allegiance to the king of Great Britain; but he expressly objected to the clause which required him "with his arms to support the royal government," affirming that he never would bear arms against his country. He was assured that this would not be required, and then hastened back to his family only in time to hear the expiring sigh of his wife, and to behold the corpse of one of his children. Although he might have considered himself justified in not complying with his promises to the British government in consequence of the artifice by which he had been inveigled into the garrison of Charleston, and the compulsion by which he had been forced to take protection in the language of the day, yet such was his scrupulous sense of honour that he determined to observe them with fidelity. He continued, therefore, to reside privately upon his estate, until he was summoned, after the successes of Greene had changed the face of affairs, to repair immediately to the British standard. This was a violation of the agreement, in which it was stipulated that he should not be called upon to bear arms against his country; and finding himself consequently released from all obligation of observing it on his part, he hastened to the American camp. After serving some time, however, he was made a prisoner, and brought to Charleston, where he remained in confinement until Lord Rawdon, the commander of the royal forces in Carolina, came to the town. He was then taken before a court of inquiry, and condemned to be hanged, "for having been found under arms, and employed in raising a regiment to oppose the

British government, though he had become a subject and accepted the protection of that government." This unjust and merciless sentence was accordingly put into execution on the 4th of August, 1781. Colonel Hayne met his fate with the greatest fortitude and composure.

HAYWARD, SIR JOHN, an historian who published several works connected with the biographies of our own sovereigns. He was educated at Cambridge, and introduced to court in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, whom he offended by some passages in his writings. After having been some time in prison, he was released on the accession of James, and continued in favour to the time of his death, which occurred in 1627. Sir John Hayward's principal works are, "The Lives of the Three Norman Kings of England," and the "Life and Reign of Edward VI."

HAZLITT, WILLIAM.—This highly original thinker and writer was born at Maidstone in Kent, and after he had received a good education early in life, devoted himself to literature as a source of professional employment. The first acknowledged production of his pen was entitled "An Essay on the Principles of Human Action." In this work he exhibited much metaphysical ingenuity. The "Lectures on the English Poets," delivered in the Surrey Institution, excited the deepest interest; but even at this period we find him, to use his own words, "at feud with the whole world," and the consequence was, that the world requited him with scorn.

In the life of GIFFORD we took occasion to advert to the attacks of the editor of the "Quarterly Review" on Hazlitt's early compositions; many of which evidently suffered more on account of their political than their literary sins. Hazlitt thus examines the pretensions of his critical antagonist:—"His standard of ideal perfection is what he himself now is—a person of mediocre literary attainments; his utmost contempt is shown by reducing any one to what he himself once was—a person without the ordinary advantages of education and learning. It is accordingly assumed with much complacency in his critical pages that Tory writers are classical and courtly as a matter of course, as it is a standing jest and evident truism, that Whigs and Reformers must be persons of low birth and breeding; imputations from one of which he himself has narrowly escaped, and both of which he holds in suitable abhorrence. He stands over a contemporary performance with all the self-conceit and self-importance of a country schoolmaster, tries it by technical rules, affects not to understand the meaning, examines the handwriting, the spelling, shrugs up his shoulders, and chuckles over a slip of the pen, and keeps a sharp look-out for a false concord and—a flogging. There is nothing liberal, nothing humane in his style of judging: it is altogether petty, captious, and literal. The editor's political subserviency adds the last finishing to his ridiculous pedantry and vanity. He has all his life been a follower in the train of wealth and power—strives to back his pretensions on Parnassus by a place at court, and to guild his reputation as a man of letters by the smile of greatness. He thinks his works are stamped with additional value by having his name in the Red Book. He looks up to the distinctions of rank and station, as he does to those of learning, with the gross and overweening adulation of his early origin. All his notions are low, upstart, servile. He thinks it the highest honour to



a poet to be patronised by a peer or by some dowager of quality. He is prouder of a court livery than of a laurel-wreath, and is only sure of having established his claims to respectability by having sacrificed those of independence. He is a retainer to the Muses, a door-keeper to learning, a lackey in the state. He believes that modern literature should wear the fetters of classical antiquity,—that truth is to be weighed in the scales of opinion and prejudice,—that power is equivalent to right,—that genius is dependent on rules,—that taste and refinement of language consist in word-catching. Many persons suppose that Mr. Gifford knows better than he pretends, and that he is shrewd, artful, and designing; but perhaps it may be nearer the mark to suppose that his dulness is guarantee for his sincerity, or that before he is the tool of the profligacy of others, he is the dupe of his own jaundiced feelings, and narrow, hood-winked perceptions.

'Destroy his fib or sophistry: in vain—  
The creature's at his dirty game again!'

"But this is less from choice or perversity than because he cannot help it and can do nothing else. He damns a beautiful expression less out of spite than because he really does not understand it; any novelty of thought or sentiment gives him a shock from which he cannot recover for some time, and he naturally takes his revenge for the alarm and uneasiness occasioned him without referring to venal or party motives. He garbles an author's meaning, not so much wilfully as because it is a pain to him to enlarge his microscopic view to take in the context, when a particular sentence or passage has struck him as quaint and out of the way—he fly-blows an author's style, and picks out detached words and phrases for cynical reprobation, simply because he feels himself at home, or takes a pride or pleasure in this sort of petty warfare. He is tetchy and impatient of contradiction, sore with wounded pride, angry at obvious faults, more angry at unforeseen beauties. He has the chalk-stones in his understanding, and, from being used to long confinement, cannot bear the slightest jostling or irregularity of motion. He may call out with the fellow in 'The Tempest'—'I am not Stephano, but a cramp!' He would go back to the standard of opinions, style, the faded ornaments, and insipid formalities that came into fashion about forty years ago. Flashes of thought, flights of fancy, idiomatic expressions, he sets down among the signs of the times, the extraordinary occurrences of the age we live in. They are marks of a restless and revolutionary spirit—they disturb his composure of mind, and threaten (by implication) the safety of the state.

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"He takes none but unfair advantages. He twits his adversaries (that is, those who are not in the leading-strings of his school or party) with some personal or accidental defect. If a writer has been punished for a political libel, he is sure to hear of it in a literary criticism. If a lady goes on crutches and is out of favour at court, she is reminded of it in Mr. Gifford's manly satire. He sneers at people of low birth, or who have not had a college education, partly to hide his own want of certain advantages, partly as well-timed flattery to those who possess them. He has a right to laugh at poor, unfriended, untitled genius from wearing the livery of rank and letters, as footmen behind a coronet-coach laugh at the rabble. He keeps good company and forgets

himself. He stands at the door of Mr. Murray's shop, and will not let any body pass but the well-dressed mob, or some followers of the court."

Mr. Hazlitt was for some time employed by the "Morning Chronicle" newspaper for the preparation of dramatic criticisms; and his political articles in the "Examiner" have always been admired for their power and comprehensiveness. But it was his enthusiastic admiration of Shakspeare which tended most to give a character and a tone to his writings. Let us take a specimen in his estimate of the character of Coriolanus, in which the political bias of the author is certainly somewhat too strongly developed:—

"The love of power in ourselves and the admiration of it in others are both natural to man; the one makes him a tyrant, the other a slave. Wrong dressed out in pride, pomp, and circumstance, has more attraction than abstract right. Coriolanus complains of the fickleness of the people; yet, the instant he cannot gratify his pride and obstinacy at their expense, he turns his arms against his country. If his country was not worth defending, why did he build his pride on its defence? He is a conqueror and a hero; he conquers other countries, and makes this a plea for enslaving his own; and when he is prevented from doing so, he leagues with its enemies to destroy his country. He rates the people 'as if he were a god to punish, and not a man of their infirmity.' He scoffs at one of their tribunes for maintaining their rights and franchises: "Mark you his absolute *shall*?" not marking his own absolute *will* to take every thing from them, his impatience of the slightest opposition to his own pretensions being in proportion to their arrogance and absurdity. If the great and powerful had the beneficence and wisdom of gods, then all this would have been well: if with a greater knowledge of what is good for the people, they had as great a care for their interest as they have themselves—if they were seated above the world, sympathizing with the welfare, but not feeling the passions of men, receiving neither good nor hurt from them, but bestowing their benefits as free gifts on them—they might then rule over them like another Providence. But this is not the case. Coriolanus is unwilling that the senate should show their 'cares' for the people, lest their 'cares' should be construed into 'fears,' to the subversion of all due authority; and he is no sooner disappointed in his schemes to deprive the people not only of the cares of the state, but of all power to redress themselves, than Volumnia is made madly to exclaim,

'Now the red pestilence strike all trades in Rome,  
And occupations perish.'

"This is but natural: it is but natural for a mother to have more regard for her son than for a whole city; but then the city should be left to take some care of itself. The care of the state cannot, we here see, be safely entrusted to maternal affection or to the domestic charities of high life. The great have private feelings of their own, to which the interests of humanity and justice must courtesy. Their interests are so far from being the same as those of the community that they are in direct and necessary opposition to them; their power is at the expense of our weakness; their riches, of our poverty; their pride, of our degradation; their splendour, of our wretchedness; their tyranny, of our servitude. If they had the superior knowledge ascribed to them (which they



have not) it would only render them so much more formidable, and from gods would convert them into devils. The whole dramatic moral of 'Coriolanus' is, that those who have little shall have less, and that those who have much shall take all that others have left. The people are poor, therefore they ought to be starved. They are slaves, therefore they ought to be starved. They work hard, therefore they ought to be treated like beasts of burden. They are ignorant, therefore they ought not to be allowed to feel that they want food, or clothing, or rest—that they are enslaved, oppressed, and miserable. This is the logic of the imagination and the passions, which seek to aggrandize what excites admiration and to heap contempt on misery, to raise power into tyranny, and to make tyranny absolute; to thrust down that which is low still lower, and to make wretches desperate; to exalt magistrates into kings, kings into gods; to degrade subjects to the rank of slaves, and slaves to the condition of brutes. The history of mankind is a romance, a mask, a tragedy, constructed upon the principles of poetical justice; it is a noble or royal hunt, in which what is sport to the few is death to the many, and in which the spectators halloo and encourage the strong to set upon the weak, and cry havoc in the chase though they do not share in the spoil. We may depend upon it that what men delight to read in books, they will put in practice in reality." Despite these strong but just remarks, indifference to Shakspeare was held as the height of injustice by Hazlitt, and the cold or mechanical criticism of Johnson begat his warmest displeasure.

We have space but for another illustration of the style of this extraordinary man, and we take it from a species of writing in which he most excelled. It forms part of a critical estimate, or rather comparative view, of the poetical powers of Scott and Byron:

"Lord Byron, who in his politics is a liberal, in his genius is haughty and aristocratic: Walter Scott, who is an aristocrat in principle, is popular in his writings, and is (as it were) equally servile to nature and to opinion. The genius of Sir Walter is essentially imitative, or 'denotes a foregone conclusion': that of Lord Byron is self-dependent; or, at least, requires no aid, is governed by no law, but the impulses of its own will. We confess, however much we may admire independence of feeling and erectness of spirit in general or practical questions, yet in works of genius we prefer him who bows to the authority of nature, who appeals to actual objects, to mouldering superstitions, to history, observation, and tradition, before him who only consults the pragmatical and restless workings of his own breast, and gives them out as oracles to the world. We like a writer (whether poet or prose writer) who takes in (or is willing to take in) the range of half the universe in feeling, character, description, much better than we do one who obstinately and invariably shuts himself up in the Bastille of his own ruling passions. In short, we had rather be Sir Walter Scott (meaning thereby the Author of 'Waverley') than Lord Byron, a hundred times over; and for the reason just given—namely, that he casts his descriptions in the mould of nature, ever varying, never tiresome, always interesting, and always instructive, instead of casting them constantly in the mould of his own individual impressions. He gives us man as he is, or as he was, in almost every variety of situation, action, and feeling. Lord Byron makes man after his own image,

woman after his own heart: the one is a capricious tyrant, the other a yielding slave; he gives us the misanthrope and the voluptuary by turns; and with these two characters, burning or melting in their own fires, he makes out everlasting centos of himself. He hangs the cloud, the film of his existence over all outward things—sits in the centre of his thoughts, and enjoys dark night, bright day, the glitter and the gloom 'in cell monastic'—we see the mournful pall, the crucifix, the death's head, the faded chaplet of flowers, the gleaming tapers, the agonized brow of genius, the wasted form of beauty; but we are still imprisoned in a dungeon, a curtain intercepts our view, we do not breathe freely the air of nature or of our own thoughts. The other admired author draws aside the curtain, and the veil of egotism is rent, and he shows us the crowd of living men and women, the endless groups, the landscape back-ground, the cloud and the rainbow, and enriches our imaginations and relieves one passion by another, and expands and lightens reflection, and takes away that tightness at the breast which arises from thinking or wishing to think that there is nothing in the world out of a man's self!—In this point of view, the author of 'Waverley' is one of the greatest teachers of morality that ever lived, by emancipating the mind from petty, narrow, and bigoted prejudices: Lord Byron is the greatest pamperer of those prejudices, by seeming to think there is nothing else worth encouraging but the seeds or the full luxuriant growth of dogmatism and self-conceit. In reading the Scotch novels, we never think about the author, except from a feeling of curiosity respecting our unknown benefactor: in reading Lord Byron's works, he himself is never absent from our minds. The colouring of Lord Byron's style, however rich and dipped in Tyrian dyes, is nevertheless opaque, is in itself an object of delight and wonder: Sir Walter Scott's is perfectly transparent. In studying the one, you seem to gaze at the figures cut in stained glass, which exclude the view beyond, and where the pure light of heaven is only a means of setting off the gorgeousness of art: in reading the other, you look through a noble window at the clear and varied landscape without. Or, to sum up the distinction in one word, Sir Walter Scott is the most dramatic writer now living, and Lord Byron is the least so."

Hazlitt's "Life of Napoleon" had a very extensive sale; but the "Modern Pygmalion," a work modelled on the "Confessions" of Rousseau, was treated by the public with the contempt it merited. The death of this eccentric but highly gifted writer took place in Frith Street, Soho, September 18th, 1830. Hazlitt's "Table Talk," "The Spirit of the Age," and the "Conversations of James Northcote," are all works of considerable merit.

HEADLY, HENRY, a miscellaneous English writer, who was born in 1766. He was educated at Oxford, and early devoted himself to literary pursuits. His "Select Beauties of the English Poets" is an admirable collection, and the "Lucubrations of Abel Slug" had a great circulation when it was first published. He died at Norwich in 1788.

HEARNE, THOMAS, a distinguished classical scholar of the last century. He was educated at Oxford and held several offices in that university, which he resigned from conscientious scruples. He published editions of Livy and Eutropius as well as several works bearing on early English history.



He died in 1735.—His namesake Thomas Hearne the artist also devoted himself to antiquarian researches. The latter was born in 1744, and died in 1817.

HEARNE, SAMUEL, an English traveller in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. He was employed in 1769 to explore the north-western part of the American continent. The narrative of his researches, published after his death, which occurred in 1792, is entitled "A Journey from the Prince of Wales's Fort, in Hudson's Bay, to the Northern Ocean."

HEATH, JAMES, an English historian, who was born in 1629. He was educated at Oxford, from which university he was ejected in 1648 for his adherence to Charles I. He passed the latter part of his life as a corrector of the press, during which time he wrote a "Chronicle of the Late War," and "The Glories and Triumphs of the Restoration of Charles II." He died in 1664.

HEATHCOTE, RALPH, a miscellaneous writer of some celebrity in the last century. He appears to have been the principal projector of the "General Biographical Dictionary" which has so largely furnished materials for other works of a similar character. His "Historia Astronomiæ" is also a clever work. Mr. Heathcote was Boylean lecturer in 1763, and he died in 1795.

HEBER, REGINALD.—This distinguished dignity of the church of England was born at Malpas in 1783. He received the rudiments of a good education at Whitchurch, from whence he removed to Brasenose College, Oxford. He here exhibited the highest propriety of conduct. His studies were pursued with passionate ardour, particularly all those which were connected with poetry, "of which his soul was as yet a fountain, as it were, and which, if possible, cast additional beauty and splendour on his faith." His principal poetical work at this period was his "Palestine," which he was called on to recite in the theatre of the college. None will ever forget his appearance on this occasion, so interesting and impressive. It was known that his aged father was somewhere sitting among the crowded audience when his universally admired son ascended the rostrum; and it is said that the sudden thunder of applause which then arose so shook his frame, weak and wasted by long illness, that he never recovered it, and may be said to have died of the joy dearest to a parent's heart. In the autumn of 1804 in the same year he was elected a fellow of All Souls' College; shortly after which, his academical career terminated. He now entered on the active stage of life. About the middle of the year 1805 he accompanied his early friend, Mr. John Thornton, on a tour through the north of Europe, proceeding through Sweden and Norway to St. Petersburg. Here they remained some time, amusing themselves with learning the German language. The travellers next proceeded to Moscow, where they arrived on the 3rd of January, 1806. Upon leaving this city, in which Heber was dazzled with the gorgeous splendour of the inhabitants, they proceeded southward through the Ukraine, the country of the Cossacks. They next traversed the Crimea, Russian Poland, Hungary, Austria, and Northern Germany. In October 1806 both arrived in England, and Heber immediately set forward to join the family circle at Hodnet in Shropshire, where he enjoyed the satisfaction which every wanderer

feels when returning after a long and toilsome journey to his native home.



In the year 1807 Heber took orders and obtained the living of Hodnet, which was in his brother's gift; he then returned to Oxford for the purpose of taking his degree as master of arts. It will readily be supposed that he whose piety was truly apostolical, even while in a secular station, now that he had assumed the habit of a Christian minister became doubly anxious to render not only his conduct, but the very thoughts of his mind, pure as became his holy calling. The church of England has in no age been destitute of teachers remarkable for their virtue and benevolence; but even among preachers of the gospel it is not often that a man so gifted as Heber with genius, with enlarged knowledge of mankind, with almost boundless charity and benevolence, can be found, the perusal of whose life must create in the reader the wish that he had been numbered among his friends. Yet Heber was far from being an ascetic. Like all men of high imaginative powers, who have never suffered vice to brush away the down from the nobler feelings, he had a bold faith in the enduring nature of worldly affection. In April 1809 he married Amelia, youngest daughter of Dr. Shipley, dean of St. Asaph. On this occasion he undertook an excursion into Wales, the beauties of which, notwithstanding the variety of scenes he had beheld, he seemed to consider equal to those of any country in the world. He then settled in his rectory, and employed himself earnestly in diffusing among his parishioners a proper sense of religion and habits of piety and virtue.

Mr. Heber now became his parishioners' principal earthly guide, their pastor, and friend. His ear was never shut to their complaints, nor his hands closed to their wants. Instead of hiding his face from the poor, he sought out distress; he made it a rule, from which no circumstances induced him to swerve, to "give to all who asked," however trifling the sum; and, wherever he had an opportunity, he never failed to inquire into, and more effectually to relieve, their distresses. He could not pass a sick person or a child crying without endeavouring to soothe and help them, and the kindness of his manner always

rendered his gifts doubly valuable. A poor clergyman near Hodnet had written a poem from which he expected great emolument. Mr. Heber, to whom the MS. was sent, with a request that he would assist in getting it through the press, saw that its sale would never repay the expenses of publishing it; he therefore sent the clergyman some money, and while recommending him not to risk so great a sum as the printing would cost, spoke so delicately on its deficiencies (having, as he said, a feeling for a brother poet) that the poor man could not be hurt at the manner in which the advice was given.

Hodnet church, the scene of Mr. Heber's happiest hours, is represented in the annexed sketch.



In 1815 he was appointed Bampton lecturer, and two years afterwards he was promoted to a stall in the cathedral of St. Asaph. In the autumn of 1820 he paid a visit to Oxford, where he had the inexpressible gratification of hearing "Palestine" performed as an oratorio in the same theatre where seventeen years before he had recited it with such acclamations of applause. About the close of the year 1822 Heber received through his friend, the Right Honourable Watkins William Wynn, the office of bishop of Calcutta. He had long viewed with deep interest the progress of Christianity in the east, and the prospect opened to him by this office of contributing by his own zeal and exertions to the success of so holy a cause, seems quickly to have outweighed in his mind every consideration of personal interest, and to have determined him, at all hazards, to accept of that dangerous post. The conduct of Mr. Wynn on this occasion—his ardent desire that India should not be deprived of the services of so good, so great a man (for virtue like Heber's is true greatness), while he was scarcely less unwilling to lose, certainly for a considerable time, if not, as it happened, for ever, a friend of incomparable value—reflects the highest honour on his heart and character. All the preliminaries being settled, Heber prepared to leave England. As soon as his intentions became known, he received from every quarter those warm voluntary testimonies of affection and regret which nothing but virtue can command. His own parishioners, as was natural, were the foremost in their demonstrations of their profound esteem. Rich,

poor, old and young—all joined in presenting their exemplary pastor with a lasting mark of the veneration in which his character was held among them. "Almost the last business," says Mrs. Heber, in her interesting memoir of her husband, "which Dr. Heber (he had recently been created D. D. by the university of Oxford) transacted before he left Shropshire, was settling a long standing account in which he had been charged as a debtor to the amount of a hundred pounds; but it was believed by those who were best acquainted with the circumstances that he was not bound either in law or probity to pay it. As he himself, however, did not feel certain on this point, he resolved to pay the money, observing to a friend who endeavoured to dissuade him, 'How can I reasonably hope for a blessing on my undertaking, or how can I commence so long a voyage with a quiet conscience, if I leave even the shadow of a committed act of injustice behind?' On the 22nd of April, 1823," she continues, "Dr. Heber finally took leave of Shropshire. From a range of high grounds near Newport he turned back to catch a last view of his beloved Hodnet; and here the feelings which he had hitherto suppressed in tenderness to others burst forth unrestrained, and he uttered the words, which have proved prophetic, that he 'should return to it no more!'"

Heber, having made all necessary preparations for his long voyage, and received consecration, repaired on the 16th of June on board the company's ship Grenville, in which he and his family were to proceed to India. As our traveller's first desire, in whatever position he happened to be placed, was to effect all the good in his power, he no sooner found himself on board than he endeavoured to communicate to the sailors a sense of their religious duties. His exhortations were listened to attentively and respectfully, and, there can be no doubt, produced in many instances at least conviction and amendment of life.

The bishop arrived in India after a remarkably prosperous voyage, and held his first visitation in the cathedral of Calcutta on Ascension-day 1824, and in the course of seven months Heber had achieved that portion of his task which was to be performed in the capital. Next to this in importance was his visitation through the upper provinces, an expedition in which he had hoped to be accompanied by his family; but this being rendered impracticable by the delicate health of his wife and the tender age of his infant child, he departed with his domestic chaplain, Mr. Stowe, in a sixteen-oared pinnace, for Dacca. The shores of the Ganges, though flat almost throughout Bengal, are far from wanting in stately or picturesque objects, lofty pagodas with their fantastic angular domes towering over forests of bamboos, banyans, and cocoa-trees, ruins of Mussulman palaces, wild tracks of jungle inhabited by tigers, groves of peepul or tamarind trees, with Hindoo villages or hamlets perched upon artificial mounds to escape the periodical inundations of the river. Thus our traveller sailed from Calcutta to Dacca. Furreedpoor, his next station, did not long detain him. Near Rajmahal he approached, but did not visit, the ruins of Gour, an ancient city, which almost rivalled Babylon or Nineveh in extent, and which fell to decay because the Ganges, which once flowed under its walls, changed its bed, and took another direction six or seven miles south of the city. From thence he proceeded as before up the Ganges, observing whatever



was remarkable, making a short stay at each of the European stations on his way for the purpose of preaching or baptizing, and arrived on the 20th of August at Patna. At this city, which is extensive and situated in a commanding position, he remained several days for the purpose of preaching and administering confirmation. He then continued his voyage to Ghazeepoor, famous for its rose-gardens and salubrious air. The rose-fields, which occupy many hundred acres in the neighbourhood, are described as at the proper season extremely beautiful. They are cultivated for distillation and for making 'attar,' or rose-water. A short way further up the stream Heber quitted his pinnace, and, providing himself with bearers, continued his journey to Benares by land. The bishop's stay in Benares was short. He visited with attention its principal curiosities, and conversed on several points with some of its Brahminical professors, whose belief in Hindooism he regarded as very equivocal. He then continued his voyage up the river to Allahabad, where he dismissed his pinnace, and made the necessary preparations for performing the remainder of his journey by land.

At Lucknow Heber separated from his companions, and, accompanied merely by his attendants, directed his course towards the wild districts at the foot of the Himalaya. On arriving at Bareilly, not more than fifty miles distant from the nearest range, he vainly looked out for the snowy peaks of this "monarch of mountains;" but, instead, discovered nothing but a ridge of black clouds, and a gray autumnal haze through which no object was discernible. The features of the country now became wild and striking. Forests infested by malaria, tigers, and lions, and half-desolate plains, announced the termination of the fertile provinces of Hindoostan, and the approach to a different region. Here "we had," says Heber, "a first view of the range of the Himalaya, indistinctly seen through the haze, but not so indistinctly as to conceal the general form of the mountains. The nearer hills are blue, and in outline and tints resemble pretty closely, at this distance, those which close in the vale of Clwyd. Above these rose what might in the present unfavourable atmosphere have been taken for clouds had not their seat been so stationary and their outline so harsh and pyramidal—the patriarchs of the continent, perhaps the surviving ruins of a former world, white and glistening as alabaster, and even at this distance of probably one hundred and fifty miles, towering above the nearer and secondary range as much as those last (though said to be seven thousand six hundred feet high) are above the plain in which we were standing. I felt intense delight and awe on looking on them, but the pleasure lasted not many minutes; the clouds closed in again, as on the fairy castle of St. John, and left us but the former gray cold horizon girding in the green plain of Rohiland, and broken only by people and mango-trees."

The bishop visited Delhi and Agra, and his journey through Rajpootana was attended by circumstances flattering to his personal feelings. The petty sovereigns through whose dominions his route lay invariably received him hospitably when he visited their capitals, and on some occasions, when he did not choose to diverge so far from the road, sent messengers expressly to meet him on the way with polite invitations to their court. He pushed on, however, with considerable expedition, and having traversed

the territories, and beheld the capitals of Jypoor, Ajmere, Bunaira, and others, proceeded by way of Neemuch and Baroda to Bombay. His time during his stay in this city was principally occupied with ecclesiastical business, in promoting the founding of schools, and in conversing with that venerable statesman and traveller, Mr. Elphinstone, the governor, who, from the most humane and enlightened motives, has endeavoured with success to diffuse among the natives a knowledge of our literature and sciences. Here Heber had the satisfaction of being joined by his wife and elder child. With these, shortly afterwards, he visited the cavern temples of Elephanta and Kennerly; and subsequently, in company with Archdeacon Barnes, made an excursion across the Western Ghats to Poonah, in the Deccan, during which he enjoyed an opportunity of examining another celebrated cavern temple at Carlee.

Bishop Heber died as he had lived—in a labour of love. At day-break on the 3rd of April, 1826, he went to the mission-church, where service was performed in the Tamil language; after which he confirmed fifteen natives in their own language, and delivered his address on confirmation. He afterwards went to the mission-house, and examined into the state of the schools, though without staying in the school-room, as he found it close and disagreeable from having been shut up the day preceding, and left it immediately. He then received an address from the poor Christians earnestly praying that he would send them a pastor to watch over and instruct them. His answer was given with that gentleness and kindness of heart which never failed to win the affections of all who heard him, promising that he would take immediate measures to provide them with a spiritual guide. He had indeed, before he received this application, resolved on appointing Mr. Schreivogel, a Danish missionary, who had petitioned under rather singular circumstances for a removal from Tranquebar to Vepery or Trichinopoly to this station. From all that the bishop had heard of his private character and of the esteem in which he was held by his own flock in the Danish mission, as well as from personal intercourse with him, he thought that he could not better supply the wants of this important station than by committing it to his superintendence.

The bishop had gone to the fort in a close carriage, so that he could have sustained no injury from the sun. Mr. Robinson was too ill to leave his bed, but he was accompanied by Mr. Doran, and conversed with him, both going and returning, with animation and earnestness on the important duties of missionaries, and on the state of Christianity in the south of India. On his arrival at Mr. Bird's house, before he took off his robes he went into Mr. Robinson's room and, sitting down by his bed-side, entered with energy into the concerns of the mission. His interest had been much excited by all which he had seen. He spoke with sorrow of its poverty and remarked how necessary it was for the bishop to have regular reports from every mission in India, that he might at least know the wants and necessities of all. He said he had seen nothing in the whole of his diocese that so powerfully interested him, and his mental excitement was such that he showed no appearance of bodily exhaustion. He then retired to his own room, and, according to his invariable custom, wrote on the back of the address on confirmation, "Trichinopoly, April 3, 1826." This was his last act, for immediately

on taking off his clothes he went into a large cold bath, where he had bathed the two preceding mornings. Half an hour afterwards his servant, alarmed at his long absence, entered the room and found him a lifeless corpse! Every means to restore animation which human skill or friendship could suggest were resorted to, but the vital spark was extinguished.

It were a useless and a deeply painful task to enter into any detail of the apparent cause of his death: it is sufficient to say that disease had, unsuspected, been existing for some time; and that it was the opinion of all the medical men in attendance, that under no circumstances could his invaluable life have been very long preserved, though the event was undoubtedly hastened by the effects of climate, by intense application to those duties which increased in interest with every step he took, and was finally caused by the effects of cold on a frame exhausted by heat and fatigue. His mortal remains were attended to the grave with the highest honours, and followed by the tears of the inhabitants of Trichinopoly. They rest on the north side of the altar in St. John's Church.

Of Bishop Heber's epistolary style we can take no better specimen than is furnished in the following letter, addressed to one of his parishioners:—

“My Worthy Friend,

“I am about to address you on a subject which has long weighed much on my mind, and which I have often wished to mention. Nobody is more convinced than I am of your good heart, your kindness to your family, your labourers, and the poor, your strict honesty, and the other good qualities for which you are known and respected in the neighbourhood. Yet there is one point which I would fain see altered in you, and which I cannot help noticing as, perhaps, the last mark of my good wishes for you, which I shall ever have in my power to show, now that I am leaving England for a far distant land, and have ceased to be rector of Hodnet. You must be aware I mean your fondness for liquor. Why should you let this one sin get the better of you, and rob your good qualities and your good principles of their reward? You as yet are young and healthy, and therefore cannot say you need drink to keep you in good spirits; but you yourself well know that neither health nor cheerfulness can long continue to be the portion of a drunkard. Even so far as this world is concerned, how necessary is it that a man should be sober in order that he may prosper! but when we think on the other world can we help recollecting that the drunkard is wasting not only his body and his goods, but his immortal soul? I need hardly remind you how often and how earnestly God has forbidden the practice in Scripture. Of all strong drink we find it observed by Solomon, Prov. xxiii. 32, that ‘at the last it biteth like a serpent and stingeth like an adder.’ ‘Woe unto them,’ saith Isaiah, chap. v. 22, ‘that are men of strength to mingle strong drink.’ ‘Woe,’ he says again, chap. xxviii. 1,—‘Woe to the crown of pride, to the drunkards of Ephraim.’ All the other prophets are full of the same declarations, and the texts in the New Testament are still more awful. ‘If that servant,’ saith our Lord, ‘begin to say in his heart, My Lord delayeth his coming, and begins to beat the men servants and maids, and to eat and drink and be drunken, the Lord of that servant will come in a day when he looketh not for him, and in an hour when he is not aware, and will

cut him asunder and appoint him his portion with the unbelievers.’ ‘Take heed,’ he says, in another place, ‘lest your hearts be overcharged with surfeiting and drunkenness, and so that day take you unawares.’ In the same manner St. Paul, in his Epistle to the Romans, bids us ‘walk honestly as in the day, not in rioting and drunkenness, not in chambering and wantonness, not in strife and envying,’ where you see he puts drunkenness down in the same list of crimes with whoredom and quarrelling, and puts it first of the three because, indeed, it generally leads to the other two. Thus also we find in Gal. chap. v. 19—21, drunkenness classed on the same footing with the very first sins, and those most hateful to God, such as idolatry and witchcraft and murder. These things will prove to you that a fondness for strong drink is no trifling matter; that it is a crime marked with the Almighty's heaviest displeasure, and for which, no doubt, a very grievous punishment is in store in another world. Do not suppose, my good friend, that I name these things to you out of disrespect or a desire to give you pain; we have long been neighbours, and you have been a kind and friendly neighbour to me. I sincerely esteem you and wish you well, but it is because I esteem you and wish you well that I send you this long letter; and I now earnestly desire to call upon you as with a voice from the dead, to the number of whom, in my long and perilous voyage, I may perhaps be added, to desire you to lay these things to heart, to fly from temptation, and to remember that your health and prosperity, your life and immortal soul, are in danger if you do not fly from the sin which does most easily beset you! God bless you and guide you; may he turn your heart to see the things which belong to your peace, and give you in this world grace and happiness, and in the world to come, everlasting glory!

“My best wishes are with you! Believe me ever your sincere friend,

*Thos. Heberden*

HEBERDEN, WILLIAM, a celebrated physician, who was born in 1710. He was educated at Cambridge, and in 1739 took the degree of M. D. Dr. Heberden's “Medical Commentaries”, is still considered a work of great value for the medical student. He died at Windsor in 1801.

HEDWIG, JOHN, a distinguished German naturalist born in 1730. He was educated at Presburg, and published his first work in 1782. It consisted of a series of illustrations of the mosses. The literary fame of Hedwig, and his medical practice, increased rapidly. He was made physician to the town guards, and professor of physic and of botany, at Leipsic. The latter appointment, in which he succeeded Dr. Pohl, who removed to Dresden in 1789, was accompanied with a house and the superintendence of the public garden. In 1791 the senate appointed him physician to the school of St. Thomas. The duties of all these various stations might be supposed to have fully occupied his time, yet he still found leisure to attend to new communications from his friends. Many nondescript mosses were sent him from Pennsylvania by the Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg, and many West Indian ones by Dr. Swartz. A fine collection of new or rare ferns, in full fructification,



was forwarded to him by Sir Joseph Banks, at the suggestion of Dr. Smith, in hopes that he might be induced to take up their examination; it not being then known in this country that he was already intent on the subject, and preparing his essay for the Petersburg academy. The fruits of these communications were not given to the world in his life-time, but the former ones contributed, with other matter, to a posthumous work, published by his able pupil Dr. Schwaegrichen, entitled "*Species Muscorum*," and the latter to some subsequent works of his son; but his great work is his "*Cryptogamia*," the figures in which are given with a fidelity rarely to be seen. Hedwig died in February 1799.

**HEIN, PETER PETERSON.**—This brave Dutch naval commander was born in 1577, and rose gradually to the rank of vice-admiral of the East Indian fleet, and three years afterwards received the chief command. He attacked the Portuguese in 1626 on the coast of Brazil, took several ships, and carried home a rich booty. The same year he captured the Spanish plate fleet, and obtained an immense booty. In 1629 he was appointed high-admiral of the Dutch fleet in reward for his services, and was soon after killed in an engagement with a fleet from Dunkirk, of which he had already captured three ships.

**HEINECCIUS, JOHN GOTTLIEB**, a German author, who was born in 1680 at Eisenberg, and studied at Halle, where he afterwards obtained a professor's chair in the sciences of philosophy and law. In 1724 he quitted Halle for Franeker, and remained there till 1727, when he accepted an invitation, given him by the king of Prussia, to settle at Frankfort on the Oder. Here he resided upwards of six years, when he returned to Halle. His works were collected and published at Geneva, in eight quarto volumes, three years after his decease, which took place in 1741.

**HEINECKEN, CHRISTIAN HENRY**, a child greatly celebrated for the premature development of his talents, who was born at Lubeck in 1721. At two years and a half old he could answer questions in geography, and in history, ancient and modern; soon after he learned Latin and French. In his fourth year he had learned the doctrines of divinity, with their proofs from the Bible, modern history, ecclesiastical history, the institutes, 200 hymns, with their tunes, and 1500 verses and sentences from the ancient Latin classics. His stupendous memory retained every word repeated to him, and at the court of Denmark he delivered twelve speeches without once faltering, and underwent public examinations on a variety of subjects. He spoke German, Latin, French, and Low Dutch. He was exceedingly good-natured and well-behaved, but of a most tender and delicate constitution. He never ate solid food, but chiefly subsisted on his nurse's milk, not being weaned until within a few months of his death, which took place at the age of six years and four months, on the 27th June, 1727. A dissertation on this extraordinary child was published by M. Martini at Lubeck in 1730, and addressed to M. Schönic, the child's tutor, who had published an account of him in the fifth volume of the "*Republic of Letters*," which statement was republished in the German language in 1778 or 1779.

**HEINITZ, ANTHONY FREDERICK, BARON OF.**—This learned mineralogist was born in 1724. In 1763 he laid the plan of the famous mining aca-

demy in Freyberg, the beneficial effects of which have been extensively felt. In 1776 he travelled in France and England, and, in consequence of his journey, wrote his "*Essai d'Economie Politique*." Frederick II. of Prussia appointed him minister of state and chief of the mining department. He died in 1802.

**HEINSIUS, DANIEL**, a celebrated Dutch philologist, who was born at Ghent in 1580. At fourteen years of age he was sent to the university of Franeker to study the civil law, but he applied himself chiefly to Greek literature. Removing to Leyden, he continued his studies under Joseph Scaliger, who paid great attention to so promising a pupil. He read public lectures on Greek and Latin authors at twenty, and he was afterwards chosen professor of history in the university of Leyden. He died at Leyden in 1655. His Latin poems consist of elegies, satires, and two tragedies, besides other pieces. He also wrote Greek poems, which were much esteemed, and verses in the Dutch language.

**HEINSIUS, NICHOLAS**, son of the preceding, cultivated the same branches of learning with his father with success. He was born at Leyden in 1620, and carefully educated under the paternal roof. He travelled in England, through the Low Countries, in France, and Italy. His father wishing for his return, he went to Leyden, but remained only a few months, as Christina of Sweden invited him to her court. He established himself at Stockholm in 1650, and was appointed resident from the states of Holland in October 1654. The death of his father determined him to return to his native country. In 1658 he retired to the Hague. He gave up all his leisure to literature; and it was against his inclination that he went on a public mission to Russia in 1667. He returned home, with his health much debilitated, in 1671, and he died at the Hague in 1681. Much of his time was devoted to literature notwithstanding his public employments, and he gave to the world several critical editions of Latin authors.

**HEINSIUS**, grand pensionary of Holland, the favourite and confidant of Prince William of Orange, who in 1688 ascended the English throne as William III. William sent him to Paris after the peace of Nimeguen, in order to enforce there his claims on the principedom of Orange. Heinsius spoke so boldly for his prince and the Protestants, that Louvois threatened him with the Bastille. From that time he was the declared enemy of France, and was particularly active during the war of the Spanish succession to humble Louis XIV. But his opposition to the peace brought the burden of a great debt upon the republic; and he lost his office, after having held it for thirty years. He died at the Hague at the age of eighty-seven years.

**HELLINS, JOHN.**—This distinguished member of the scientific world was, to use the words addressed to the Royal Society by their president, Mr. Davies Gilbert, "one of those extraordinary men who, deprived of early advantages, have elevated themselves, by the force of genius and industry, to a level above most persons blessed with a regular education." In 1787 he edited "*The Young Algebraist's Companion*." The first paper from his pen in the "*Philosophical Transactions*" appeared in 1788, being a "*Theorem for computing Logarithms*." In 1788 he published a quarto volume of "*Mathematical Essays on Several Subjects*," and in 1802, in

two vols. quarto., "Analytical Institutions, originally written in Italian by Donna Maria Gaetana Agnesi."

Having adopted the clerical profession, Mr. Hellins was for some time curate of Constantine in Cornwall, and afterwards of Greens Norton, Northamptonshire; but in 1790 he was presented by Earl Bathurst to the vicarage of Pottersbury in Northamptonshire. He was elected a fellow of the Royal Society in 1796, and in 1800 took the degree of B.D. at Trinity College, Cambridge.

"Mr. Hellins," continues the eulogium before quoted, "at one time computed for the 'Nautical Almanac;' he afterwards assisted at Greenwich, and, what is now perhaps almost unknown, he furnished the late Mr. Windham with all the calculations and tables on which that gentleman brought forward his new military system as minister of war in 1806. Mr. Hellins applied himself with great industry to some of the most useful branches of pure mathematics. No less than nine communications from him appear in our 'Transactions;' 'On the Summation of Series;' 'On the Conversion of Slowly Converging Series into others of Swifter Convergence;' 'On their Application to Computing of Logarithms, and to the Rectifying of Circular Areas;' 'On the Roots of Equations;' and in 1798, 'On a Method of Computing with increased Facility the Planetary Perturbations;' for the last he was honoured with your Copley medal.

"Retired to a small living in Northamptonshire, Mr. Hellins became a pattern of philosophical calmness and content.

'Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife,  
His sober wishes never learned to stray.'

"I have known Mr. Hellins for above forty years, and I can testify to his virtues. It once happened that, through the late Dr. Maskelyne, I had nearly obtained for him the observatory at Dublin. The failure cannot however be lamented, since Brinkley was appointed in his stead." Mr. Hellins also occasionally furnished mathematical articles to the "British Critic," from the year 1795 to 1814. Mr. Hellins died in March 1827.

**HELISHAM, RICHARD.**—This experimental philosopher is best known for his "Course of Lectures delivered in the University of Dublin," where he was professor. The place of his birth is not known. He died in 1738.

**HELVETIUS.**—There were two members of this family distinguished by their literary talents during the last century.—John Claude Helvetius was a physician, and is only known for his medical writings. He was born in 1685 and died in 1755. His son, Claude Adrian Helvetius, received a good education, and was early in life introduced at court, where he was appointed maitre d'hotel to the queen, and, for a time, a farmer-general, but quitted that lucrative post to enjoy his studies. He was very charitable, and when he found that he had bestowed his bounty upon unworthy persons, or was reproached with it, he said, "If I was king I would correct them, but I am only rich and they are poor, my business therefore is to aid them." He died in December 1771. His principal works are, a treatise "On the Mind," of which various opinions have been entertained. It certainly is one of those which endeavour to degrade the nature of man too nearly to that of mere animals, and even Voltaire, who called the author at one time a true philosopher, has said that

it is filled with common-place truths, delivered with great parade, but without method, and disgraced by stories very unworthy of a philosophical production. The ideas of virtue and vice, according to this book, depend chiefly upon climate. His next work, "Le Bonheur," a poem in six cantos, was published after his death in 1772, with some fragments of epistles. His poetical style is still more affected than his prose, and though he produces some fine verses, he is more frequently stiff and forced. His poem on Happiness is a declamation in which he makes that great object depend, not on virtue, but on the cultivation of letters and the arts. "De l'Homme," another philosophical work, was not less bold than the first. A favourite paradox, produced in this book under a variety of different forms, is, "that all men are born with equal talents, and owe their genius solely to education." This book is even more dangerous than that on the Mind, because the author writes with less reserve. The work is, however, only mischievous to superficial readers as its fallacies may easily be discovered.

**HEMANS, FELICIA DOROTHEA.**—This distinguished ornament of her sex and age was born at Liverpool on the 25th of September, 1794. She early exhibited a marked love of literature and acquired many of the best passages in our standard authors by heart. When the little student was about five years of age her father removed with his family from Liverpool to Grwyth, near Abergele in Denbighshire, North Wales,—a solitary, old, and spacious mansion, lying close to the sea-shore, and in front shut in by a chain of rocky hills. In after-life Mrs. Hemans would tell of the strange creeping awe with which the solitude and stillness of Grwyth inspired her. Here she first read Shakspeare, and used to climb a tree to study his plays uninterruptedly: the sea-shore was her forest of Ardenne, and she loved its loneliness and freedom well. She was never at school, and the only things she was ever regularly taught were French, English grammar, and the rudiments of Latin, from a gentleman, who used to deplore "that she was not a man to have borne away the highest honours at college." She had, unlike most children, little taste for mere pageantry. When she visited London she did not enjoy its crowds and gaiety, yet she was delighted with its works of art, and when first led into a gallery of statues, exclaimed to those with her, "O! hush! don't speak." The circumstance of a near and dear member of her family being engaged in the Peninsular campaign drew her attention very early to the literature, the scenery, and the chivalry of Spain, with which her fancy delighted to associate the career and the achievements of those she loved. These two ruling inspirations of art and chivalry all but exclusively divided her attention in her earliest works. Her poem called "England and Spain" was translated into Spanish; her taste for the works of others also evinced this turn of mind: she was more delighted with Madame de Genlis's "Siege de la Rochelle" than with her "Corinne." "Froissart" was her favourite book, and in one of her latest sonnets she has left us a record of the delight she found in that most sweet and simple of all French romances, "Paul and Virginia."

In the year 1812 Miss Browne was married to Captain Hemans of the fourth regiment. This union may be said to have closed, shortly before the birth



of a fifth son, by a protracted separation. Captain Hemans' health having been undermined by the vicissitudes of a military life, he left this country for the milder climate of Italy. Mrs. Hemans, whose literary pursuits rendered it advisable for her not to leave England, remained with her family, now removed to Brownwylfa, a pleasant residence near St. Asaph. Here she continued to enrich her mind with the old classic authors and the more modern writers of Italy and the Peninsula, and she became familiar with the German language. It was during this period that she contributed a series of papers on foreign literature to the "Edinburgh Magazine;" these, with some very few exceptions, being the only prose compositions ever produced by her.

Mrs. Hemans next removed to Rhyllon, a short distance from Brownwylfa. While here she corresponded frequently with the late Bishop Heber and the Rev. Mr. Milman. In the autumn of the year 1828 Mrs. Hemans finally established herself at Wavertree, a pleasant village near Liverpool. Here she enjoyed the society of various literary friends, among whom were, Miss Jewsbury, Mary Howitt, and Dr. Bowring; and from thence we find dated a few charming letters to Miss Mitford, congratulatory of her literary success. In the summer of 1829 Mrs. Hemans visited Scotland, accompanied by her two youngest sons. Her name was singularly popular in Scotland, and she had written some of her best poems for its principal literary periodical, "Blackwood's Magazine." In a work published by Mr. Chorley we have a most interesting account of the fair authoress's visit to Sir Walter Scott, of which we purpose presently taking a specimen.

Early in the summer of 1830 Mrs. Hemans visited the Lakes, accompanied by her youngest son, the other two still under her care joining her when she was settled in that delightful country. Here she was introduced to Mr. Wordsworth, of whom she speaks as "a most benignant-looking old man," and as "the poet of meditative life, frequently drooping his head, half-closing his eyes, and seeming buried in quiet depths of thought." After having remained for some weeks at Ambleside Mrs. Hemans again visited Scotland, and spent the greatest part of her time at Milburn Tower, the seat of her venerable friend Sir Robert Liston. Thence Mrs. Hemans returned to Wavertree, from whence, after a residence of about three years, she again removed to Dublin. Here she experienced numerous attacks of illness, and among them the scarlet fever. A neglected cold, caught when she was but imperfectly recovered, took the distressing form of ague; from that time her strength and health declined, and this disorder was succeeded by a dropsical affection. Her thoughts and imaginings during the first stages of her illness were recorded by Mrs. Hemans in a series of sonnets, entitled "Thoughts during Sickness." In one of these compositions she speculates earnestly and reverently upon the direction of the flight of the spirit when the soul and body shall part; in others, again, she tenderly recurs to the haunts and pleasures of childhood. In the intervals of these attacks Mrs. Hemans projected and even commenced poems, but before the winter closed in her disease had assumed an alarming and unequivocal aspect. Change of air and complete retirement were recommended, and with this view

Mrs. Hemans removed, early in December, to the summer residence of the archbishop of Dublin, which was kindly placed at her disposal. She experienced a transient benefit from the change, but early in March she was removed to Dublin to be nearer her physicians. Within a short period of her decease the dropsical symptoms abated; but they were succeeded by hectic fever and delirium, the sure precursors of dissolution. On the 26th of April, 1836, she closed her poetical career by dictating a "Sabbath Sonnet," which will be read and remembered as long as her name is loved and cherished. Her last moments are thus referred to by Mr. Chorley:—

"From this time she sank away gently but steadily, still able to derive pleasure from being occasionally read to, and on Tuesday, the 12th of May, still able to read for herself a portion of the sixteenth chapter of St. John, her favourite among the evangelists. Nearly the last words she was heard to utter were on Saturday, the 16th of May, to ask her youngest son then sitting by her bed-side what he was reading. When he told her the name of the book she said, 'Well, do you like it?' After this she fell into a gentle sleep, which continued, almost unbroken till evening, when between the hours of eight and nine her spirit passed away without a sigh or a struggle. She was buried in a grave within St. Anne's church, Dawson Street, close to the house in which she died; the funeral service being performed over her remains by the Rev. Dr. Dickinson, the archbishop's chaplain, from whom she had received the sacrament on the evening of the 17th of March. There is as yet no monument erected to her, save a tablet in the cathedral of St. Asaph, placed there by her brothers, 'in memory of Felicia Hemans, whose character is best portrayed in her writings.'"

It is no easy task to enumerate the titles of Mrs. Hemans' principal works. The first published were two volumes of poems, dated 1808, and containing some verses written by her when only nine years of age. The second, entitled "The Domestic Affections," was published in 1812. Next were her two prize poems, "Wallace" and "Dartmoor," the latter of which received its honour at the hands of the Royal Society of Literature in the year 1821. To the same period may be referred "The Restoration of the Works of Art to Italy," and her "Dramatic Scenes." In the *Athenæum* it is observed, "These were probably written in the happiest period of her life, when her mind was rapidly developing itself, and its progress was aided by judicious and intelligent counselors, among whom may be mentioned Bishop Heber.

A favourable notice of one of these poems will be found in Lord Byron's letters, and the fame of her opening talent had reached Shelly, who addressed a very singular correspondence to her. With respect to the world in general her name began to be known by the publication of her "Welsh Melodies," her "Siege of Valencia," and the scattered lyrics which appeared in the "New Monthly Magazine," then under the direction of Campbell. To the "Siege of Valencia" succeeded rapidly her "Forest Sanctuary," her "Records of Woman" (the most successful of her works), her "Songs of the Affections" (containing, perhaps, her finest poem, "The Spirit's Return"), her "National Lyrics and Songs for Music" (most of which have been set to music by her sister, and become popular), and her "Scenes and Hymns of Life;"

besides which is a volume of "Poetical Remains," published last year. Besides the works here enumerated, we should mention her tragedy, "The Vespers of Palermo," which, though containing many fine thoughts and magnificent bursts of poetry, was hardly fitted for the stage; also, the songs which she contributed to Colonel Hodges' "Peninsular Melodies;" and we cannot but call the attention of our readers to one of her latest lyrics, "Despondency and Aspiration," published in "Blackwood's Magazine" for May 1835.

To this imperfect sketch may be added a passage from Miss Landon's beautiful eulogy:—"To the three characteristics of Mrs. Hemans' poetry, viz., the ideal, the picturesque, and the harmonious, a fourth must be added—the moral. Nothing can be more pure, more feminine and exalted, than the spirit which pervades the whole: it is the intuitive sense of right, elevated and strengthened into a principle. It is a glorious and beautiful memory to bequeath, but she who left it is little to be envied. Open the volumes which she has left, legacies from many various hours, and what a record of wasted feelings and disappointed hopes may be traced in their sad and sweet complainings! Yet Mrs. Hemans was spared some of the keenest mortifications of a literary career. She knew nothing of it as a profession which has to make its way through poverty, neglect, and obstacles; she lived apart in a small affectionate circle of friends. The high road of life, with its crowds and contention, its heat, its noise, and its dust that rests on all, was for her, happily, at a distance; yet even in such green nest the bird could not fold its wings and sleep to its own music. There came the aspiring, the unrest, the aching sense of being misunderstood, the consciousness that those a thousand times inferior were yet more beloved."

We cannot close this brief notice of Mrs. Hemans' literary career without one or two specimens of her poetical and prose compositions. We subjoin two rather short but admirable poems, well fitted for showing her peculiar beauties.

#### THE PALM-TREE.

It waved not through an eastern sky,  
Beside the fount of Araby;  
It was not fanned by southern breeze  
In some green isle of Indian seas,  
Nor did its graceful shadow sleep  
O'er stream of Afric, lone and deep.

But fair the exiled Palm-tree grew  
Mid foliage of no kindred hue;  
Through the laburnum's drooping gold  
Rose the light shaft of orient mould,  
And Europe's violets, faintly sweet,  
Purpled the moss-beds at its feet.

Strange looked it there!—the willow stream'd  
Where silvery waters near it gleam'd;  
The lime-bough lured the honey-bee  
To murmur by the desert's tree,  
And showers of snowy roses made  
A lustre in its fan-like shade.

There came an eve of festal hours—  
Rich music filled the garden bowers:  
Lamps that from flowing branches hung,  
On sparks of dew soft colours flung,  
And bright forms glanced—a fairy show—  
Under the blossoms to and fro.

But one, a lone one, 'mid the throng,  
Seemed reckless all of dance and song:  
He was a youth of dusky mien,  
Whereon the Indian sun had been,  
Of crested brow, and long black hair—  
A stranger, like the Palm-tree there.

And slowly, sadly, moved his plumes,  
Glittering athwart the leafy glooms;  
He passed the pale green olives by,  
Nor won the chestnut flowers his eye;  
But when to that sole Palm he came,  
Then shot a rapture through his frame!

To him, to him, its rustling spoke,  
The silence of his soul it broke!  
It whispered of its own bright isle,  
That lit the ocean with a smile:  
Aye, to his ear that native tone  
Had something of the sea-wave's moan!

His mother's cabin-home, that lay  
Where feathery cocoas fringed the bay;  
The dashing of his brethren's oar,  
The conch-note heard along the shore;—  
All through his wakening bosom swept;  
He clasped his country's tree, and wept!

Oh! scorn him not!—the strength whereby  
The patriot girds himself to die,  
Th' unconquerable power which fills  
The freeman battling on his hills,  
These have one fountain, deep and clear—  
The same whence gushed that child-like tear.

#### THE ENGLISH BOY.

Look from the ancient mountains down,  
My noble English Boy!  
Thy country's fields around thee gleam  
In sun-light and in joy.

Ages have roll'd since foeman's march  
Pass'd o'er that old firm sod:  
For well the land hath fealty held  
To freedom and to God!

Gaze proudly on, my English Boy!  
And let thy kindly mind  
Drink in the spirit of high thought  
From every chainless wind!

There, in the shadow of old time,  
The halls beneath thee lie,  
Which pour'd forth to the fields of yore  
Our England's chivalry.

How bravely and how solemnly  
They stand 'midst oak and yew!  
Whence Cressy's yeomen haply framed  
The bow, in battle true;

And round the wall their good swords hang  
Whose faith knew no alloy,  
And shields of knighthood, pure from stain—  
Gaze on, my English Boy!

Gaze where the hamlet's ivied church  
Gleams by the antique elm,  
Or where the minster lifts the cross  
High through the air's blue realm.

Martyrs have shower'd their free hearts' blood,  
That England's prayer might rise  
From those grey fanes of youthful years,  
Unfettered, to the skies.

Along their aisles, beneath their trees,  
This earth's most glorious dust,  
Once fired with valour, wisdom, song,  
Is laid in holy trust.

Gaze on—gaze farther, farther yet—  
My gallant English Boy!  
Yon blue sea bears thy country's flag,  
The billows' pride and joy!

Those waves in many a fight have closed  
Above her faithful dead;  
That red-cross flag victoriously  
Hath floated o'er their bed.

They perished—this green turf to keep  
By hostile tread unstain'd,  
These knightly halls inviolate,  
Those churches unprofaned.

And high and clear their memory's light  
Along our shores is set,  
And many an answering beacon-fire  
Shall there be kindled yet!

Lift up thy heart, my English Boy!  
And pray, like them to stand,  
Should God so summon thee, to guard  
The altars of the land.

Of Mrs. Hemans' light and elegant prose style, we cannot take a better example than is furnished in



the following description of her visit to the "Lion of the North:"—

"At present I can only talk of Sir Walter Scott, with whom I have been just taking a long delightful walk through the 'Rhymour's Glen.' I came home to be sure in rather a disastrous state after my adventure, and was greeted by my maid with that most disconsolate visage of hers, which invariably moves my hard heart to laughter; for I had got wet above my ankles in the haunted burn, torn my gown in making my way through thickets of wild roses, stained my gloves with wood-strawberries, and even—direst misfortune of all!—scratched my face with a rowan branch. But what of all this? Had I not been walking with Sir Walter Scott, and listening to tales of elves and bogles, and brownies, and hearing him recite some of the Spanish ballads till they stirred the heart like the sound of a trumpet? \* \* \* \* \* I was rather agreeably surprised by his appearance after all I had heard of its homeliness; the predominant expression of countenance is, I think, a sort of arch good nature, conveying a mingled expression of penetration and benevolence. \* \* \* \* \* I have passed so happy an hour in the 'Rhymour's Glen' with Sir Walter Scott that, following my first impulse on returning, I must communicate to you the impression of its pleasant hours, in full confidence that while they are yet fresh upon my mind I shall thus impart to you something of my own enjoyment. Was it not delightful to ramble through the fairy ground of the hills, with the mighty master himself for a guide, up wild and rocky paths, over rude bridges, and along bright windings of the little haunted stream, which fills the whole ravine with its voice? I wished for you so often! There was only an old countryman with us, upon whom Sir Walter is obliged to lean for support in such wild walks; so I had his conversation for several hours quite to myself, and it was in perfect harmony with the spirit of the deep and lovely scene; for he told me old legends, and repeated snatches of mountain ballads, and showed me the spot where Thomas of Ereildoune

'Was aware of a lady fair,  
Come riding down the glen,'

which lady was no other than the fairy queen, who bore him away to her own mysterious land. We talked too of signs and omens, and strange sounds in the wind, and all things wonderful and wild; and he described to me some gloomy cavern scenes which he had explored on the northern coast of Scotland, and mentioned his having heard the deep foreboding murmur of storms in the air on those lonely shores for hours and hours before the actual bursting of the tempest. We stopped in one spot which I particularly admired; the stream fell there down a steep bank into a little rocky basin overhung with mountain ash, and Sir Walter Scott desired the old peasant to make a seat there, kindly saying to me, 'I like to associate the names of my friends, and those who interest me, with natural objects and favourite scenes, and this shall be called Mrs. Hemans' seat.' But how I wish you could have heard him describe a glorious sight which had been witnessed by a friend of his, the crossing the Rhine at Ehrenbretstein by the German army of Liberators on their return from victory. 'At the first gleam of the river,' he said, they all burst forth into the national chant, 'Am Rhein, am Rhein!' They were

two days passing over, and the rocks and the castle were ringing to the song the whole time, for each band renewed it while crossing; and the Cossacks with the clash and the clang, and the roll of their stormy war music, catching the enthusiasm of the scene, swelled forth the chorus 'Am Rhein, am Rhein!' I shall never forget the words, nor the look, nor the tone with which he related this; it came upon me suddenly too, like that noble burst of warlike melody from the Edinburgh Castle rock, and I could not help answering it in his own words—

'Twere worth ten years of peaceful life,  
One glance at this array.'

"I was surprised when I returned to Chiefswood, to think that I had been conversing so freely and fearlessly with Sir Walter Scott, as with a friend of many days, and this at our first interview too! for he is only just returned to Abbotsford, and came to call upon me this morning, when the cordial greeting he gave me to Scotland made me at once feel a sunny influence in his society.  
\* \* \* \* \*

Whether I shall return to you all 'brighter and happier,' as your letter so kindly prophesies, I know not; but I think there is every prospect of my returning more fitful and wilful than ever; for here I am, leading my own free native life of the hills again; and if I could but bring some of my friends, as the old ballad says, 'near, near, near me,' I should indeed enjoy it; but that strange solitary feeling which I cannot chase away comes over me too often like a dark sudden shadow, bringing with it an utter indifference to all things around. I lose it most frequently, however, in the excitement of Sir Walter Scott's society; and with him I am now in constant intercourse, taking long walks over moor and woodland, and listening to song and legend of other times, until my mind quite forgets itself, and is carried wholly back to the days of the Slogan and the fiery cross, and the wild gatherings of border chivalry. I cannot say enough of his cordial kindness to me; it makes me feel, when at Abbotsford, as if the stately rooms of the proud ancestral-looking place were old familiar scenes to me. Yesterday he made a party to show me the 'pleasant banks of Yarrow,' about ten miles from hence: I went with him in an open carriage, and the day was lovely, smiling upon us with a real blue sunny sky, and we passed through I know not how many storied spots, and the spirit of the master-mind seemed to call up sudden pictures from every knoll and cairn as we went by—so vivid were his descriptions of the things that had been. The names of some of those scenes had, to be sure, rather savage sounds, such as 'Slain Man's Lea,' 'Dead Man's Pool,' &c. &c.; but I do not know whether these strange titles did not throw a deeper interest over woods and waters now so brightly peaceful. We passed one meadow on which Sir Walter's grandfather had been killed in a duel; 'had it been a century earlier,' said he, 'a bloody feud would have been transmitted to me, as Spaniards bequeath a game of chess to be finished by their children.' And I do think, that had he lived in those earlier days, no man would have more enjoyed what Sir Lucius O'Trigger is pleased to call 'a pretty quarrel;' the whole expression of his benevolent countenance changes if he has but to speak of the dirk or the claymore: you see the spirit that would

'say, amidst the trumpets, ha! ha!' suddenly flashing from his grey eyes, and sometimes in repeating a verse of warlike minstrelsy he will spring up as if he sought the sound of a distant gathering cry. But I am forgetting beautiful Yarrow, along the banks of which we walked through the duke of Buccleuch's grounds, under old rich patrician trees; and at every turn of our path the mountain stream seemed to assume a new character, sometimes lying under steep banks in dark transparence, sometimes

'Crested with tawny foam,  
Like the mane of chestnut steed.'

And there was Sir Walter beside me, repeating with a tone of feeling as deep as if then only first awakened—

'They sought him east, they sought him west,  
They sought him far with wail and sorrow;  
[ There was nothing seen but the coming night,  
And nothing heard but the roar of Yarrow.'

It was all like a dream. Do you remember Wordsworth's beautiful poem, 'Yarrow Visited?' I was ready to exclaim, in its opening words—'And is this Yarrow?' There was nothing to disturb the deep and often solemn loveliness of the scenery: no rose-coloured spencers such as persecuted the unhappy Count Forbin amidst the pyramids—Mr. Hamilton, and Mrs. Lockhart, and the boys, who followed us, were our whole party; and the sight of shepherds, real, not Arcadian shepherds, sleeping under their plaids to shelter them from the noon-day heat, carried me at once into the heart of a pastoral and mountain country. We visited Newark Tower, where, amongst other objects that awakened many thoughts, I found the name of Mungo Park (who was a native of the Yarrow Vale), which he had inscribed himself, shortly before leaving his own bright river never to return. We came back to Abbotsford, where we were to pass the remainder of the day, partly along the Ettrick, and partly through the Tweed; on the way we were talking of trees, in his love for which Sir Walter is a perfect Evelyn. I mentioned to him what I once spoke of to you, the different sounds they give forth to the wind, which he had observed, and he asked me if I did not think that an union of music and poetry, varying in measure and expression, might in some degree imitate or represent those 'voices of the trees;' and he described to me some Highland music of a similar imitative character, called the 'notes of the sea-birds'—barbaric notes truly they must be!—In the evening we had a good deal of music: he is particularly fond of national airs, and I played him many, for which I wish you had heard how kindly and gracefully he thanked me. But, O! the bright swords! I must not forget to tell you how I sat, like Minna in the "Pirate" (though she stood or moved, I believe), the very 'queen of swords.' I have the strongest love for the flash of glittering steel—and Sir Walter brought out I know not how many gallant blades to show me: one which had fought at Killierankie, and one which had belonged to the young Prince Henry, James the First's son, and one which looked of as noble race and temper as that with which Cœur de Lion severed the block of steel in Saladin's tent."

We subjoin the autograph of this highly distinguished female writer.

*Felicia Hemans*

HEMMLING, HANS, an eminent painter, who lived about the middle of the fifteenth century. He is commonly thought to have been born in Flanders, and to have been carried, as a poor sick soldier, into St. John's hospital at Bruges, where, on his recovery, his extraordinary genius for painting disclosed itself. According to later researches he was probably born at Constance, and went to the Netherlands in order to study the art of painting in the school of Eyck. Of his works which have remained in the Netherlands, the above-mentioned hospital possesses the best.

HEMSKERCK, EGBERT, a celebrated Flemish painter, of whom, though so universally known, we have no information as to the precise time in which he flourished or the school in which he was taught. Though the taste of his compositions is but low, yet it ought to be considered that he took his subjects from nature; from persons in the humblest occupations, whose dress, actions, and manners, could not furnish the imagination with any ideas of elegance; and to express their passions and undisguised humours, seems to have been the height of his ambition. By frequenting fairs, merry-meetings, gaming-houses and inns, he acquired a surprising power of connecting humorous circumstances. He designed and drew correctly, and his pictures have a strong effect from his accurate management of the chiaro oscuro. Some of his pictures have suffered from unskilful cleaners, and many which are sold as his reflect discredit on his talent; but his genuine works, well preserved, have a clearness and force equal to any of the Flemish artists.

HEMSKERCK, EGBERT, called the younger Hemskerck, was the disciple of Peter Grebber, but imitated the manner of Brouwer and of the elder Hemskerck. He was born at Haerlem in 1645, but settled at London, where for a long period of time his works were held in high estimation though they are now much sunk in their value. He delighted in composing uncommon and fanciful subjects, such as the temptation of St. Anthony, nocturnal intercourses of witches and spectres, enchantments, &c., which he executed with a free pencil and a spirited touch. It was customary with him to introduce his own portrait among the works he designed. He died in 1704.

HEMSTERHUIS, TIBERIUS, a Dutch philologist, celebrated for the new philological school which he founded, who was born at Groningen in 1685. His father was a learned and respectable physician in Groningen, from whom he received his first instruction, and as early as his fourteenth year he entered the university of his native city, where he studied particularly mathematics. Some years afterwards he went to Leyden, where he was commissioned to arrange the manuscripts in the library of the university. He was not twenty years old when he was appointed professor of mathematics and philosophy at Amsterdam, where he first entered into the philological career. He now undertook an edition of Julius Pollux, the lexicographer, and was thus led into a correspondence with the great Bentley, whose overpowering, though friendly criticism, for a short time discouraged the young man; but he soon applied himself more zealously to the study of all the Greek authors in chronological order, and with such success that he may justly be said to have been the most profound Hellenist of the age. He was, in the full sense of the words, a grammarian and



critic at the same time, and [he united to this the most comprehensive knowledge of all matters connected in any manner with his studies. We are indebted to him for the foundation of the study of the Greek language on the basis of analogy, for which Joseph Scaliger and Salmasius had prepared the way. By this analogical method new light was shed on the origin and signification of words; the relation of single words to similar ones was pointed out, as well as their relation to the Latin language, which he frequently traced back to the Æolian dialect. Hemsterhuis was not less familiar with Latin, although his style in that language wants the easy grace which we find in Ruhnken. His principal works are the above-mentioned edition of the "Onomasticon" of Julius Pollux, "Select Dialogues" of Lucian, and the "Plutus" of Aristophanes. Besides these, he wrote a number of excellent annotations and emendations to different authors, and several academical discourses. He was remarkable for mildness and modesty of character and was entirely exempt from the severe and dogmatical tone of many of the Dutch philologists. His grateful pupil and friend, Ruhnken, in the classical memoir which he has consecrated to his memory, gives some fine traits of his character. He died in 1756 at Leyden, where he was professor of the Greek language and history.

**HEMSTERHUIS, FRANCIS.**—This learned individual was the son of Tiberius Hemsterhuis. To the classical learning which he inherited from his father, he added the study of philosophy, in particular that of Socrates, which speaks in all his productions. Hence his predilection for the animated form of the dialogue in preference to a systematic method. The system of Locke was the foundation of his philosophy, but was extended by him with great acuteness, interwoven with observations of his own, and exhibited in a manner full of life and taste. In the society of the princess Gallitzin, to whom he dedicated several of his writings, under the name of Diotima and of the count of Furstenberg, he made a journey through Germany, in which he collected a rich treasure of observations on the fine arts, which he communicated to his friend and colleague Smeth, in a letter originally written in Dutch, and translated into French. His philosophical views he has expressed in particular, in the dialogue "Sophyle ou de la Philosophie." Another class of his writings refers chiefly to the philosophy of the arts and to archæology; among which, the "Lettre sur la Sculpture," in which he treats on the objects of the fine arts, and in particular of sculpture, and on their different periods. The dialogue "Aristée ou de la Divinité" is devoted to the philosophy of religion as well as the celebrated "Lettre de Dioclès à Diotime sur l'Athéisme." His other writings are, a dialogue, "Alexis, ou de l'Age d'Or" (on the Golden Age), and the masterly "Description Philosophique du Caractère du feu M. Fr. Fagel." All these writings were collected and published by Jansen, first in 1792, and in a second edition in 1809. Of the circumstances of his private life we know nothing more particular than that he was born in 1720, that he resided first at Leyden, then at the Hague, as a private individual, that he occupied for some time the post of first clerk in the office of the secretary of the United Netherlands, and was one of the directors of the drawing academy at Amsterdam. He died at the Hague in 1790.

**HENAULT, CHARLES JOHN FRANCIS,** an

eminent French historian and writer on polite literature. He was the son of a farmer-general, and was born at Paris in 1685. He first adopted the ecclesiastical profession, and entered among the fathers of the oratory; but he quitted that society for the long robe, and obtained the posts of president of the chamber of inquests, and superintendent of the finances of the queen's household. He produced a poem, which in 1707 obtained a prize from the French academy, and in 1713 his tragedy of "Cornelia" was brought on the stage, where, however, it was not well received. In 1723 he was admitted into the French academy; and he also became a member of the academy of inscriptions and belles-lettres, and of other literary associations. He was ultimately connected with madame du Deffand, and from his rank, as well as his talents, he held a distinguished station among the Parisian literati. His "Abrégé Chronologique de l'Histoire de France," exhibiting a tabular view of French history, has been translated into several languages, and been repeatedly imitated. He was also the author of several comedies, poems, academical discourses, &c. He died in 1770.

**HENGIST.**—This celebrated founder of the kingdom of Kent in Great Britain, and his brother Horsa, were renowned among the Saxons for their bodily strength and the antiquity of their family. In 449 the Britons sued for aid from the Saxons against the inroads of the Scots and Picts. The Saxons had long been desirous of invading our island, and therefore gladly accepted the invitation. Under the command of Hengist and Horsa, they landed at the mouth of the Thames, attacked the enemies of the Britons, and defeated them near Stamford. The victory obtained with so much facility convinced them that they could easily subdue a people who were unable to resist so feeble an enemy. They sent intelligence to Saxony of the fertility and wealth of the country, and represented as both easy and certain the subjection of a people who had so long forgotten the use of arms, and who were divided among themselves. As soon as they had received reinforcements from home, they sought occasion for a quarrel, under the pretext that their subsidies were ill paid and their supplies withheld; and ceasing to dissemble any longer, they united with the Scots and Picts, and attacked the Britons. The latter had taken up arms, deposed their king, Vortigern, who had become odious by his vices and by the ruinous consequences of his policy, and placed his son Vortimer upon the throne. The war was now carried on with the greatest fury. The Anglo-Saxons penetrated to the interior of the country, laying waste all before them and practising the most shocking cruelties. The Britons were forced to flee or submit to the yoke of the victors. Some fled to Armorica or Haute-Bretagne, to which they gave their name. Hengist, who had lost his brother in the battle near Eglesford (now Aylsford), founded the kingdom of Kent, which embraces the present counties of Kent, Middlesex, Essex, and part of Surrey. He established his residence in Canterbury, and died about the year 488, leaving his kingdom to his posterity. A brother and a nephew, whom he had called over to England, settled in Northumberland. Their example was followed by other chiefs, who founded the Saxon Hierarchy.

**HENKE, HENRY PHILIP CONRAD,** a learned professor of theology at Helmstädt, who was born



in 1752 at Hehlen. He applied himself particularly to philology. His favourite author was Quintilian, with a translation of whom he began his literary career. Henke was one of the editors of the "Latin Journal," then published under the direction of Schirac, professor in Helmstädt, and received his degrees in the philosophical faculty. In 1778 he received the place of a professor extraordinary of theology at Helmstädt. His literary reputation was founded on his "Ecclesiastical History," of which the first volume appeared in 1788, and which passed through several new editions before it was completed by Vater. Henke was an enemy of that dogmatical theology which imposes constraints on opinion and discourages free investigation; indeed he may be said to have been a Protestant in the true sense of the word. His work on dogmatics is written in classical Latin, and is another proof of his learning in the history of theology. He died in May 1809.

HENLEY, JOHN, an English clergyman, possessed of considerable talents, but principally distinguished for the irregularity of his conduct, and commonly known towards the middle of the last century by the title of Orator Henley. He was educated at Cambridge, and entered into holy orders. After having conducted a free school, and held a curacy, he grew tired of his secluded situation, and went to London in search of an ampler field for his abilities. He was first engaged as a preacher at an episcopal chapel, but, dissatisfied with his prospects of church preferment, he resigned his appointments and commenced public orator. Having opened a chapel in the neighbourhood of Newport market, he gave lectures on theological topics on Sundays, and other subjects on Wednesdays, every week. Novelty procured him a multitude of hearers, but he was too imprudent to gain any permanent advantage from his project. After having served as a butt for the satirical wits, poets, and painters of his time, he removed his oratory to Clare Market, and sunk into comparative obscurity and contempt, previously to his death in 1756.

HENLEY, SAMUEL, a distinguished divine of the church of England. He spent the early part of his life in America, and in 1805 was placed at the head of the East India College at Hertford. He died in 1813, having published many works on controversial subjects, of which the principal is a "Dissertation on the Controverted Passages in St. Peter and St. Jude." Mr. Henley was a good classical scholar.

HENNIKER, SIR FREDERICK, an English traveller, who was born in 1793. He was educated at Cambridge, and early exhibited a desire to explore distant lands. His "Notes during a Visit to Egypt, Jerusalem, and Turkey," is an interesting work. Sir Frederick Henniker died in 1825.

HENRY, the name of several emperors of Germany and kings of England and France, of which our limits will only allow us to take the most celebrated.—Henry IV., emperor of Germany, styled the Great, was memorable for his quarrels with Pope Gregory II., whom at one time he deposed for having presumed to judge his sovereign; but at another, dreading the effects of the papal anathemas, he had the weakness to submit to the most humiliating personal solicitations and penances to obtain absolution; which impolitic measure increased the power of the pope and alienated the affections of his subjects: thus circumstanced, he re-assumed the hero, but too

late; marched with an army to Rome, expelled Gregory, deposed him, and set up another pope. Gregory died soon after, but Urban II. and Pascal II. successively excited his ambitious sons, Conrad and Henry, to rebel against him, and the latter was crowned emperor by the title of Henry V. in 1106; and he had the inhumanity to arrest his father, and to deprive him, not only of all his dignities, but even of the necessities of life. The unfortunate Henry IV. was reduced to such extremities, after having fought more than sixty battles in defence of the German empire, that he is said to have solicited the bishop of Spire to grant him an under-chamberlain's place in his cathedral, but was refused. He died the same year at Liege, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, a martyr to the ignorance and superstition of the age, and to his own blind confidence in favourites and mistresses.

HENRY IV., king of France and Navarre, was born in 1553, and was the son of Anthony de Bourbon, chief of the branch of Bourbon (so called from a fief of that name which fell to them by marriage with the heiress of the estate). His mother, the daughter of Henry d'Albert, king of Navarre, was a woman of a masculine genius, and a zealous Protestant. Foreseeing that her party would want a protector, she undertook the care of the education of the young prince: his diet was coarse, his clothes plain, he always went bare-headed, and he was accustomed to climb the rocks and neighbouring mountains, according to the custom of the country. In the sixteenth year of his age he was declared the Defender and Chief of the Protestants at Rochelle. The peace of St. Germain, concluded in 1570, recalled the lords in the Protestant interest to court; and in 1572 Henry was married to Margaret de Valois, sister to Charles IX. king of France. It was in the midst of the rejoicings for these nuptials that the massacre of Paris took place, and Henry was reduced by this to the alternative of changing his religion or being put to death. He chose the former, and was detained a prisoner of state for three years. In 1587 he made his escape, put himself at the head of the Huguenot party, exposing himself to all the risks and fatigues of a religious war, often in want of the necessities of life, and enduring all the hardships of the common soldier; but he gained a victory this year at Courtras, which established his reputation in arms and endeared him to the Protestants. On the death of Henry III. religion was urged as a pretext for one half of the officers of the French army to reject him, and for the leaguers not to acknowledge him. A phantom, the cardinal de Bourbon, was set up against him, but his most formidable rival was the duke de Mayenne. However Henry, with few friends, fewer important places, no money, and a very small army, supplied every want by his activity and valour. He gained several victories over the duke, particularly that of Ivry in 1590, memorable for his heroic admonition to his soldiers: "If you love your ensigns rally by my white plume, you will always find it in the road to honour and glory." Paris held out against him notwithstanding his success. He took all the suburbs in one day, and might have reduced the city by famine if he had not humanely suffered his own army to relieve the besieged; yet the bigoted priesthood turned soldiers, and daily made military reviews and processions, the sword in one hand and the crucifix in the other, on which they made the citizens swear rather to die with famine than to



admit Henry. The duke of Mayenne, finding that neither Spain nor the league would ever grant him the crown of France, determined to assist in giving it to the lawful heir. He engaged the states to hold a conference with the chiefs of both parties, which ended in Henry's abjuration of the Protestant religion at St. Dennis, and his consecration at Chartres in 1593. The following year Paris opened its gates to him. In 1596 the duke of Mayenne was pardoned, and in 1598 peace was concluded with Spain. Henry now showed himself worthy of the throne by his encouragement of commerce, the fine arts, and manufactures, and by his patronage of men of learning. But though the bigotry of the Catholic clergy was calmed the leaven was not destroyed; scarce a year passed without some attempt being made on the life of the king, and at last the monster Ravallac stabbed him to the heart in his coach in the streets of Paris on the 14th of May, 1610, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

The principal monument erected to his memory in Paris is represented beneath.



**HENRY IV.,** king of England—This monarch was the first sovereign of the line of Lancaster. He was born in 1367, and succeeded to the crown by



the deposition of Richard. Henry may be said to have been created king by the voice of a few turbu-

lent nobles, who very soon afterwards endeavoured to drive him from the throne. In 1400 a plot was discovered which had nearly proved successful, and the disaffected under Owen Glendower long proved a source of disturbance to the sovereign. The earl of Northumberland also received repeated causes of offence from Henry, and it was not till the battle of Shrewsbury in 1403 that the kingdom obtained a temporary quiet.

A new insurrection, headed by the earl of Nottingham and the archbishop of York, broke out in 1405, which was suppressed by Prince John, and the ecclesiastic suffered capital punishment, being the first instance of the kind that had occurred in this country. Soon after this the king captured James, the son and heir to Robert king of Scotland, and so distinguished a prisoner ensured the terms of a lasting peace. Henry died in the metropolis while making arrangements for visiting the Holy Land, after a reign of thirteen years. The lower and middle ranks of the people were materially benefitted by the laws and acts of this sovereign, as he found it necessary to call in their aid against the assumptions of the barons and higher nobility.

**HENRY VIII.,** king of England, was the second son of Henry VII., by Elizabeth the eldest daughter of Edward IV. He was born at Greenwich on the 28th of June, 1491, and on the death of his brother Arthur, in 1502, he was created prince of Wales; and the following year betrothed to Catharine of Aragon, Prince Arthur's widow, the pope having granted a dispensation for that purpose. Henry VIII. acceded to the throne on the death of his father, the 22nd of April, 1509, and his marriage with Catharine was solemnized about two months after. In the beginning of his reign he left the government of his kingdom entirely to his ministers, and spent his time chiefly in tournaments, balls, concerts, and other expensive amusements. We are told that he was so extravagant in his pleasures, that in a very short time he entirely dissipated 1,800,000*l.* which his father left him; however, he was not so totally absorbed in pleasure but he found leisure to sacrifice to the resentment of the people two of his father's ministers, Empson and Dudley. A house in London, which had belonged to the former of these, was in 1510 given to Thomas Wolsey, who was now the king's almoner, and who from this period began to rise in Henry's favour. In 1513 he became prime minister, and from that moment governed the king and kingdom with absolute power. In this year Henry declared war against France, gained the battle of Spurs, and took the towns of Terouenne and Tournay; but before he embarked his troops he beheaded the earl of Suffolk, who had been long confined in the Tower. In 1521 he sacrificed the duke of Buckingham to the resentment of his prime minister, Wolsey, and the same year obtained from the pope the title of Defender of the Faith.

Henry in the year 1527 resolved to obtain a divorce from his queen, but after many fruitless solicitations, finding it impossible to persuade the pope to annul his marriage with Catharine, he espoused Anne Boleyn in the year 1531. During this interval his favourite Wolsey was disgraced, and died; and in 1535 he put to death Sir Thomas More, Fisher, and others, for denying his supremacy, and suppressed all the lesser monasteries. His majesty, having now possessed his second queen about five years, fell in

love with Lady Jane Seymour. Anne Boleyn was accused of adultery with her own brother, and with three other persons, and the unfortunate queen was in consequence condemned to death, and she was beheaded on the 19th of May, 1536. Henry married Jane Seymour the day following. In 1537 he put to death five of the noble family of Kildare for the purpose of intimidating the Irish, of whose disloyalty he had some apprehensions; and in the year following he executed the marquis of Exeter, with four other persons of distinction, for the sole crime of corresponding with Cardinal Pole. In 1538 and 1539 he suppressed all the monasteries in England, and seized their revenues for his own use. The queen having died in childbed, he this year married the princess Anne of Cleves; but disliking her person, immediately determined to be divorced, and his obsequious parliament and convocation unanimously pronounced the marriage void for reasons too ridiculous to be recited: but this was not all; Henry was so incensed with his minister and favourite, Cromwell, for negotiating this match, that he revenged himself by the hand of the executioner. Yet this was not the only public murder of the year 1540. A few days after Cromwell's death several persons were burnt for denying the king's supremacy and other articles of heresy.



His majesty being once more at liberty to indulge himself with another wife, fixed upon Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, and she was declared queen in August 1540, but they had been privately married some time before. Henry, it seems, was so entirely satisfied with this lady, that he daily blessed God for his present felicity; but that felicity was of short duration. He had not been married a twelvemonth before the queen was accused of a want of chastity both before and after her marriage: she admitted a part of the charge, and was beheaded in 1542. In 1543 he married his sixth wife, the lady Catharine Parr, the widow of John Nevil Lord Latimer, and lived to the year 1547 without committing any more flagrant enormities; but finding his end approaching, he made his will, and that the last scene of his life might resemble the rest, he determined to end the tragedy with the murder of two of his best friends and most faithful subjects, the duke of Norfolk and his son the earl of

Surrey. The earl was beheaded on the 19th of January, and the duke was ordered for execution on the 29th, but fortunately escaped by the king's death on the 28th. They were condemned without the shadow of a crime; but Henry's political reason for putting them to death was, his apprehension that if they were suffered to survive him they would counteract some of his regulations in religion and might be troublesome to his son. Henry died on the 28th of January 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and was buried at Windsor.

The character of this monarch is obvious from the facts above related, but historians have differed considerably in opinion respecting him. Lord Herbert palliates his crimes, and exaggerates what he calls his "virtues." Bishop Burnet says, "he was rather to be reckoned among the great than the good princes." He afterwards acknowledges that "he is to be numbered among the ill princes;" but adds, "I cannot rank him with the worst." Sir Walter Raleigh, with infinitely more justice, says, "If all the pictures and patterns of a merciless prince were lost to the world, they might again be painted to the life out of the history of this king."

HENRY OF HUNTINGDON, an English historian of the twelfth century, was canon of Lincoln, and afterwards archdeacon of Huntingdon. He wrote several historical works, among which we may particularly enumerate a *History of England*, which ends with the year 1154, a continuation of that of Bede, and "*Chronological Tables of the Kings of England*."

HENRY, THE MINSTREL, commonly called Blind Harry, an ancient Scottish author, distinguished by no particular surname, but well known as the composer of an historical poem describing the achievements of Sir William Wallace.

It is difficult to ascertain the precise time in which this poet lived, or when he wrote his poem, as the two authors who mention him speak somewhat differently. Dempster, who wrote in the beginning of the seventeenth century, says that he lived in the year 1361; but Major, who was born in the year 1446, says that he composed this book during the time of his infancy, which we must therefore suppose to have been a few years subsequent to 1446, for if it had been composed that very year the circumstance would probably have been mentioned. As little can we suppose from Dempster's words that Henry was born in 1361, for though he says that he lived in that year we must naturally imagine rather that he was then come to the years of maturity, or began to distinguish himself in the world, than that he was only born at that time. The author of the dissertation on his life, prefixed to the new edition of the poem, endeavours to reconcile matters in the following manner: "It is not indeed impossible that he might be born in or about the year 1361. In the time of Major's infancy he might be about eighty-three years of age. In that case, it may be supposed that it was the work of his old age to collect and put in order the detached pieces of his '*History of Wallace*,' which he had probably composed in those parts of the country where the incidents were said to have happened."

We are entirely ignorant of the family from which Henry was descended, though from his writings we should be led to suppose that he had received a liberal education. In them he shows that he possessed a considerable knowledge of divinity, classical history, and astronomy, as well as of the languages.



From what Major says further of him we are led to suppose that his profession must have been that of a travelling bard, though it does not appear that he was skilled in music, or had no other profession than that just mentioned. His being blind from his birth, indeed, makes this not improbable; though even this circumstance is not inconsistent with the supposition of his being a religious mendicant.

With regard to the authenticity of his histories, Major informs us only that he "does not believe every thing that he finds in such writings;" but from other testimonies it appears that he consulted the very best authorities which could at that time be had. Though, according to the most early account of Henry, it appears to have been at least fifty-six years after the death of Wallace that Henry was born, yet he is said to have consulted with several of the descendants of those who had been the companions of that hero while he achieved his most celebrated exploits, and who were still capable of ascertaining the veracity of what he published. The principal of these were Wallace of Craigie and Liddel of that Ilk, who, he says, persuaded him to omit in his history a circumstance which he ought to have inserted. Besides these, he consulted with the principal people of the kingdom; and he utterly disclaims the idea of having adhered entirely to any unwritten tradition, or having been promised any reward for what he wrote.

The descriptive parts of Henry's poem are evidently deficient, and the allusions taken principally from the way in which nature affects those senses of which he was possessed. Thus, speaking of the month of March, he calls it the month of right digestion from the supposed fermentation then begun in the earth. Of April he says that the earth is then able, or has obtained a power of producing its different vegetables; and of this productive power he appears to have been more sensible than of the effects which commonly strike us most sensibly. "By the working of nature," he says, "the fields are again clothed and the woods acquire their worthy weed of green. May brings along with it great celestial gladness. The heavenly hues appear upon the tender green;" and in another place he describes the deity of some river, whom he calls Nymphæus, "building his bower with oil and balm, fulfilled of sweet odour."

HENRY, PHILIP, a learned nonconformist minister, who was born at Whitehall in 1631. He was admitted into Westminster school at about twelve years of age, became the favourite of Dr. Busby, and was employed by him, with some others, in collecting materials for the Greek Grammar he afterwards published. From thence he removed to Christ Church, Oxford, where, having obtained the degree of master of arts, he was taken into the family of Judge Puleston as a tutor to his sons and to preach at Worthenbury. When the king and episcopacy were restored he refused to conform, was ejected, and retired with his family to Broad Oak. Here, and in the neighbourhood, he spent the remainder of his life, relieving the poor, employing the industrious, instructing the ignorant, and exercising every opportunity of doing good. His moderation in his non-conformity was eminent and exemplary; and upon all occasions he bore testimony against uncharitable and schismatical separation. He thought it lawful to join in the common prayer in public assemblies;

which, during the time of his restraint, he commonly attended with his family with reverence and devotion.

HENRY, MATTHEW, a distinguished dissenting minister, who was born in 1662. He was educated at an academy near Islington, where he made great progress in the Hebrew and Greek languages. In 1686 he was ordained to the ministry, and had a small congregation at Chester, where he remained for twenty-five years. He died at Nantwich in 1714. The following may be considered as a brief enumeration of his principal works. In 1689 appeared "A Discourse concerning the Nature of Schism," "The Life of Mr. Philip Henry" in 1696, "A Scripture Catechism" in 1702, "Family Hymns" in 1702, "The Communicant's Companion" in 1704, "Four Discourses against Vice and Immorality" in 1705, and lastly, his great work on the Bible, of which editions continue still to be multiplied. Mr. Henry however had not completed the work at the time of his death; and the last volume, from Romans to Revelations, was written, with some assistance from his MSS., by several distinguished dissenting clergymen.

HENRY, ROBERT, this distinguished historian was born at Muirtown, Scotland, in 1718. He was educated at Edinburgh, and afterwards became master of the grammar-school of Annan. He was licensed to preach on the 27th of March, 1746, and was the first licentiate of the presbytery of Annan after its erection into a separate presbytery. Soon after he received a call from a congregation of presbyterian dissenters at Carlisle, where he was ordained in November 1748. In this station he remained twelve years, and in 1760 became pastor of a congregation in Berwick upon Tweed. In 1768 he was removed from Berwick to be one of the ministers of Edinburgh, and was minister of the church of the New Grey Friars from that time till November 1776. He then became colleague-minister in the old church, and in that station remained till his death, which happened in November 1790. The degree of doctor in divinity was conferred on him by the university of Edinburgh in 1770; and in 1774 he was unanimously chosen moderator of the general assembly of the church of Scotland. Dr. Henry's "History of England" still remains a popular work; indeed it is one of the best that has yet been published.

HEPBURN, JAMES.—This learned scholar was born at Hamstocks in Scotland in 1573. He was educated at St. Andrew's, and then travelled through Turkey, Persia, Syria, and most other countries of the east, devoting his attention principally to the study of their languages; on his return he entered into a convent of Minims in the neighbourhood of Avignon, which he exchanged after some time for the monastery of the Holy Trinity at Rome, belonging to the same order. His fame as a linguist having reached the ears of Pope Paul V., he appointed him librarian of oriental books and MSS. in the vatican, in which office he remained six years. He is said to have been at Venice in 1620, whither he had gone with an intention of translating some Hebrew, Syriac, and Chaldaic writings, and is supposed to have died there in that or the following year. His principal works are, "A Hebrew and Chaldaic Dictionary," and an "Arabic Grammar," forming one volume quarto, printed at Rome in 1601.

HERACLITUS.—A celebrated philosopher of an-

tiquity, who was a native of Ephesus, and born about 500 years B.C. He early devoted himself to study; and after having been initiated into the mysteries of the Pythagorean doctrine by Hippasus, he incorporated it in his own. He died when he had attained his sixtieth year, and left a work which principally relates to religion and politics. It was written in an obscure and figurative style, and therefore excited but little attention and was finally lost. From the little of his philosophy which has come down to us, it appears that he considered fire as the element of all things, probably meaning not the common fire, but an ethereal fiery substance; which supposition is reconcilable with the account that he considered the pure air or vapour to be the primitive element. "From this originates the world, and it is in turn re-produced by the world. Every thing is in a constant state of change. The act of originating is separation from the primitive existence and substance, and is founded on opposition, enmity; extinction is the solution into the primitive substance, is union, love. Both together form the harmony of the primitive substance, and operate according to the law of necessity. We think through the divine reason, which we draw in by breathing while we are awake. In reason alone is truth, that is, in the universal human reason. The soul after death passes over into the soul of the world." He is said to have continually bewailed the wicked lives of men, and as often as he came among them to have fallen a-weeping, contrary to Democritus, who made the follies of mankind a subject of laughter. He retired to the temple of Diana and played at dice with the boys there, saying to the Ephesians who gathered round him, "Worst of men, what do you wonder at? Is it not better to do thus than to govern you?"

HERBELOT, BARTHOLOMEW D', a French writer, eminent for his oriental learning. He was born at Paris in 1625, and travelled several times into Italy, where he obtained the esteem of some of the most learned men of the age. Ferdinand II., grand duke of Tuscany, gave him many marks of favour; and when a library was to be sold at Florence, the duke desired him to examine the manuscripts in the oriental languages, to select the best of them, and to mark the price; which being done, that generous prince purchased them and made him a present of them. M. Colbert, being at length informed of Herbelot's merit, recalled him to Paris and obtained a pension for him of 1500 livres. He afterwards became secretary and interpreter of the oriental languages, and royal professor of the Syriac tongue. He died at Paris in 1695. His principal work is entitled "*Bibliothèque Orientale*," which he first wrote in Arabic and afterwards translated into French.

HERBERT, MARY, countess of Pembroke, was sister of the celebrated Sir Philip Sidney, and wife of Henry earl of Pembroke. She was not only a lover of poetry but a great encourager of elegant literature. Her brother dedicated his romance of "*Arcadia*" to her. She translated a dramatic piece from the French, entitled "*Antoniüs*," a tragedy, though it is said she was assisted by her lord's chaplain, Dr. Babington, afterwards bishop of Exeter. She also composed a version of the Psalms of David in English metre, but it is doubtful whether these works were ever printed. She died in 1621.

HERBERT, GEORGE, an English poet and divine, was brother to Lord Herbert of Cherbury.

He was born in 1593, and educated at Cambridge. In 1619 he was chosen public orator of that university, and afterwards obtained a sinecure from the king. In 1626 he was collated to the prebend of Layton Ecclesia in the diocese of Lincoln, and in 1630 was inducted into the rectory of Bamerton near Sarum. The great Lord Bacon had such an opinion of his judgment that he would not suffer his works to be printed before they had passed his examination. He wrote a volume of devout poems called "*The Temple*," and another entitled "*The Priest of the Temple*." This pious divine died about the year 1635.

HERBERT, SIR THOMAS, an eminent gentleman of the Pembroke family, who was born at York. William earl of Pembroke sent him to travel at his expence in 1626, and he spent four years in visiting Asia and Africa. His expectations of preferment ending with the death of the earl, he went abroad again and travelled over several parts of Europe. In 1634 he published "*A Relation of Some Years' Travel into Africa and the Great Asia, especially the Territories of the Persian Monarchy, and Some Parts of the Oriental Indies and Isles adjacent*." On the breaking out of the civil war he adhered to King Charles; and at Oldenby, on the removal of the king's servants, by desire of the commissioners from the parliament, he and James Harrington were retained as grooms of his bed-chamber, and attended him even to the block. At the Restoration he was created a baronet by Charles II. for his faithful services to his father during his two last years. In 1678 he wrote "*Threnodia Carolina*," containing an account of the two last years of the life of Charles I., and he assisted Sir William Dugdale in compiling the third volume of his "*Monasticon Anglicanum*." He died at York in 1682, leaving several MSS. to the public library at Oxford, and others to that of the cathedral at York.

HERBERT, EDWARD.—This extraordinary historian and politician was born at Montgomery in 1581. He was educated at Oxford, where he excelled all the scholars of his time in elegant accomplishments. In 1600 he came to London, and shortly after the accession of James I. was created knight of the bath. He served the office of high sheriff for the county of Montgomery, and divided his time between the country and the court. In 1608 he visited the continent. His advantageous person and manners, and the reputation for courage which he acquired gained him many friends, among whom was the constable Montmorenci. At a seat of this nobleman he passed several months practising horsemanship and other manly exercises, in which he became singularly expert. He returned to England in 1609, and in the following year he quitted it again in order that he might have the opportunity of serving with the English forces sent to assist the prince of Orange at the siege of Juliers. Here he signalized himself by his valour, which, in some instances, was carried to the extreme of rashness. After the siege he visited Antwerp and Brussels, and then returned to London. After the breaking out of the civil wars he adhered to the parliament, and in 1644 "had an allowance granted him for his livelihood, having been spoiled by the king's forces," as Whitelocke says, or, as Wood relates it, "received satisfaction from the members of that house for their causing Montgomery castle to be demolished." In the parliamentary history,



it is said that Lord Herbert offended the House of Lords by a speech in favour of the king, and that he attended his majesty at York. It appears that when he saw the drift of the parliamentary party he quitted them, and was a great sufferer in his fortune from their vengeance. He died at his house in Queen Street, London, August 20th, 1648, and was buried in the chapel of St. Giles's in the Fields.

Lord Herbert's principal work is entitled "*De Veritate*." It was printed at Paris in 1624, and reprinted there in 1633, after which it was printed in London in 1645. In this he is said to have been the first author who formed deism into a system and endeavoured to assert the sufficiency, universality, and absolute perfection of natural religion, without the necessity of any extraordinary revelation. He attempted to prove that the light of reason and the innate principles planted in the human mind are sufficient to discover the great doctrines of morality, to regulate our actions, and conduct us to happiness in a future state. The fallacy of all this has been ably displayed by Locke, Leland, and many other writers of eminence. But the noble author proved himself the greatest enthusiast while he affected to combat enthusiasm, and by his own example evinced the absurdity of his system.

Gassendi wrote a confutation of Lord Herbert's "*De Veritate*" at the desire of Peirescius and Elias Diodati, and finished it at Aix without publishing it; and when Lord Herbert paid him a visit in 1647 Gassendi was surprised to find that his work had not been delivered to him, though he had sent him a copy, upon which he ordered another copy to be prepared, which that nobleman carried with him to England. It was afterwards published in Gassendi's works under the title of "*Ad Librum D. Edvardi Herberti Angli de Veritate Epistola*," but is imperfect, some sheets of the original being lost.

His most useful work, the "*History of the Life and Reign of Henry VIII.*," was published in 1649, a year after his death, and has always been much admired. Nicolson says that Lord Herbert "acquitted himself in this history with the like reputation as the lord chancellor Bacon gained by that of Henry VII., for in the public and martial part this honourable author has been admirably particular and exact from the best records that were extant, though as to the ecclesiastical he seems to have looked upon it as a thing out of his province, and an undertaking more proper for men of another profession." Although it has been considered as a very valuable piece of history, there is not, perhaps, so much candour displayed in every part as could be wished. In 1663 appeared his book "*De Religione Gentilium, Errorumque apud Eos Causis*." The first part was printed at London in 1645, and that year he sent the MS. of it to Gerard Vossius, as appears from a letter of his lordship's and Vossius's answer. An English translation of this work was published in 1705 under this title, "*The Ancient Religion of the Gentiles, and Causes of their Errors Considered. The Mistakes and Failures of the Heathen Priests and Wise Men in their Notions of the Deity and Matters of Divine Worship are examined with regard to their being Destitute of Divine Revelation.*"

HERDER, JOHN GODFREY VON, a classical German author, who was born in August 1744 at Mohrungen in Eastern Prussia. His early edu-

cation was not favorable to the developement of his faculties, as his father permitted him to read only the Bible and the hymn-book; but an insatiable thirst for learning led him to prosecute his studies in secret. The clergyman of the place employed him as a copyist, and soon discovered his talents and allowed him to participate in the lessons which he gave his own children in Latin and Greek. At this time young Herder suffered from a serious disease of the eyes, which was the occasion of his becoming better known to a Russian surgeon who lived at the clergyman's house, and who was struck with the engaging manners and pleasing appearance of the youth. He offered to take Herder with him to Königsberg and to Petersburg, and to teach him surgery gratuitously. Herder, who had no hope of being able to follow his inclinations, left his native city in 1762, but in Königsberg he fainted at the first dissection at which he was present. He now resolved to study theology. Some gentlemen to whom he became known, and who immediately interested themselves in his favour, procured him an appointment in Frederic's College, where he was, at first, tutor to some scholars, and, at a later period, instructor in the first philosophical and second Latin class, which left him time to study: indeed his unrelaxing zeal and diligence penetrated the most difficult branches of science, theology, philosophy, philology, natural and civil history, and politics.

In 1764 he was appointed an assistant teacher at the cathedral school of Riga, with which office that of a preacher was connected. His pupils at school, as well as his hearers at church, were enthusiastically attached to him, so much so that it was thought necessary to give him a more spacious church. His sermons were distinguished by simplicity, united with a sincere devotion to evangelical truth and original investigation. In 1767 he received from Petersburg the offer of the superintendence of St. Peter's school in that city, but he declined this offer, and even gave up his place at Riga because he could not resist his inclination to study the arts in their sources and men on the stage of life. He had already arrived in France, when he was appointed travelling tutor to the prince of Holstein-Oldenburg, who was on a tour through France and Italy. But in Strasburg he was prevented from proceeding by the disease of his eyes, which had returned with more severity than before; and here he became acquainted with Göthe, on whom he had a very decided influence. Herder had already published his "*Fragments on German Literature*," his critical works, and other productions which had gained him a considerable reputation, though he had not at this time published any thing of importance in theology; yet while in Strasburg he was invited to become court preacher, superintendent, and consistorial counsellor, at Buckeburg, whither he proceeded in 1771. He soon made himself known as a distinguished theologian, and in 1775 was offered a professorship at Göttingen, which he, however, did not accept immediately because the king had not confirmed his appointment unconditionally, and, contrary to custom, he was expected to undergo a kind of examination. But, being married, Herder did not feel at liberty to decline the appointment. On the very day when he had resolved to go to Göttingen, he received an invitation to become court preacher, general superintendent,

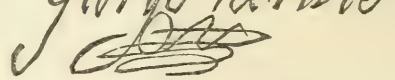
and consistorial counsellor at Weimar. This appointment was obtained through the influence of Göthe. He arrived in Weimar in October 1776. It was at the time when the duke Augustus and the princess Amelia had collected many of the most distinguished German literati at their court. Weimar was greatly benefited by Herder's labours as a pulpit orator, inspector of the schools of the country, the patron of merit, and the founder of many excellent institutions.

In 1801 he was made president of the high consistory—a place never before given to a person not a nobleman, but Herder was subsequently made a noble by the elector of Bavaria. He says himself that he accepted the rank for the sake of his children: of course, it could be of little consequence to him personally. He died in December 1803.

Germany is deeply indebted to Herder for his valuable works in almost every branch of literature, and few authors have had a greater influence upon the public taste in that country. As a theologian Herder contributed to a better understanding of the historical and antiquarian part of the Old Testament. He did much for the better understanding of the classical authors, and his philosophical views of human character are full of instruction, and he contributed much towards a more active study of nature, brought before the public the poetry of past times of Europe and Asia, and awakened a taste for national songs. His greatest work is his "*Ideen zur Philosophie der Geschichte der Menschheit*," in which all the light of his great mind is concentrated. "In early years," says Herder, "when the fields of knowledge lay before me with all the glow of a morning sun, from which the meridian sun of life takes away so much of the charm, the idea often occurred to my mind whether, like other great subjects of thought, each of which has its philosophy and science, that subject also which lies nearest to our hearts—the history of mankind, viewed as a whole—might not also have its philosophy and science. Every thing reminded me of this idea—metaphysics and morals, natural philosophy and natural history,—lastly and most powerfully, religion." This is the key to all Herder's life. The object of his investigations was to find the point from which he might calmly survey every thing and see how all things converge. He did not attempt to arrive at this point by metaphysical speculations, but by observation, by the constant study of nature and the mind in all its works, in the arts, law, language, religion, medicine, poetry, &c. Whatever may be said against parts of his work above mentioned, it is one of the noblest productions of modern literature. The style of Herder is pure and correct. In poetry Herder effected more by his various accomplishments, his vast knowledge, and fine taste, than by creative power; yet he has produced some charming songs, and his "*Cid*," a collection of Spanish romances into a kind of epic, is one of the most popular poems of Germany.

**HERIOTE, GEORGE.**—This benevolent individual was born in Edinburgh, June 12th, 1563. His father was a wealthy goldsmith of that city. By a writ of privy seal the son was confirmed in the appointment to the office of goldsmith to Anne of Denmark, the young and beautiful queen of James VI., shortly after which he was made jeweller and goldsmith to the king. At the union of the crowns

Heriote followed the court to London, where he realized an immense fortune; and a very interesting picture of this worthy court retainer is given by Sir Walter Scott in one of his historical novels. Having no children, he disposed of his fortune, after liberally providing for his numerous relatives, friends, and servants, for the purpose of founding an hospital in Edinburgh, as the founder expresses it in his last disposition and assignation, "for the honour and due regard which I have and bear to my native soil and mother city of Edinburgh aforesaid, and in imitation of the public, pious, and religious work founded in the city of London, called Christ's Hospital." \* \* "for the edification, nourishing, and upbringing of youth, being poor orphans and fatherless children of decayed burgesses and freemen of said burgh."

*George Heriote*  


After liquidating the various legacies the balance in the hands of the magistrates of Edinburgh, amounting to the sum of 23,625*l.*, was in part applied to carry into effect the pious injunction of Heriote. The present magnificent structure, agreeably to a plan attributed to the celebrated Inigo Jones, was begun, but many difficulties impeded the progress of its completion. The great national troubles of that period stopped the payment of its revenues in 1639, and Cromwell after the battle of Dunbar converted it into an hospital for the sick and wounded of his army. When finished, the building cost 30,000*l.* sterling, and it forms one of the noblest public ornaments of the city of Edinburgh. The judicious management of the funds of the hospital enabled its early patrons to expend this large sum on it.

On the 11th of April, 1659, thirty boys were admitted; in August next they were increased to forty, and in 1661 to fifty-two. The establishment now contains 180 boys.

In the year 1681 a circumstance happened of a political nature in which the urchins of the institution acted a part which gained them some notoriety. It is known that at this time an oppressive test, inconsistent with the spirit of established liberty and religion of the land, was imposed upon all persons who held or enjoyed public offices. The absurd reasoning of the crown lawyers became the subject of merriment to the town, and the boys of the hospital, resolving to act upon the sage precedent, voted that the dog which guarded the outer gate possessed a "public office," and that he ought to take the test or be turned out of office. A printed copy of the oath was therefore tendered to this sagacious functionary, who after carefully smelling refused to take it till it was rubbed over with butter. But as he only extracted that which was agreeable to himself he was condemned as a traitor—a farcical comment on the proceedings against the brave earl of Argyll, who accepted the oath only "in so far as it was consistent with the Protestant religion," and who was prosecuted for not receiving the same unreservedly.

In accordance with the original idea of Heriote, the system of education in the hospital was at first neither of a learned nor elegant description. The boys are now taught by most approved teachers



English, Latin, Greek, and mathematics, the first principles of natural science and of mechanical philosophy, the elements of English composition, and the higher branches of religious instruction. Not only is every method adopted to qualify the pupils for their future profession, but the paternal care of the institution provides for them when they leave it. Each boy has an allowance of 50*l.* as an apprentice fee, and 5*l.* on finishing his servitude. Those who desire to follow the learned professions are placed at the university and are allowed 30*l.* per annum for four years.

A statue of George Heriote ornaments the piazza on the north side of the hospital: it is represented beneath.



**HERMAN, PAUL**, a celebrated botanist in the seventeenth century, who was born at Halle in Saxony. He practised medicine in the isle of Ceylon, and was afterwards made professor of botany at Leyden, where he died in 1695. He wrote a catalogue of the plants in the public garden at Leyden, and a work entitled "*Floræ Lugduno-Batavæ*."

**HERMANN, JAMES**, a learned mathematician of the academy at Berlin and a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, was born at Basle in 1678. He was a great traveller, and for six years was professor of mathematics at Padua. He afterwards went to Russia, being invited thither by the czar in 1724. At his return to his native country he was made professor of morality and natural law at Basle, and died there in 1733. He wrote several mathematical works.

**HERMBSTÆDT, SIGISMUND FREDERIC**, a learned member of the Royal Academy at Berlin, professor of chemistry and technology at the university of the same city, &c. He was born in April 1760 at Erfurt, where he studied chemistry. In 1791 he was appointed professor of chemistry and pharmacy at the Collegium Medicum Chirurgicum of Berlin, and royal apothecary of the court. He received many appointments, titles, and orders, and, when the university of Berlin was erected, was made a professor. Hermbstædt was one of the most practical chemists of Germany, and on this account was of more service to his country than many of her men

of distinguished learning, who manifested a distaste for the practical application of knowledge. Hermbstædt wrote largely on chemistry, technology, pharmacy, &c., and translated several foreign works on these subjects.

**HERMELIN, SAMUEL GUSTAVUS, BARON**, a Swedish nobleman, eminent for his literary and scientific attainments. He was a native of Stockholm, where he was born in 1744. Having early in life travelled for improvement over a great part of the European continent, he was afterwards entrusted with the conduct of a diplomatic mission from his own government to that of the United States of America. On his return in 1784 he visited this country, of which he made the tour, directing his attention here, as well as in the other countries through which he passed, principally to the study of geology and statistics. In the pursuit of his favourite sciences no small portion of his property and more than fifteen years of his life were devoted to a most laborious geographical undertaking, which, commencing with the survey of Westro-Bothnia and Lapland, finally ripened, through the assistance of a company which he formed on the failure of his own pecuniary resources, into the completion of an entire Swedish atlas. Through his exertions also, and principally at his own expense, great improvements were introduced among the mining establishments of the country, especially in Bothnia, where new forges were erected by him, and the iron mines, of which he was now appointed superintendent, were worked under his direction. After fifty-four years spent in active service he retired from public life in 1815, retaining his salary with an additional pension of 1000 rix dollars. Besides a great variety of tracts printed among the "*Transactions of the Academy of Stockholm*," of which society he had been a member since the year 1771, the following treatises were published by him in a separate form: a "*Mineralogical Description of Lapland and Westro-Bothnia, with Tables of the Population and Industry of the latter Province*;" "*Mineralogical Charts of the Southern Provinces of Sweden*;" "*On the Melting and Casting of Copper Minerals*;" "*On the Use of Stones found in the Swedish Quarries*;" and an "*Essay on the Resources of the Swedish Provinces*." Hermelin closed a long and useful life in May 1820.

**HEROD THE GREAT**, so called from his power and talents, was a celebrated king of the Jews. He was a native of Ascalon in Judea, where he was born B. C. 71, being the second son of Antipater the Idumean, who appointed him to the government of Galilee. He at first embraced the party of Brutus and Cassius, but after their death reconciled himself to Antony, by whose interest he was first named tetrarch and afterwards king of Judea. After the battle of Actium, he so successfully paid his court to the victor, that Augustus confirmed him in his kingdom; and on all occasions his abilities as a politician and commander were conspicuous, but his passions were fierce and ungovernable. Although married to the celebrated Mariamne, a princess of the Asmonean family, her brother Aristobulus and venerable grandfather Hyrcanus fell victims to his jealousy of the ancient pretensions of their race. His very love of Mariamne herself, mingled as it was with the most fearful jealousy, terminated in her execution; and his repentance and keen remorse at her death only exasperated him to further outrages against her sur-

viving relations, her mother Alexandria and many more falling victims to his savage cruelty. His own sons by Mariamne, Alexander and Aristobulus, whose indignation at the treatment of their mother seems to have led them into some intrigues against his authority, were also sacrificed in his anger; and their deaths crowned the domestic barbarity of Herod. It was the latter event which induced Augustus to observe, that it was better to be Herod's hog than his son.

He rebuilt the temple at Jerusalem with great magnificence, and erected a stately theatre and amphitheatre in that city, in which he celebrated games in honour of Augustus, to the great displeasure of the more zealous of the Jews. He also rebuilt Samaria, which he called Sebaste, and adorned it with very sumptuous edifices. He likewise, for his security, constructed many strong fortresses throughout Judea, the principal of which he termed Cæsarea, after the emperor. On his palace near the temple of Jerusalem he lavished the most costly materials, and his residence of Herodium, at some distance from the capital, by the beauty of its situation, drew around it the population of a great city. Such indeed was his magnificence that Augustus said his soul was too great for his kingdom. The birth of our Saviour Jesus Christ took place in the thirty-third year of the reign of Herod, which important event was followed in a year or two by his death, of a languishing and loathsome disease, at the age of sixty-eight. According to Josephus, he planned a scene of posthumous cruelty which could have been conceived only by the hardest and most depraved heart. Having summoned the chief persons among the Jews to Jericho, he caused them to be shut up in the circus, and gave strict orders to his sister Salome to have them massacred at his death, that every great family might weep for him; which savage order was not executed. Herod was the first who shook the foundation of the Jewish government, by dissolving the national council and appointing the high priests and removing them at pleasure without regard to the laws of succession. His policy, ability, and influence with Augustus, however, gave a great temporary splendour to the Jewish nation.

HEROD ANTIPAS, son of Herod the Great by his fifth wife Cleopatra, was appointed tetrarch of Galilee on his death. This was the Herod who put to death St. John the Baptist in compliment to his wife Herodias, in revenge for his reproaches of their incestuous union; Herodias having been united to, and forcibly taken away from, his brother Aretas. The ambition of Herodias stimulated her husband to a measure which proved his ruin. His nephew Agrippa having obtained royal honours from Caligula, she induced Herod to visit Rome to request the same favour, where he was met by an accusation on the part of Agrippa of having been concerned in the conspiracy of Sejanus, and of being in secret league with the king of Parthia. This accusation being credited, he was stripped of his dominions, and sent with his wife into exile at Lyons, or, as some say, to Spain, where he died, after possessing his tetrarchy for forty-three years.

HEROD AGRIPPA, son of Aristobulus by Berenice, daughter of Herod the Great, and nephew to the preceding, was partly educated at Rome with Drusus, the son of Tiberius, on whose death he left Rome with a dilapidated fortune; but he returned

some years after, and, being suspected of an attachment to Caligula, was imprisoned by Tiberius. This apparent misfortune proved the source of his future prosperity, for on the accession of Caligula he was not only rewarded with a golden chain as heavy as the iron one which had bound him, but was honoured with the title of king, and received the tetrarchy of his disgraced uncle and all the dominions of Herod the Great. It was this Herod who, to please the Jews, caused St. James to be put to death and St. Peter to be imprisoned. His power and opulence acquired him a great reputation, and in a grand audience at Cæsarea, having made an oration to some deputies from Tyre and Sidon, he was hailed by his obsequious train as one who spoke like a god. His satisfaction at this flattery was soon after reprovved by a violent disorder in his bowels, which carried him off in the forty-fourth year of his age and seventh of his reign.

HEROD AGRIPPA II., son of the preceding, being too young to govern, Judea was, on his father's death, reduced to a Roman province. He subsequently received the kingdom of Chalcis, and obtained the superintendency of the temple and sacred utensils at Jerusalem, together with the nomination of the high priests. He resided much at Jerusalem, and here, together with his sister Berenice, heard the defence of Paul addressed to the Roman governor Festus. Being driven from Jerusalem in the revolt which proved so fatal to the Jews, he joined Cestius the Roman commander, and, when Vespasian was sent into the province, met him with a considerable reinforcement. During the siege of Jerusalem he was very serviceable to Titus, and after its reduction he and Berenice returned to Rome. He is supposed to have died there A. D. 94, and in him terminated the Herodian line and family.

HERODES ATTICUS, TIBERIUS CLAUDIUS, from Marathon, his birthplace, frequently called Marathonius, was descended from Cécrops, and distinguished for his wealth and brilliant accomplishments. He was born in the reign of Adrian, and held several public offices under the Antonines. A. D. 143, he was appointed *epynomos* of Athens, and died probably after the year 180. The ruins of an *odæon* at Athens, which Pausanias preferred to every other on account of its size and beauty, is the only remnant of all the public buildings, baths, canals, statues, &c., with which Herodes Atticus beautified Italy, Greece, and Asia.

HERODOTUS, an ancient Greek historian of Halicarnassus, who was born about 484 B. C. The city of Halicarnassus being at that time under the tyranny of Lygdamis, grandson of Artemisia queen of Caria, Herodotus quitted his country and retired to Samos, from whence he travelled over Egypt, Greece, Italy, &c., and in his travels acquired a knowledge of the history and politics of several nations. He then began to digest the materials he had collected into order, and composed that history which has preserved his name among men ever since. He wrote it in the isle of Samos according to the general opinion. Lucian informs us that when Herodotus left Caria to go into Greece, he began to consider with himself

"What he should do to be for ever known,  
And make the age to come his own."

in the most expeditious way, and with as little trouble as possible. His history, he presumed, would easily



procure him fame, and raise his fame among the Grecians, in whose favour it was written; but then he foresaw that it would be very tedious to go through the several cities of Greece, and recite it to each respective city—to the Athenians, Corinthians, Argives, Lacedemonians, &c. He thought it best to recite his work at the Olympic games, which rendered him more celebrated than even those who had obtained the prizes. None were ignorant of his name, nor was there a single person in Greece who had not seen him at the Olympic games or heard those speak of him who had seen him there.

His work is divided into nine books, which, according to the computation of Dionysius Halicarnassensis, contain the most remarkable occurrences within a period of 240 years, from the reign of Cyrus the first king of Persia to that of Xerxes, when the historian was living. These nine books are called after the names of the nine Muses, each book being distinguished by the name of a Muse.

When Herodotus relates any occurrence of which he doubts the truth, he honestly expresses his doubts. He has been accused of credulity, but we ought to be thankful to him for having preserved a crowd of traditions which, however marvellous they may be, are characteristic of the genius of antiquity. We are indebted to him alone for the history of the origin and growth of the Persian monarchy, and of those of the earlier Medes and Assyrians. The origin of the kingdom of Lydia; its destruction by Cyrus, and the different expeditions of that celebrated conqueror; the conquest of Egypt by Cambyzes, and the most minute and exact description of that country and its inhabitants; the constant wars of the successors of Cyrus, and particularly the expedition of Darius against the Scythians, which leads the author to a highly instructive and faithful account of all the people then known in the north of Europe and Asia; these are the principal topics of his introduction to the history of the war between the Greeks and Persians. This war, so rich in great events and great characters, in the course of which the powers and defects of the most illustrious nations of antiquity were strongly developed—all this is united in one of the most magnificent and masterly pictures which the human mind has ever conceived. The style and execution of the work excited the admiration of the ablest critics of antiquity; and we also, although to us so many charms are necessarily lost, are powerfully struck with a style so full of nobleness and grace, of energy and simplicity.

**HERRERA TORDESILLAS, ANTONIO DE**, a Spanish historian, whose father's name was Torde-sillas, but who adopted that of Herrera from his mother. He was born at Cuellar in Segovia in 1559. After finishing his education he went to Italy when about twenty years old, and became secretary to Vespasiano Gonzaga, brother to the duke of Mantua, and went back with him to Spain, when Gonzaga became viceroy of Navarre and Valencia. The latter recommended him in his will to Philip II. of Spain, and Herrera was appointed *coronista mayor de las Indias*, and retained that post under Philip II., III., and IV. He died in 1625.

**HERRICK, ROBERT**, an early English poet. He was educated at St. John's College, which he quitted in 1617. Being patronised by the earl of Exeter, he was presented by King Charles I. to the vicarage of Dean Prior in Devonshire, October 1, 1629,

where he became distinguished for his poetical talents and wit. During the prevalence of the parliamentary interest he was ejected from his living, and resided in London until the Restoration, when he again obtained his vicarage. The time of his death is not known. His poetical works are contained in a scarce volume entitled "Hesperides, or the Works, both Humane and Divine, of Robert Herrick." To this volume was appended his "Noble Numbers, or his Pious Pieces," "in which," says Wood, "he sings the birth of Christ, and sighs for his Saviour's sufferings on the cross. These two books made him much admired in the time they were published, and especially by the generous and boon loyalists, who commiserated his sufferings."

The style of his poet is so peculiarly characteristic of the times in which he lived, and "the spirit of song so dances in his veins," that we gladly furnish two illustrations. The first is an "Address to a Group of Primroses filled with Morning Dew."

WHY do ye weep, sweet babes? can tears

Speak grief in you,

Who were but born

Just as the modest morn

Teem'd her refreshing dew?

Alas! you have not known that shower

That mars a flower;

Nor felt th' unkind

Breath of a blasting wind;

Nor are ye worn with years;

Or warped, as we,

Who think it strange to see

Such pretty flowers, like to orphans young,

To speak by tears before ye have a tongue.

Speak, whimp'ring younglings; and make known

The reason why

Ye droop and weep.

Is it for want of sleep,

Or childish lullaby?

Or that ye have not seen, as yet,

The violet?

Or brought a kiss

From that sweetheart to this?

No, no; this sorrow, shown

By your tears shed,

Would have this lecture read;

"That things of greatest, so of meanest worth,"

Conceived with grief are, and with tears brought forth."

#### TO DAFFODILS.

FAIR daffodils, we weep to see

You haste away so soon;

As yet the early rising sun

Has not attained his noon:

Stay, stay,

Until the last'ning day

Has run

But to the even song;

And, having pray'd together, we

Will go with you along!

We have short time to stay, as you

We have as short a spring,

As quick a growth to meet decay,

As you, or any thing:

We die,

As your hours do; and dry

Away

Like to the summer's rain,

Or as the pearls of morning dew,

Ne'er to be found again.

**HERSCHEL, SIR WILLIAM**.—This extraordinary practical astronomer was born at Hanover in 1738. His father was a musician by profession, and young Herschel was educated for the same pursuit. He came to England in 1759, and was for some time employed as a teacher of music. His attention was not peculiarly directed to the subject of astronomy till the year 1770, and then, being anxious to study

some of the heavenly bodies, he made for himself a large reflecting telescope. He then extended the scale of his operations, and in no long time completed telescopes of seven, of ten, and even of twenty feet in length. So indefatigable was his perseverance that in perfecting the parabolic figure of a seven-foot reflector he finished no fewer than 200 specula before he produced one that satisfactorily answered his purpose.

About the latter end of 1779 he commenced a regular review of the heavens, star by star, with a seven-foot reflector; and in the course of his observations, which were continued for eighteen months, he had the good fortune to remark that a star which had been recorded by Bode as a fixed star was progressively changing its position. Prolonged attention to it enabled him to ascertain that it was an hitherto undiscovered planet; and having determined its rate of motion, its orbit, &c., he communicated the particulars to the Royal Society, who decreed him their annual gold medal, and unanimously elected him as a fellow. This important discovery he made on the 13th of March, 1781, and bestowed on the planet the name of *Georgium Sidus* in compliment to the king of England; but the principal astronomers of the continent chose to honour their associate by calling it *Herschel*; and this appellation was subsequently changed to *Uranus*, which was considered more consistent with the received astronomical nomenclature.

The establishment of his fame in the scientific world was not the only advantage which accrued to Herschel from this splendid result of his labours. Within a year after it had been made known his majesty George III., with a liberality which must ever be mentioned to his honour as a patron of science, enabled him, by the donation of a handsome salary, to relinquish his professional labours, and devote the remainder of his life wholly to astronomy. In consequence of this arrangement he quitted Bath, and fixed his residence first at Datchet and afterwards at Slough near Windsor, where he resumed the career of discovery which he had so auspiciously commenced. In the hope of facilitating and extending his researches he undertook to construct a telescope of forty feet, which was completed in 1787; but this stupendous instrument failed to answer all the purposes intended, being too ponderous to retain a true figure, so that comparatively few observations could be made with it, and those for a very short period. It was oftener by the aid of more manageable instruments that he perused the great volume of the heavens, and derived from it new contributions to enrich the records of astronomical science. In these researches, and in the laborious calculations to which they led, he was assisted by his sister, Miss Caroline Herschel, whose indefatigable and unhesitating devotion in the performance of a task at that period considered incompatible with female habits, excited equal surprise and admiration. Her co-operation tended to secure among other advantages the accuracy of his labours; and its value in this respect is acknowledged in a work published in 1798, entitled "A Catalogue of Stars taken from Flamsteed's Observations, and not inserted in the British Catalogue, by William Herschel. To which is added, a Collection of Errata that should be noticed in the same Volume, by Caroline Herschel." The discoveries of this eminent astronomer were communi-

cated, as they arose, to the Royal Society, and they constitute an important feature in the published Transactions of that learned body in the series of years extending from 1782 to 1818.

In 1783 Herschel announced the discovery of a volcanic mountain in the moon, and four years afterwards communicated an account of two other volcanoes in that orb which appeared to be in a state of eruption. Although the results arising from the application of his forty-foot speculum were not so splendid as fully to realize the hopes which animated him in its formation, yet they were too considerable to justify the rather contemptuous allusion to them by Lalande in his "History of Astronomy for the year 1806." In refutation of the remarks made by that philosopher Herschel's own testimony has been cited. In a paper in the "Philosophical Transactions" for the year 1790, he observes:—"In hopes of great success with my forty-foot speculum I deferred the attack upon Saturn until that should be finished; and having taken an early opportunity of directing it to Saturn the very first moment I saw that planet, which was on the 28th of last August, I was presented with a view of six of its satellites, in such a situation and so bright as rendered it impossible to mistake them. The retrograde motion of Saturn amounted to four minutes and a half per day, which made it very easy to ascertain whether the stars I took to be satellites really were so; and in about two hours and a half I had the pleasure of finding that the planet had visibly carried them all away from their places." In the Transactions for 1800 there is an extract from his journal, in which occurs the following entry:—"Oct. 10, 1791. I saw the fourth satellite and the ring of Saturn, in the forty-foot speculum, without an eye-glass. The magnifying power on that occasion could not exceed sixty or seventy, but the greater penetrating power made full amends for the lowness of the former. Among other instances of the superior effects of penetration into space, I should mention the discovery of an additional sixth satellite of Saturn on the 25th of August, 1789, and of a seventh on the 11th of September of the same year, which were first pointed out by this instrument." There is a still more decisive testimony to the merits of this telescope in the Transactions for 1790. In a paper relating to the same planet he observes:—"It may appear remarkable that these satellites should have remained so long unknown to us, when, for a century and a half past, the planet to which they belong has been the object of almost every astronomer's curiosity on account of the singular phenomenon of the ring. But it will be seen from the situation and size of the satellites, that we could hardly expect to discover them till a telescope of the dimensions and aperture of my forty-foot reflector should be constructed."

Among the interesting papers communicated to the Royal Society by this eminent astronomer was a memoir on the power of telescopes to penetrate into space, that is, to render sensible very distant and very faint objects, which, by their want of light, would be imperceptible without the aid of instruments. The opinion pronounced by him on this subject was, that the greatest amplification cannot exceed that produced by a telescope of from twenty to twenty-five feet. In 1802 Dr. Herschel laid before the Royal Society a catalogue of 5000 new nebulae, nebulous stars, planetary nebulae, and clusters of



stars, which he had discovered. This catalogue was preceded by an enlarged view of the sidereal bodies composing the universe, in which he enumerated twelve species of stars of great diversity which enter into the construction of the heavens.

By these and other scientific labours he established his title to rank among the most eminent astronomers of the age, and to be placed in the roll of those whom this country has produced, only second to the immortal Newton. The high sense entertained of his well-applied talents was testified by the marks of respect which he received from various public bodies, and in particular by the honorary degree of LL.D. conferred on him by the university of Oxford. He also enjoyed the constant patronage of his venerable sovereign; and in 1816 his majesty George IV., then regent, was graciously pleased, on behalf of his royal father, to bestow on him the appropriate and well-earned distinction of the Hanoverian and Guelphic order of knighthood.

Sir William Herschel did not relinquish his astronomical observations until within a few years of his death, which took place on the 23rd of August, 1822, at the advanced age of eighty-three; and he has left a son every way fitted to support and extend his father's reputation.

**HERTZBERG, EWALD FREDERIC, COUNT** OF, a statesman, whose name is intimately connected with the history of Frederic the Great, was born in 1725 at Lottin in Pomerania, and died May 25, 1795, after having been in the public service almost half a century. He studied at Halle, and afterwards received an appointment in the department of foreign affairs. In 1742 Frederic appointed him counsellor of legation, that prince having become acquainted with his talents by the assistance which Hertzberg had rendered him in making extracts from the archives for Frederic's "*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de Brandebourg*." In 1756 he wrote in eight days the celebrated "*Mémoire Raisonné*," in Latin, German, and French, from Austrian and Saxon papers found in archives in Dresden, the object of which was to justify Frederic's invasion of Saxony. In 1762 he concluded the treaty of Hubertsburg, on which occasion Frederic received him with the remarkable encomium, *Vous avez fait la paix, comme j'ai fait la guerre, un contre plusieurs*. The king then made him minister of foreign affairs. The first partition of Poland was to be made in 1772; and as the Prussians maintained that it would have taken place without Prussia's participation, she thought it expedient to acquire West Prussia for her own defence; and Hertzberg exerted himself with great zeal to effect this object. He was also very active in the conclusion of the *Fürstenbund* in 1785 to oppose the designs of Austria on Bavaria. During the last days of Frederic Hertzberg was one of the few whom the king used to see daily in the *Sans Souci*. Under Frederic's successor he stilled the troubles in Holland and laboured to promote the balance of power in Europe. But his influence gradually diminished, and in 1791 he asked permission to retire, which was refused, though he was relieved of some of his offices. He now confined himself almost entirely to the superintendence of the academy and the cultivation of silk. When the second partition of Poland took place in 1793, and the politics of Prussia, by her participation in the coalition against France, had placed her in a critical situation, he again offered his

services in 1794. His offer was declined, and eleven months after he died. The German literature and language received great attention from him—a circumstance the more deserving of mention as Frederic utterly disregarded, or rather despised them. He improved the condition of the country schools, which had been much neglected. Besides the culture of silk, he devoted himself in his retirement to the improvement of the agriculture of his country.

**HERVEY, JAMES**, a popular divine of the established church, who was born at Hardingsstone near Northampton in 1713, and was sent to Lincoln College, Oxford. Having taken orders he retired in 1736 to the curacy of Dummer in Hampshire. In 1738 he quitted Dummer to reside at Stoke Abbey in Devonshire. During his residence in Devonshire he planned his "*Meditations*," and an excursion to Kilhampton in Cornwall occasioned him to lay the scene of his *Meditations* among the Tombs, in the church of that place. In 1743 he became curate to his father then possessing the living of Weston Favell, and on the death of the latter he succeeded him in his livings, both of Weston and Collingtree. He died in 1758 in the forty-fifth year of his age. The moral character of this conscientious divine was most exemplary; his temper was disinterested, placid, and humble, and in benevolence and charity he was surpassed by none with equally bounded means. The style of his writings is flowery; and hence his great popularity among readers who possess little refinement of taste. Besides his "*Meditations*," he is the author of several other works of considerable merit.

**HESIOD**, a celebrated Greek poet, who has in his own works furnished nearly all we know of his life. From his "*Works and Days*" we learn that he was the son of a man who had been an inhabitant of Cumæ, in one of the *Æolian Isles*. Suidas, Fabricius, and others, hence represent the poet as a native of that place, but the contrary will appear from his own poems. He represents his father as having removed to Ascra, a village in Bœotia, at the foot of Mount Helicon, and in the same book asserts that he never crossed the seas except in a voyage from Aulis in Bœotia to Eubœa. Hence it follows that he never sailed with his father to Ascra, and consequently that he was born after the settlement of his family in that village. From this place he derived the name of Ascræus, by which he is often called in the classical writers. It appears from his own statement, that misfortunes, and chiefly poverty, occasioned the removal of his father. Proclus, however, on the authority of Ephorus, tells us that a murder was the cause of his exile. It appears from another part of the "*Works and Days*" that the poet tended sheep on Mount Helicon. We also gather that his father left some property, which his brother Perses obtained from him by means of fraud and bribing the judges; but that instead of resenting this injustice he was able to look with compassion on its author, and to assist him when he had fallen into poverty out of his own substance. He also informs us, that he was the conqueror in a poetical contest at the games which Amphidames, king of Eubœa, had instituted in honour of his own memory, and which his sons accordingly solemnized. By his success on this occasion he obtained a tripod as the prize, which he consecrated to the Muses.

These are all the incidents in the life of Hesiod

which he has enabled us to collect from his works which still survive, but other writers have professed to fill up the chasm, and have detailed circumstances respecting him which are not much deserving of credit. Of these, the most remarkable is his contest with Homer, which has been probably invented from his own statement above mentioned, that he had been the victor in some rivalry of song. Plutarch, in his "Banquet of the Seven Wise Men," makes Pericles give an account of the poetical contention, by stating that it was the custom of the ancient Greeks to propose to each other questions of difficult solution,—that a contest arising from this practice took place at Calcis among all the most celebrated poets of the age,—that the performances of the poets themselves, and the feeling of their celebrity, which imposed a restraint on the judges, rendered the determination difficult, but that at last the first honour was given to Hesiod. There is a treatise also entitled "The Contention of Homer and Hesiod," which enters far more into detail. It represents each of the candidates in turn, as putting questions and verses of imperfect sense, to be answered or supplied by the other; and professes to give the substance of all that passed on the occasion. This work has been thought not to have been written till the time of the emperor Adrian. It was first printed by H. Stephens in 1573, and has been prefixed to some editions of the works of both poets, but it is universally regarded as a mere fancy of the unknown writer.

Hesiod is generally thought to have lived to a good old age, but to have ended his days by a violent death. Plutarch, in the piece already quoted, gives the following account of this catastrophe. In the latter part of his life he had removed to Locris, a town near Mount Parnassus. There he resided with a man named Troilus, who ill treated a young woman in the same house. The brothers of the girl, seeking revenge for the violence done to their sister, falsely suspected the poet of having been accessory to it, slew both him and the party actually criminal, and threw their bodies into the sea. The body of Troilus was cast upon a rock, which still bears his name from the circumstance. Hesiod, when dead, was said to have been taken by dolphins, and carried to the city of Molieria, near the promontory Rhion, where the Locrians were then holding a solemn festival. They saw the body of the poet, and on recognizing it, proceeded to revenge the death of their favourite bard, by throwing the authors of the calamity alive into the sea, and destroying their houses. His remains were deposited in Nemea, but his tomb was not generally known, having been concealed lest the Orchomenians, who had been advised by an oracle to procure them, should steal them away. Pausanias tells us, that the oracle had directed the Orchomenians to bring the bones of Hesiod to their country as the only means by which they could stay the ravages of a pestilence. He states that they succeeded and erected a tomb over them, on which they placed a suitable inscription. Hesiod is said by Lilius Gyraldus to have left a son and a daughter, and that this son was Stesichorus the poet; but this statement seems unsupported by any ancient authorities.

The works now extant, which are commonly published under the name of Hesiod, consist of the "Works and Days," the "Theogony," and the "Shield of Hercules." Various opinions have however been en-

tained respecting the authenticity of the two latter of these pieces. Wolf regards the works as collected from the rhapsodists, and probably as originating from different authors. He thinks the "Works and Days" is a century more ancient than the "Theogony" or the "Shield of Hercules." The first of these has generally been admitted, without dispute, as authentic, except the opening address to the Muses, which the Bœotians contended was spurious on the authority of an ancient copy they professed to have preserved, engraven on plates of lead. The "Theogony" has commonly been regarded as genuine, though the Bœotians denied it. It is undoubtedly the work of very early times. But the "Shield of Hercules" is usually rejected as spurious. Longinus intimates more than a doubt respecting it. It appears, indeed, to be a collection of fragments, some of which were probably composed by Hesiod, and others interpolated or added by subsequent bards. It appears from the "Ion" of Plato that the rhapsodists were accustomed to recite the works of this poet as well as of Homer.

The great excellence of Hesiod consists in a natural and simple style. His pictures of the manners of a rude age are sometimes more striking than those even of Homer on account of the absence of that radiance which is shed over all the scenes in the Iliad and Odyssey from the imagination of their author. But he is, perhaps, the most unequal of poets. In some of his delineations he displays a daring and ardent conception, which is not afraid to grasp the mightiest things, and which succeeds in its efforts by a natural and gigantic power. At other times he is insufferably low, creeping, tame, and prosaic. In his didactic poetry he rises occasionally into a high and philosophical strain of thought, but commonly gives mere trite maxims of prudence, and the most common-place worldly cunning; as when he advises his reader never to conclude a bargain, even with a brother, without a witness. He has none of the refined gallantry of Homer, but seems to delight in satyrizing, or rather abusing, the female sex. The "Works and Days" is a rambling and very unequal didactic poem. The description near its opening of the two different kinds of contention among men—that of hatred and envy on the one hand, and the honourable exertions arising from emulation and a desire to excel on the other, is accurately discriminated and well finished. Hence the poet proceeds to the subject of his work—labour—and describes how it fell to the lot of man. We have then the story of Pandora, and of the gradual degeneracy of mankind from the golden to the iron age. A digression is made to the evils inflicted on our race by the powerful wicked, in which the great are recommended to be merciful, and a variety of maxims are introduced fit for the purposes of common life, without much connection with the subject or with each other. At last, the duties of agriculture are set forth, interspersed with moral and religious admonitions, and probably regarded as of practical value in the times when the poet flourished. The whole forms a very curious relic of antiquity, but its nakedness is scarcely to be endured after the variety and the brilliancy of Homer.

The "Theogony," on the whole, exhibits more decided traces of genius than the more domestic poem of the "Works and Days," which seems generally to have obtained the preference. It is the best and



most accurate account, or catalogue at least, of the deities of Greece. In general it is a mere enumeration of names and deduction of mythological genealogies; but the battle of the Titans, and the gods is one of the most sublime passages in classical poetry, conceived with great boldness, and executed with a power and force which show a masterly though rugged genius. It has been imitated by Milton in his battle of the angels, and certainly not exceeded. If it is not the work of Hesiod, it belongs to some superior poet, whose name has not reached us. But, though raised far above the common level of his style, it bears evident marks of his hand. Heyne, Wolf, and Herman, suppose the present copies of the "Theogony" to be much corrupted by the introduction into the text of various readings from different editions.

The "Shield of Hercules," though disconnected, and entirely devoid of arrangement or plan, contains passages of more elegance and grace than any of the undoubted works of Hesiod. It is probably a compilation, in which some fragments of Hesiod's poems, transmitted through the means of the rhapsodists, have been connected by more modern additions. The description of the shield, which occupies only a part of the work, is an evident imitation of the shield of Achilles in Homer. Some have contended that the reverse of this opinion is the fact, and that Hesiod, and not Homer, is the original. Independently, however, of the external proof, it will appear from an examination of the two pieces, that the charge of imitation is more probably brought against the author of the "Shield of Hercules," since he has embellished those parts, which in the Iliad are simple, with a profusion of ornament; and it will always be found that a copy deviates from its original, not in becoming more simple but in the addition of graces of which he to whom the first conception belongs did not feel the necessity. The fame of Hesiod has, in a great degree, been reflected from that of Homer. Since they were named together by Herodotus, they have been for more than two thousand years frequently united.

HESYCHIUS, the author of a Greek Glossary, which has probably come to us in an abridged form, and which he partly collected from former dictionaries, and partly enlarged by many new words and examples from Homer, the dramatic and lyric poets, the orators, physicians, and historians, was a native of Alexandria, and, according to some, lived about the end of the fourth, or, as others say, in the fifth or sixth century after Christ. Of the circumstances of his life nothing is known. The best editions of his Glossary are Alberti and Ruhnken's, and Schow's as a Supplement to the former.

HEVELIUS, JOHN, an eminent astronomer, was born at Dantzic in 1611, and studied in Germany, England, and France. He was the first that called attention to the moon's libration. He also discovered several fixed stars, which he named the firmament of Sobieski, in honour of John III., king of Poland. His wife was also well versed in astronomy, and made a part of the observations published by her husband. In 1673 he published a description of the instruments with which he made his observations, under the title of "Machina Cœlestis," and in 1679 he published the second part of this work; but in September the same year, while he was at a fete in the country, he had the misfortune to

have his house at Dantzic burnt down. By this calamity he is said to have sustained a loss of several thousand pounds, having not only his observatory and all his valuable instruments and apparatus destroyed, but also a great number of copies of his "Machina Cœlestis." Hevelius died in 1687, on his birth-day.

HEURNIUS, JOHN, a learned physician, who was born in 1543, and studied at Louvain, Paris, Padua, and Pavia. At his return to his native country he became magistrate of Amsterdam; after which he was professor of physic at Leyden, and rector of the university of that city, where he died in 1601. He wrote, among other works, several treatises on the diseases of different parts of the body, and several commentaries on the works of Hippocrates.—Otho Heurnius, his son, was also professor of physic at Leyden, and wrote several works of considerable merit.

HEWSON, WILLIAM, a very ingenious anatomist, was born in 1739. He became assistant to Dr. Hunter, and was afterwards in partnership with him, but, on their disagreement, read anatomical lectures at his own house, in which he was seconded by Mr. Falconer. He wrote "Inquiries into the Properties of the Blood and the Lymphatic System," and disputed with Dr. Monro the discovery of the lymphatic system of vessels in oviparous animals. He died in 1774.

HEYLIN, DR. PETER, an eminent English writer, who was born at Burford in Oxfordshire in 1600. He studied at Hart Hall, Oxford, where he became an able geographer and historian. He was appointed one of the chaplains in ordinary to King Charles I., was presented to the rectory of Hemingford in Huntingdonshire, made a prebendary of Westminster, and obtained several other livings; but of these he was deprived by the parliament, who also sequestered his estate; by which means he and his family were reduced to great necessity. However, upon the Restoration he was restored to his spiritualities, but never rose higher than to be sub-dean of Westminster. He died in 1662, and was interred in St. Peter's church in Westminster, where he had a neat monument erected to his memory. His writings are very numerous; the principal of which are "Microcosmus, or a Description of the Great World," "Cosmographia," "The History of St. George," "Historical and Miscellaneous Tracts," and "An Help to English History."

HEYNE, CHRISTIAN GOTTLOB, a distinguished scholar, who was born in September 1729, at Chemnitz in Saxony, where his father, a poor linen weaver, had fled from Gravenschütz in Silesia on account of religious persecution. The difficulties which pursued him till manhood could not repress his fine powers or destroy his natural sensibility; but, on the contrary, threw him back on himself, and taught him to confide in himself. He could hardly obtain the slight assistance which was necessary to gratify his early wish of being instructed in the Latin language, but he was ultimately enabled to accomplish his object, and then proceeded to Leipsic, where he obtained considerable reputation for his classical attainments. In 1755 he published his edition of Tibullus and soon after that of Epictetus. In 1763 he succeeded Gesner as professor of rhetoric at Gottingen, where he also became secretary to the Society of Sciences. He died suddenly in

July 1814. His principal works besides those already mentioned were, his "Catalogue of the Library of Gottingen," which laborious work extended over one hundred and fifty folio volumes, his editions of Homer and Virgil, and his "Opuscula Academica."

HEYWOOD, JOHN, one of our earliest dramatic poets, was born at North Mims, near St. Alban's in Hertfordshire, and educated at Oxford. From thence he retired to the place of his nativity, where he had the good fortune to become acquainted with Sir Thomas More, who, it seems, had a seat in that neighbourhood. This patron of genius introduced the poet to the princess Mary, and afterwards to her father Henry, who, we are told, was much delighted with his wit and skill in music, and by whom he was frequently rewarded. When his former patroness, Queen Mary, came to the crown, Heywood became a favourite at court, and continued often to entertain her majesty, "exercising his fancy before her, even to the time that she lay languishing on her death-bed." On the accession of Elizabeth, being a zealous Catholic, he thought fit to escape with other favourites of her deceased majesty. He settled at Mechlin in Flanders, where he died in the year 1565. John Heywood was a man of no great learning, nor were his poetical talents by any means extraordinary; but he possessed talents of more importance in the times in which he lived, namely, the talents of a jester, and he wrote several plays. He left two sons, who both became Jesuits and eminent men: viz. Ellis Heywood, who continued some time at Florence under the patronage of Cardinal Pole, and became so good a master of the Italian tongue as to write a treatise in that language, entitled "Il Moro." He died at Louvain about the year 1572. His other son was Jasper Heywood, who was obliged to resign a fellowship at Oxford on account of his immoralities. He translated three tragedies of Seneca, and wrote various poems and "devises," some of which were printed in a volume entitled "The Paradise of Dainty Devises." He died at Naples in 1597.

HICKES, GEORGE, a learned English ecclesiastic, who was born in 1642. He received a good education at Oxford, where he afterwards obtained the rectory of St. Ebbe's. In 1681 he was appointed chaplain to Charles II., but fell into disgrace during the reign of James. Upon the Revolution in 1688 he, with many others, refusing to take the oaths of allegiance, fell under suspension in August 1689, and was deprived the February following. He continued however in possession till the beginning of May, when reading in the "Gazette" that the deanery of Worcester was granted to Talbot, afterwards bishop of Oxford, Salisbury, and Durham, successively, he immediately drew up in his own handwriting a claim of right to it, directed to all the members of that church; and in 1691 affixed it over the great entrance into the choir that none of them might plead ignorance in that particular. The earl of Nottingham, then secretary of state, called it "Dr. Hickes's Manifesto against Government."

Soon after their deprivation Archbishop Sancroft and his colleagues began to make arrangements for maintaining the episcopal succession among those who adhered to them; and having resolved upon it, they sent Dr. Hickes over, with a list of the deprived clergy, to confer with King James. He had several audiences of the king, who complied with all he asked, and would soon have returned to England,

but was detained some months by an ague and fever. He arrived in February, and on the eve of St. Matthias the consecrations were performed by Dr. Lloyd bishop of Norwich, Dr. Turner bishop of Ely, and Dr. White bishop of Peterborough, at the bishop of Peterborough's lodgings. Hickes was consecrated suffragan bishop of Thetford, and Wagstaffe suffragan of Ipswich; at which solemnity Henry earl of Clarendon is said to have been present. Dr. Hickes survived his elevation more than twenty years, dying in December 1715.

Dr. Hickes was particularly skilful in the old northern languages and in antiquities, and has left us some valuable works. He was deeply read in the primitive fathers of the church, whom he considered as the best expositors of scripture; and as no one better understood the doctrine, worship, constitution, and discipline of the Catholic church in the first ages of Christianity, so it was his utmost ambition and endeavour to prove the church of England perfectly conformable thereto. In 1689 he published "Institutiones Grammaticæ Anglo-Saxonicæ et Mæso-Gothicæ," and "Catalogus Librorum Septentorinialium."

HICKERINGILL, EDMUND, a clergyman of the church of England, who commenced his career in the army. He was born in 1630, and at a very early age obtained a commission in a regiment stationed in the West Indies. He there wrote a "Description of Jamaica," which was published in 1707. He died in the following year.

HIDALGO, MIGUEL, a celebrated Mexican priest, who was one of the first to commence the war of independence in New Spain in 1809. Hidalgo was at that time curate of Dolores, and possessed great influence over the Indians and Creoles. After raising the standard of independence he was joined by a large body of men and the garrison of the city of Guanajuato and of some other towns in the same province. Thence he marched to Valladolid; and continuing to meet with success, he threw off his clerical robes and assumed the uniform and rank of generalissimo. Continuing his march he approached Mexico, the capital, which was then but weakly defended; but when circumstances favoured an attack, he drew off his troops and began to march back towards Guanajuato. At length the viceroy, Vanezas, collected a sufficient body of troops to become the assailant in his turn. Hidalgo was met and defeated by the Spaniards under Calleja at Aculeo, and here the patriots received their first check. Other engagements followed between various chiefs of the two parties. Hidalgo sustained another total defeat near Guadalajara in January 1811, and was compelled to retire to Zacatecas with his shattered and disheartened forces. Thence he retreated to San Luis Potosi, with the intention of withdrawing into the Texas in order to reorganize his army. He was finally overtaken at Acatita de Baján, having been betrayed by Bustamante, one of his officers, and was made prisoner with all his staff. He was removed to Chihuahua, where, after the form of trial, he was shot in June 1811, having been deprived of his priests' orders previous to his execution.

HIERO, a celebrated king of Syracuse, during whose reign began the first Punic war, in which he was at the outset an ally of the Carthaginians, but was afterwards defeated by the consul Appius Claudius, who had come to the aid of the Mamertines.



He then saw that the best course for him was to espouse the cause of the Romans, since the victories of the Carthaginians in Sicily could be of no benefit to him, but, on the contrary, would be likely to render them dangerous neighbours. In order to avert the war from his states he sent ambassadors to the consuls Otacilius and Valerius to offer a treaty of peace and alliance. From this time he was only an instrument in the disputes of the two nations. Though he showed himself more favourable to the Romans by providing them during the first Punic war with necessities of all kinds, he did not refuse the Carthaginians the aid they asked him in the servile war, and was able by his adroitness to preserve the friendship of both. In the period which intervened between the first Punic war and the second he turned his attention to the government. He enacted wise laws, and was wholly devoted to the happiness of his subjects; indeed the encouragement which he extended to agriculture enriched him and doubled the revenues of the state. He kept his word pledged to his allies, and when the Romans underwent a total defeat from Hannibal at Thrasymene, Hiero proffered them provisions, men, and arms, and sent them a golden victoria, 320 pounds in weight, which they accepted as a happy augury. This kind attention consolidated the league between Rome and Syracuse; and even the loss of the battle of Cannæ, which was followed by the defection of all the other allies of Rome, did not shake his fidelity.

Hiero was not merely employed in the erection of temples and palaces, but also in the construction of military machines of all kinds under the direction of the great Archimedes. With the intention of surpassing the magnificence of all other kings, he built a ship which had never been equalled for magnitude and splendour; and from the description of which, preserved in Athenæus, it must have resembled a floating city. But it being discovered that Sicily had no harbour adequate to the reception of this immense structure, Hiero resolved to make a present of it to King Ptolemy, and, as Egypt was at that time in want of corn, took this opportunity to send a great supply of grain to Alexandria. Hiero died B. C. 214. As his son Gelon died before him, he left the crown, after wearing it fifty-four years, to his grandson Hieronymus.

HIGDEN, RANULPH, an English chronicler, who flourished about the middle of the fourteenth century. His principal work is entitled "Polychronicon." An English translation of this work was printed by Caxton in 1482. Some of Higden's sacred dramas are preserved in the Harleian MSS. in the British Museum.

HIGGINS, JOHN, a miscellaneous writer, born in 1524. He was educated at Oxford, and, entering the church, kept a school at Ilminster till his death in 1604. His principal works are a "Treatise against Perkins," and "Flosculi Terentiani."

HIGGINSON, FRANCIS, an eminent English divine, who received his degrees from Emmanuel College, Cambridge. He then embraced the ecclesiastical profession, and settled at Lancaster, where he soon acquired a high reputation for pulpit eloquence; but he subsequently left the English church, and became a convert to the doctrines and manners of the Puritans. His eloquence and fervour, however, procured him the offer of some of the best livings in the country; but he refused them on account of his

opinions, and supported himself by keeping a school. When the company of Massachusetts Bay began to form a plantation there in 1628, they applied to Mr. Higginson to go thither and prosecute his ecclesiastical labours. He promptly acceded to the request, and in May 1629 set sail from the Isle of Wight, and on the 29th of the ensuing June arrived in Salem harbour. It is related that when the ship was receding from the coast of England he called upon his children and the other passengers, and said to them, "We will not say as the separatists were wont to say at their leaving of England, Farewell, Babylon! farewell, Rome! but we will say, Farewell, dear England! farewell, the church of God in England, and all Christian friends there! We do not go to New England as separatists from the church of England, though we cannot but separate from the corruptions in it, but we go to practise the positive part of church reformation, and propagate the gospel in America." There were but seven houses in Salem at the time of his arrival, but he immediately entered upon the performance of his duties. These, however, he was not destined to discharge long, for he died in August 1630. He wrote an account of New England, entitled "A Short and True Description of the Discoveries and Commodities of the Country," which is printed in the first volume of the "Collections of the Historical Society of Massachusetts." One of his sons, also named Francis, who was an excellent scholar, kept a school for some time in New England, but finally settled in the county of Westmoreland, in his native country. He wrote a book against the Society of Friends, called "The Irreligion of Northern Quakers," said to be the first publication against that sect.

HIGGONS, SIR THOMAS, a clever miscellaneous writer, who was born in 1624. He was employed in several political missions, and his services to the crown were rewarded with a pension of 500*l.* a year and gifts to the amount of 4000*l.* He was afterwards knighted, and in 1669 was sent envoy extraordinary to invest John George duke of Saxony with the order of the Garter. About four years after he was sent envoy to Vienna, where he continued three years. In 1685 he was elected Burgess for St. Germain's, "being then," says Wood, "accounted a loyal and accomplished person and a great lover of the regular clergy." He died suddenly of an apoplexy in the king's bench court, having been summoned there as a witness, November 24, 1691. His literary productions are, a "Panegyric to the King," published in 1660, and "The History of Ysoph Bassa." He also translated into English "The Venetian Triumph," for which he was complimented by Waller in his poems. Mr. Granger, who styles Sir Thomas "a gentleman of great merit," was favoured by the duchess dowager of Portland with a MS. copy of his "Oration" on the death of his first wife, and concludes, from the great scarcity of that pamphlet, that "the copies of it were, for certain reasons, industriously collected and destroyed, though few pieces of this kind have less deserved to perish. The countess of Essex had a greatness of mind which enabled her to bear the whole weight of infamy which was thrown upon her, but it was nevertheless attended with a delicacy and sensibility of honour which poisoned all her enjoyments. Mr. Higgons had said much, and, I think, much to the purpose, in her vindication, and was himself fully convinced from the tenour of her life, and the words

which she spoke at the awful close of it, that she was perfectly innocent.—“In reading this interesting oration I fancied myself standing by the grave of injured innocence and beauty, was sensibly touched with the pious affection of the tenderest and best of husbands doing public and solemn justice to an amiable and worthy woman who had been grossly and publicly defamed. Nor could I withhold the tribute of a tear—a tribute which, I am confident, was paid at her interment by every one who loved virtue and was not destitute of the feelings of humanity. This is what I immediately wrote upon reading the oration. If I am wrong in my opinion the benevolent reader I am sure will forgive me. It is not the first time that my heart has got the better of my judgment.” The lady to whom Granger here alludes was the widow of Robert earl of Essex, and Sir Thomas Higgons’ first wife.

**HIGGONS, BEVIL**, younger son of Sir Thomas, was born in 1670. At the age of sixteen he became a commoner of St. John’s College, Oxford, and went afterwards to Cambridge, and then to the Middle Temple. Wood enumerates five of his poems. He wrote some others, and was the author of a tragedy entitled “The Generous Conqueror, or the Timely Discovery,” acted at Drury Lane, and printed in 1702. He was a steady adherent to the cause of the exiled family, and accompanied King James into France, where he maintained his wit and good-humour undepressed by his misfortunes. He published a poem “On the Peace of Utrecht.” On the publication of Bishop Burnet’s “History of his Own Times,” he wrote some strictures on it in a volume entitled “Historical and Critical Remarks,” and in 1727 published “A Short View of the English History, with Reflections, political, historical, civil, physical, and moral, on the Reigns of the Kings, their Characters and Manners, their Successions to the Throne, and other remarkable Incidents to the Revolution, 1688; drawn from authentic Memoirs and MSS.” He died in 1735.

**HIGHMORE, NATHANIEL**.—This eminent anatomist was born in 1631 and educated at Oxford. His principal work is entitled “*Corporis Humani Disquisitio Anatomica*.” He died in 1684.

**HIGHMORE, JOSEPH**, a portrait and historical painter, born in London in June 1692. He early displayed a strong partiality for the fine arts, which was discouraged by his family, who placed him in a solicitor’s office. The whole of his spare time was however devoted by him to the study of his favourite pursuit, and immediately on the expiration of his clerkship, when only seventeen years of age, he abandoned the law, resolved to trust in future to his talents as a painter alone for his chance of fame and fortune. The year following he married, and continued rising in reputation till, on the revival of the order of the Bath, he was selected as the artist to be employed in painting the knights in full costume. The years 1732 and 1734 were spent by him in professional tours through the Netherlands and France, and on his return he applied himself with renewed exertions to the cultivation of an art which he exercised nearly half a century. He died in 1780. Among his best paintings are the Hagar and Ishmael in the Foundling Hospital; the Finding of Moses, &c. The illustrations to the original editions of the novels of Richardson were also from his easel. As an author he is known by the “Critical

Examination of Reubens’ two Paintings in the Banqueting House, Whitehall,” “Observations on Dodwell’s Pamphlet against Christianity,” the “Practice of Perspective,” and two volumes of “Moral and Religious Essays,” with a translation of Brown “On the Immortality of the Soul.”

**HILARY, ST.**, a Christian prelate of the fourth century, one of the early fathers of the church. He was born at Poitiers, of which city, after his conversion from heathenism, he eventually became the bishop in 355. His zeal in favour of the Athanasian doctrine respecting the Trinity, which he defended with much energy at Beziers, drew on him the persecution of the Arian party, with Saturnius at its head, who prevailed on the emperor Constantius to exile him into Phrygia. After four years spent in banishment he was permitted to return to his see, where he occupied himself in committing the arguments for his side of the question to writing, and continued to distinguish himself as an active diocesan till his death in 367. His works were printed in folio at Paris in 1693. There was another prelate of the same name, bishop of Arles, a Semipelagian in his opinions, who was the author of a life of St. Honoratus, and some devotional tracts. He died in 449, and also enjoyed the honours of canonization.

**HILL, AARON**, an English poet and miscellaneous writer, who was born in London in 1685. His father, originally a gentleman of good estate in Wiltshire, left him almost wholly unprovided for, which circumstance obliged him to quit Westminster school at the age of fourteen. His relation, Lord Paget, being ambassador at Constantinople, he ventured uninvited to join him, and a tutor was provided for him, under whose care he travelled through Palestine, Egypt, and various parts of the East. In 1703 he returned to England, and after the death of Lord Paget he travelled for three years with Sir William Wentworth. In 1709 he published a “History of the Ottoman Empire,” partly from materials collected in Turkey; which publication, although it obtained much notice, the author himself subsequently regarded as a crude and juvenile performance. In 1710 he became manager of Drury Lane theatre, which post however he soon gave up. While in the management of Drury Lane he wrote his first tragedy of “Alfred,” and “Rinaldo,” an opera.

In 1713 he obtained a patent for extracting sweet oil from beech mast, and a company was formed under his auspices; but after a trial of three years the scheme entirely failed, as did a subsequent plan for establishing a plantation in Georgia. He still continued to write for the theatres, and several of his pieces were brought on the stage. In 1724 he commenced a periodical paper called “The Plain Dealer.” In 1731 he re-wrote his “Elfrid,” which he brought forward under the title of “Athelwold.” He afterwards translated in succession the “Zaire,” “Alzire,” and “Merope,” of Voltaire, all of which show him in the light of a superior dramatic translator. He still, however, continued to interest himself with schemes of commercial improvement until his health began to decline, and he died in February 1750, in his sixty-fifth year, and was interred in Westminster Abbey. His versions of “Zaire” and “Merope” kept the stage until within a few years.

**HILL, SIR JOHN**, a writer of the last century, distinguished for the versatility of his talents and the multitude of his publications. He was born about



1716, and was by trade an apothecary; but, having married a wife without a fortune, he was obliged to seek further resources for the increase of his income. The duke of Richmond and Lord Petre employed him to manage their botanic gardens, and enabled him to travel through various parts of the kingdom, and collect scarce plants, of which he published an account by subscription. The scheme was not very profitable, and he therefore turned his attention to the stage; but after two or three exhibitions at the Haymarket and Covent Garden he returned to his shop. A translation of a Greek tract on Gems by Theophrastus, which he published in 1746, procured him both money and reputation as an author. He undertook a "General Natural History," and, in conjunction with George Lewis Scott, he compiled a Supplement to Chambers's "Cyclopædia." In 1752 he published "Essays on Natural History and Philosophy," containing curious microscopical observations. At the same period he started the "British Magazine," and also carried on a diurnal publication, called "The Inspector." Notwithstanding his literary engagements, he was a constant attendant on every place of public amusement, where he collected by wholesale a great variety of private intrigue and personal scandal, which he freely retailed to the public in his *Inspectors* and magazines. This discreditable occupation involved him in many quarrels. He invented several quack medicines, which, by means of the puffing advertisements he wrote to recommend them, had for some time a considerable sale, to his pecuniary advantage. His talents as a botanist, however, were by no means despicable. His greatest undertaking was a work entitled "The Vegetable System," in seventeen volumes folio. The title of knighthood he owed to the king of Sweden, who bestowed on him the order of the polar star in return for the present of a copy of his botanical works. He died of the gout, a disease for which he professed to have a specific, in November 1775.

HILL, ROBERT, an industrious scholar remarkable for his application to study, notwithstanding the obstacles arising from domestic penury and a menial occupation. He was born in 1699 at Miswell, near Tring in Hertfordshire, and was apprenticed to a tailor and staymaker. To those employments he occasionally joined that of a schoolmaster, by means of which he with difficulty supported himself and his family. In spite of these discouragements he contrived to make himself acquainted with the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages; and he exhibited so much literary talent as to attract the favourable notice of the Rev. Joseph Spence, who, with a view to benefit this pains-taking student, published a tract, entitled "A Parallel between a Most Celebrated Man of Florence, Magliabecchi, and one scarce ever heard of in England, R. Hill," printed at Strawberry Hill, 1758, octavo. By the assistance of his friendly biographer, Hill was relieved from his embarrassments, and enabled to remove to Buckingham, where he died in 1777. He was the author of an answer to Bishop Clayton's "Essay on Spirit," "Criticisms on the Book of Job," and a tract entitled "The Character of a Jew."

HILL, ROWLAND.—This truly amiable though eccentric minister of the gospel was born at Hawkestone in 1774, and educated at Eton, from whence he proceeded to Cambridge University. While yet at Eton he embraced the views of the Methodists,

and at Cambridge he preached in the prison and in private houses before entering into holy orders; he also preached in the tabernacle and chapel of Whitfield in London—a step which at once identified him with the Calvinistic Methodists. Family influence prevented him, however, from formally joining that body, his avowed predilection for which, at the same time, rendered it extremely difficult for him to obtain ordination in the church. At length he obtained a title to orders and was ordained deacon. "Soon after," says one of his biographers, "this man of God determined upon disobedience to earthly statutes and human canons that he might be obedient to a heavenly vision and perform a divine and immortal work. In imitation therefore of his illustrious patron and pattern, Whitfield, he soon began to lift up his voice in a wider sphere of labour—to proclaim the gospel to listening crowds in barns, meeting-houses, and, when they were too small or too distant and not to be procured, in streets and fields, by the highways and hedges."

Mr. Hill lost his father about the year 1780, and soon after he projected the building of Surrey Chapel, the first stone of which was laid in 1782, and the building completed in the spring of 1783. It was opened for public worship on Whit Sunday, June the 8th, 1783, on which occasion Mr. Hill delivered a discourse, which he afterwards published under the title of "Christ Crucified, the Sum and Substance of the Scriptures." From this time to the period of his death—an interval of fifty years—he continued to pass the winter half of the year in town, preaching steadily at Surrey Chapel, where the congregation was always numerous, and supplying the pulpit the other months by a succession of popular ministers from the country.

It has been remarked by one who was well acquainted with Mr. Hill's history, that "few ministers of the gospel have had to sustain the scornful brunt of opposition, to contend against religious animosity, and to bear on through good report and evil report, through so long and active a career as he did. The independent and ambiguous ecclesiastical position which he assumed, as theoretically a churchman, and practically a dissenter—a dissenter within the church, a churchman among dissenters—necessarily involved him, especially in the earlier part of his career, in continual polemic skirmishing. His very catholicism sometimes put on an aggressive form, for of nothing was he so intolerant as of sectarianism. But while he thus made himself many opponents, his blameless character precluded his having any personal enemies. The sarcastic or censorious polemic was forgotten in the warm-hearted philanthropist, the indefatigable evangelist, the consistent saint."

In 1790 Mr Hill published his "Warning to Professors," containing observations on the nature and tendency of public amusements; in which he took a review of theatrical exhibitions, operas, concerts, and musical meetings, revels, horse-racing, the card-table, ball-room, &c. &c., and of what he conceived to be their evil tendency, and their inconsistency with the Christian profession. The pamphlet reached a third edition. Some reflections incautiously dropped in it, however, embroiled him with the dissenters, whom he was considered to have unjustly attacked. He tendered an apology for this in two letters addressed to Mr. George Burder, and printed



as an appendix to the third edition of the pamphlet.

In the year 1798, having travelled through the greater part of England and Wales, preaching the gospel, and taking a journey to Ireland, Mr. Hill accepted the pressing solicitation of Messrs. Robert and James Haldane to pay a visit to Scotland. He commenced his spiritual campaign in the north by preaching on the following morning in the Circus, which was supposed to contain 2500 people. Having spent two Sabbaths in Edinburgh and preached almost daily during the week, Mr. Hill began to make excursions to different parts of the country, visiting Stirling, Dunblane, Crieff, Dunkeld, Perth, and Kinross, preaching at all these places, and returned to Edinburgh in time to spend the third Sunday there. His fame now began to spread abroad most rapidly, and the places of worship were very inadequate to the numbers that followed him. He next visited Glasgow, Paisley, Greenock, Dumbarton, &c., and returned to Edinburgh on the following Saturday. But all attempts to preach within doors on the Sunday evenings were now out of the question, and he was compelled to have recourse to the Calton Hill. The congregation increased from two thousand to five—ten—fifteen—twenty thousand hearers, who listened with profound attention to his addresses. Mr. Hill appears to have been highly gratified at the reception he every where met with. Paisley he describes as the paradise of Scotland, adding, "My soul loves Paisley, for there I believe Christians love each other." Of Glasgow he says, "The kindness and attention of the magistrates and ministers, and of the people at large, will ever be remembered by me as a matter of thankfulness before God, and of deep humiliation to my own mind for services so poor among a people so affectionate and kind."

Shortly after his return home Mr. Hill completed his Journal, and sent it into the north to be printed among the people for whom it was designed; but, as his preaching had made a considerable stir among all classes of religionists in that country, he was strongly advised to give further scope to discussion, with which he complied, throwing his Remarks into an Appendix to the Journal, which was considerably larger than the book itself. In this Appendix he descants with the utmost freedom on Episcopacy, Presbyterianism, and its various secessions, Independency, strict and moderate, the Baptists, &c., all of whom he reproves with an unsparing hand.

In consequence of Mr. Hill's visit to the north, and the subsequent publication of his Journal, the general assembly of the kirk, at their next annual meeting, judged it necessary to issue a "Pastoral Admonition," and this was followed by an "Act of the General Associate Synod" against promiscuous hearing, and lay-preachers, warning all persons under their inspection against offending in these respects. Dr. Jamieson, an anti-burgher minister of Edinburgh, published some Remarks on the Journal, which drew from Mr. Hill a pamphlet entitled "A Plea for Union, and for a Free Propagation of the Gospel; being an Answer to Dr. Jamieson's Remarks on the late Tour of the Rev. R. Hill, addressed to the Scots Society for Propagating the Gospel at Home." About the same time that Mr. Hill was replying to Dr. Jamieson he also published a "Series

of Letters, occasioned by the late 'Pastoral Admonition' of the Church of Scotland; as also their Attempts to Suppress the Establishment of Sabbath Schools: addressed to the Society for Propagating the Gospel at Home." The pamphlet consists of eight letters, written during the year 1799, while engaged in making a second preaching tour through Scotland, and accordingly they are dated from Edinburgh, Dundee, Montrose, Aberdeen, Huntly, Glasgow, &c.

Mr. Hill's next literary production excited more notice than any that had preceded it. In the early part of the present century the British legislature passed "An Act to Amend the Laws relating to Spiritual Persons holding of Farms, and for Enforcing the Residence of Spiritual Persons on their Benefices in England." This act had not long received the sanction of authority, when a pamphlet made its appearance, but without the author's name, under the following title:—"Spiritual Characteristics, Represented in an Account of a most curious Sale of Curates, by Public Auction, who were to be disposed of in consequence of the Clergy Residence Act; in which the Original Design and Probable Consequences of that Law are laid before the Public." This most extraordinary production was generally admitted to be the work of Mr. Hill; nor, indeed, is any thing more than internal evidence necessary to convince any one acquainted with him and his writings that he was indeed the author. After some prefatory observations respecting the passing of this act, he tells his readers that he one night retired to rest with his head brimfull of it, and had no sooner dropped asleep than he began dreaming about the subject in a most singular and impressive manner. He thought himself in a town of considerable size, and that a great abundance of the clergy came into it from all quarters, mostly two by two; the generality of them exhibiting such sad and melancholy faces as he never before beheld. Some of them appeared most marvellously plump and of an enormous size, while their gloomy looks were expressive of the deepest sorrow. Many others of them appeared like jockeys in half-mourning. These went stamping and roaring about as though they were half mad, crying out at intervals, "What shall I do? what shall I do?" Each of these was attended by another, whose poverty-struck appearance in the general formed a striking contrast to the former; but all the motley group seemed equally downcast and demure. Enquiring what all this could mean, he is told that the rectors were going to dispose of their curates by auction, and prompted by curiosity he attends the sale. Then follows the auctioneer's harangue on the description of the articles he has to dispose of, the conditions of sale, &c. &c., and the business of the day begins: but let this suffice. It is quite true, as one of his biographers observes, that Mr. Hill both said and did things which few other men could have done without imprudence. Certain it is that no nonconformist, no infidel, ever vented a libel against the church of England half so pungent as this sale of curates!

Mr. Hill's "Village Dialogues," first published in 1801, in two volumes, and afterwards enlarged to three, are generally considered to be his ablest work. They have been deservedly popular, and have passed through a great number of editions. They display an intimate acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures



as well as the workings of the human mind; the style is easy and appropriate, the scenes are in rural life, and the whole is pervaded with a delightful spirit of Christian simplicity.

Having briefly adverted to the chief of Mr. Hill's published pieces, it now only remains to speak of his personal character and talents as a preacher. In him no ordinary portion of natural shrewdness was combined with an unsuspecting and guileless mind. This sometimes laid him open to imposition. Intimate as was his acquaintance with human affairs, he was not always quicksighted in reading the characters of men, and he often formed mistaken estimates of them. Benevolence, however, was a prominent feature in his character, and he succeeded to a great degree in imbuing his congregation with his own feelings. His last sermon was delivered at Surrey Chapel on Sunday the 31st of March, 1833. On the morning of Easter Tuesday he expressed a desire to address the girls belonging to the Sunday School Union, which had been his accustomed practice, but being very unwell he was dissuaded from it by his friends. During the morning of that day he found it necessary to lie down in bed, from which he never rose more. On the evening of Thursday, April the 11th, he breathed his last at his town residence in Blackfriars Road, being in the eighty-ninth year of his age.

HILLIARD, NICHOLAS, a celebrated English painter, who drew Mary queen of Scots in water-colours when she was but eighteen years of age. He was goldsmith, carver, and painter, to Queen Elizabeth, whose picture he drew several times. Donne has celebrated this painter in a poem called "The Storm," where he says,

"An hand, an eye,

"By Hilliard drawn, is worth an history."

Hilliard was born in 1547, and died in 1619.

HILTON, WALTER, a Carthusian monk of the fifteenth century, supposed by many to have been the author of the celebrated work "De Imitatione Christi," usually attributed to Thomas à Kempis. Hilton was certainly the author of "The Scale, or Ladder of Perfection," published in 1659.

HIMMEL, FREDERIC HENRY, a popular German composer in the lighter kind of music, and a celebrated pianist. He was born in 1765, studied theology, and having played in presence of the king while in Potsdam for the purpose of obtaining a clerical appointment, was made by him his chapel-master, and sent to travel. Himmel died in 1814 in Berlin. He thought too highly of his own powers, and liked a gay life, so that he did not study enough, as is perceptible in his greater compositions. His "Fanchon" is his best opera. Many of his songs are still sung in Germany.

HINDENBURG, CHARLES FREDERIC, one of the most learned men of his age, celebrated for his discovery of the combinatory analysis. He was born at Dresden 1739, and studied medicine, together with intellectual philosophy, natural philosophy, mathematics, and belles-lettres. In 1781 he was appointed extraordinary professor of philosophy at Leipsic; in 1786 he was made ordinary professor of natural philosophy at the same university. Many foreign academies and learned societies elected him a member. He died in 1808.

HIPPARCHUS, a celebrated astronomer, who was born, as Strabo and Suidas inform us, at Nice in

Bithynia, and flourished between 160 and 125 years before the birth of Christ. Hipparchus is reckoned to have been the first, who, from vague and scattered observations, reduced astronomy into a science and prosecuted the study of it systematically. Pliny mentions him very often, and always in terms of high commendation. He was the first, he tells us, who attempted to take the number of the fixed stars, and his catalogue is preserved in Ptolemy's "Almagest." Pliny places him amongst those men of a sublime genius, who, by foretelling the eclipses, taught mankind that they ought not to be alarmed at these phenomena.

The first observations he made were in the isle of Rhodes, which gained him the name of Rhodius, and he afterwards cultivated this science in Bithynia and Alexandria. One of his works is still extant, namely, his "Commentary upon Aratus's Phenomena." It is properly a criticism upon Aratus, for Hipparchus charges him with having "transcribed even those observations in which Eudoxus was mistaken."

HIPPIAS, a celebrated prince of Athens, son of the great Pisistratus, after whose death he assumed the government in conjunction with his brother Hipparchus: the latter was assassinated during the Panathenæa, while conducting a solemn procession to the temple of Minerva, by a band of conspirators under two young Greeks, Harmodius and Aristogiton. Hippias now seized the reins of the government alone, and revenged the death of his brother by imposing taxes on the people, selling offices, and putting to death all of whom he entertained the least suspicion, after having forced them to confess by the most dreadful tortures. This fate fell even upon some of his best friends, whom Aristogiton, full of indignation, had falsely accused as conspirators. The Athenians, wearied with these cruelties, formed a plan to free themselves from the yoke. They found means to bribe the priests of the Delphic oracle, which commanded the Spartans to release the Athenians from the tyranny of the Pisistratides. In compliance with the command of the divine Pythia, Sparta broke off her alliance with the tyrant of Athens, who was obliged to yield to the united attack of his foreign and domestic enemies. Hippias was expelled from the city B. C. 510, and Athens breathed more freely. But the means by which the voice of the oracle had been gained did not remain a secret, and the Spartans, filled with indignation, demanded the restoration of Hippias, but without success. Hippias now sought protection and support from Artaphernes, the satrap of Sardis, and induced Darius, who was already irritated against the Athenians on account of the assistance which they had rendered to the Asiatic Greeks, to require them to receive Hippias. Their decisive refusal kindled the first war of the Persians against the European Greeks. But the battle of Marathon in 490 destroyed, with the army of Darius, the hopes of Hippias; he himself fell on that bloody day fighting against his country.

HIPPOCRATES.—This learned Greek physician was the founder of a school in medicine, and author of the first attempt at a scientific treatment of that science. He was born in the island of Cos, and in the city of the same name B. C. 456, and belonged to the celebrated family of Asclepiades, or descendants of Æsculapius, from whom Hippocrates was the seventeenth in descent. His father, Heraclides, a physician, instructed him in the art of physic, and his education

was conducted with all the care that was usual in the principal families during the flourishing period of Greece. He probably enjoyed the instruction of the philosophers then living at Athens, and among them of Heraclitus. He spent the greater part of his life in visiting the different cities of Greece, for the purpose of improving in his art. He remained longest in Thrace and Thessaly, particularly in the Thracian island Thasus, and probably travelled also over a great part of Asia. He died in his ninetieth year. The writings which are extant under the name of Hippocrates cannot be ascribed to him. Some of these writings are the productions of the Alexandrian school; others, though genuine, have been collected, altered, explained, and mixed with additions by his descendants. The genuine writings of Hippocrates are, the first and third book on Epidemics, Aphorisms, the treatise on Diet, on Air, Waters and Situations.

Hippocrates was a zealous unwearied observer of nature, and considered diseases with a free spirit, unprejudiced by any system; hence we have from him the finest description of their natural course, disturbed neither by medicines nor by any violent or precipitate interference. He was by this means best enabled to become acquainted with the healing power of nature, and with the different ways in which she effects the restoration of the sick, as well as with the exterior means by which she was supported in her operations. He adopted a principle of life as a fundamental power of the living body, on which life, health, or sickness were dependent; but he did not express himself more distinctly respecting it, nor did he enter into many hypotheses and investigations on the nature of disease in general. He paid great attention to the exterior influences as the remoter causes of the maladies, in particular to air, food, climate, dwelling-place, and even to the social relations of the sick. He made the observation, that nature followed in the course of the diseases certain periods of increase and diminution, and was led by this to his doctrine of the critical days. In his method of curing the dietetical precepts take the first rank. He advises to adapt the diet to the degree of strength of the sick; at the same time he makes it his object to observe the operations of nature, to lead them, to imitate them, and, as circumstances require, to augment or to repress them. During the increase of the disease he did not willingly undertake any thing decisive lest nature might be disturbed in her wholesome operation on the matter of disease; but during the crisis of secretion and evacuation of the matter of disease, or shortly before, he assisted nature by means which promoted the discharges. His peculiar merit in medicine consisted chiefly in clearing the science from the useless subtleties of the many philosophical sects of that period, and in making it, instead of the exclusive property of the priests, a common good, open to every one who wished to study it, in observing the course of undisturbed nature with a clear eye and an enlightened mind, and in the faithful communication of his experience.

HIPPONAX, a Greek poet, born at Ephesus, 540 years before the Christian era. His satirical raillery obliged him to fly from Ephesus, and as he was naturally deformed, two brothers, Bupalus and Anthemus, made a statue of him, which, by the deformity of his features, exposed the poet to universal ridicule. Hipponax resolved to revenge the injury,

and wrote such bitter invectives and satirical lampoons against them that they hanged themselves in despair.

HIPPISLEY, SIR JOHN COXE, an English baronet, who held several important political offices towards the close of the last century. He was born in 1765, and after travelling through Europe he was in 1785 appointed to a post in India, and on his return to England he was employed in negotiating a marriage between the duke of Wirtemberg and the princess royal of England. Sir John was a strenuous supporter of Catholic emancipation, on which subject he published a volume of "Observations." He was also the author of a "Treatise on Prison Discipline." Sir John died in 1825.

HIRT, ALOYS, member of the royal academy of Berlin, professor of archæology in the university of Berlin, particularly distinguished for his knowledge of ancient architecture, and in general as a theoretical architect, as appears from his papers read to the above academy on the temple of Diana at Ephesus and on Solomon's temple. Of his life we only know that he was born in Donaueschingen in 1759, that he travelled in Italy and became the companion of some persons of distinction, returned to Prussia with the countess of Lichtenau, and became the tutor of Prince Henry.

HIRE, PHILIP DE LA, an eminent French mathematician and astronomer, who was born at Paris in 1640. His father Laurence, who was painter in ordinary to the king, and professor in the academy of painting and sculpture, intended him also for the same occupation, and with that view taught him the principles of design, but died when Philip was no more than seventeen. Young De la Hire then projected a journey into Italy, which he conceived might contribute to the recovery of his health. Accordingly he set out in 1660, and soon found himself well enough to contemplate the remains of antiquity with which Italy abounds. He applied himself also to geometry, of which he was indeed fonder than of painting, and which soon afterwards engrossed him entirely.

On his return to Paris he continued his mathematical studies, to which he now wholly applied himself with the utmost intenseness; and he afterwards published works which gained him so much reputation that he was made a member of the Academy of Sciences in 1678. The minister Colbert having formed a design of a better chart or map of the kingdom than any which had hitherto been taken, De la Hire was nominated, with Picard, to make the necessary observations for this purpose. He went to Bretagne in 1679, to Guyenne in 1680, to Calais and Dunkirk in 1681, and to Province in 1682. In 1683 he was employed in continuing the meridian line, which Picard had begun in 1669. De la Hire continued it to the north of Paris, while Cassini carried it on to the south; but Colbert dying the same year, the work was dropped before it was finished. He was next employed, with other geometers of the academy, in taking the necessary levels for several grand aqueducts which Lewis XIV. was about to make. His days were now always spent in study, his nights very often in astronomical observations, and he seldom sought any other relief from his labours but a change of one for another. He was twice married, and had eight children. He died April 21, 1718, aged seventy-eight.



He was the author, as we have said, of a vast number of works, the principal of which are "Nouvelle Methode en Geometrie pour les Sections des Superficies Coniques et Cylindriques," published in 1673, "Nouveaux Elemens des Sections Coniques; les lieux Geometriques; la Construction ou Effecton des Equations, 1679." "Sectiones Conicæ, in novem libros distributæ." This was considered as an original work, and gained the author a great reputation all over Europe. His editions of the Greek mathematicians is also a learned work. It had been begun by M. Thevenot, who dying, the care of finishing it was committed to de la Hire. It shows that our author's strong application to mathematical and astronomical studies had not hindered him from acquiring a very competent knowledge of the Greek tongue. Besides these and other smaller works, there are a vast number of his papers scattered through the scientific journals, and particularly in the "Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences."

HOADLEY, BENJAMIN, a learned ecclesiastic, who successively held the bishoprics of Bangor, Hereford, Salisbury, and Winchester. He was born in 1676, and his first preferment in the church was the rectory of St. Peter le Poor, and the lectureship of St. Mildred's in the Poultry. In the year 1706 he published some Remarks on Bishop Atterbury's sermon at the funeral of Mr. Bennet, in which Dr. Atterbury had, in the opinion of Mr. Hoadley, laid down several very dangerous propositions. Two years after, Mr. Hoadley again entered the lists against this formidable antagonist; and in his exceptions against a sermon published by Dr. Atterbury, entitled "The Power of Charity to Cover Sin," he attacked the doctor with great strength of reasoning and dispassionate enquiry. In 1709 another dispute arose between these two learned combatants respecting the doctrine of non-resistance. It was originated by the publication of a work by Mr. Hoadley, entitled "The Measures of Obedience;" some positions in which Dr. Atterbury endeavoured to confute in his elegant Latin sermon preached that year before the London clergy. In this debate Mr. Hoadley distinguished himself so highly that the House of Commons gave him a particular mark of their regard, by representing, in an address to the queen, the signal services he had done to the cause of civil and religious liberty. The principles, however, which he espoused running counter to the general opinions of the period, drew upon him the virulence of a party; yet it was at this period (1710, when, as he himself expressed it, fury seemed to be let loose upon him), that, unasked, he was presented to the rectory of Streatham in Surrey. Soon after the accession of King George I. Mr. Hoadley was consecrated to the see of Bangor; and 1717, having broached some opinions respecting the nature of Christ's kingdom, &c., he again became the object of popular clamour. At this juncture he was distinguished by another particular mark of the royal regard, by means of which the convocation was successively prorogued, and it was not permitted to sit nor do any business till that resentment was entirely subsided. In 1721 he was translated to Hereford, and from thence in 1723 to Salisbury. In 1734 he was translated to Winchester on the demise of Dr. Willis, and published his "Plain Account of the Sacrament;" a performance which served as a butt for his adversa-

ries to shoot at, yet it is but justice to state that it is written with great candour and judgment, and suited to the capacity of every serious and considerate inquirer after truth. His latter days were embittered by an instance of fraud and ingratitude. The bishop took a French Catholic priest, who pretended to abjure his religion, under his protection, with no other recommendation than that of his necessities; in return for which act of humanity the priest found an opportunity of getting the bishop's name written by his own hand, and, causing a note of some thousand pounds to be placed before it, offered it in payment. But the bishop denying it to be his, it was brought before a court of justice, and was there found to be a gross imposition. The Frenchman then charged the bishop with being a drunkard, and alleged that he had the note of him when he was in liquor. To this calumny the bishop made a full and nervous answer, in which he exposed the man's falsehood, and solemnly averred that he was never intoxicated in his whole life. The world with becoming ardour embraced his defence, and he had the pleasure to find himself perfectly acquitted even of any suspicion of such a charge. As a writer he possessed uncommon abilities, and his sermons are considered inferior to few writings in the English language for plainness and perspicuity, energy and strength of reasoning, and a free and masterly style. In private life he was naturally facetious, easy, and complying; fond of company, yet would frequently leave it for the purposes of study or devotion. He died in 1761. Besides the works already mentioned, he wrote several theological treatises of considerable merit.

HOADLEY, BENJAMIN, son of Bishop Hoadley, who was born in 1706 and studied at Bennet College, Cambridge, under the tuition of Dr. Herring, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. He took his degree in physic, and was when very young admitted a member of the Royal Society. He was made register of Hereford while his father filled that see, and was early appointed physician to his majesty's household, but died at his house in Chelsea in 1757. He wrote "Three Letters on the Organs of Respiration," "The Suspicious Husband," a comedy, and "Observations on a Series of Electrical Experiments."

HOBBS, THOMAS, a celebrated moral and political writer and philosopher of the seventeenth century. He was born in April 1588 within the borough of Malmesbury in Wiltshire. In 1603 he became student of Magdalen Hall, Oxford, and in 1610 he set out on a tour with the son of Lord Hardwicke (afterwards earl of Devonshire) through France and Italy; and, after his return to this country, he resided several years in the Devonshire family, as secretary to Lord Hardwicke. During this period Hobbes became acquainted with Lord Bacon (some of whose works he translated into Latin), Lord Herbert of Cherbury, and Ben Jonson. The first work which he published was a translation of the history of Thucydides. On a subsequent visit to the continent he became acquainted with Gassendi at Paris, and Galileo at Pisa. In 1637 he returned to England, and resided much at Chatsworth till 1741, when, alarmed at the probability of political commotions, he went to Paris. He staid abroad some years, and during that time published most of his works. In 1642 first appeared his treatise "De Cive," afterwards

published in England, with the title of "Philosophical Rudiments concerning Government and Society, or a Dissertation concerning Man in his several Habitudes and Respects as a Member of Society, first Secular and then Sacred." His writings on mathematics are not important, yet he was employed to teach Prince Charles (afterwards Charles II.) the elements of mathematical philosophy. In 1650 was published, in London, a small treatise by Hobbes, entitled "Human Nature;" and another on the Elements of the Law. But the most remarkable of his works is his "Leviathan, or the Matter, Form, and Power of a Commonwealth, Ecclesiastical and Civil." This greatly alarmed the ecclesiastics of those days, and drew on the author much literary hostility. Returning to England, he was well received by the Devonshire family, in which he passed the remainder of his life. He continued to employ his pen on philosophical topics, and in 1654 he published a letter upon Liberty and Necessity. In 1658 appeared his "Dissertation on Man," which completed his philosophical system, a work containing some singular notions relative to the moral and intellectual faculties of the human species. After the Restoration Hobbes was favourably received by the king, who promised him his protection, and settled on him a pension of 100*l.* a year out of his privy purse.

In 1666 his "Leviathan" was censured in parliament, and a bill was introduced into the House of Commons to provide for the punishment of atheism and profaneness, which gave him great uneasiness. On this occasion he composed a learned and ingenious work, entitled "A Historical Narration concerning Heresy and the Punishment thereof," to show that he was not legally chargeable with heresy in writing and publishing his "Leviathan." Among the principal literary labours of his later years were translations of Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey* in verse, which passed through three editions within ten years, though utterly destitute of poetical merit. His "Decameron Physiologicum," or ten dialogues of natural philosophy, was published in 1678; as was also "A Dialogue between a Philosopher and a Student of the Common Law of England;" and in 1679 he consigned to the care of a bookseller his "Behemoth, or a History of the Civil Wars from 1640 to 1660," which did not appear until after his death. That event took place on the 4th of December, 1679, at Hardwicke, a seat of the earl of Devonshire, in Derbyshire.

Few authors have encountered more opposition than the philosopher of Malmesbury. The imputation of irreligion was brought against him by his literary antagonists, and the charge has been renewed even in our own times. He has been unjustly charged with atheism, but it cannot be denied that there are few persons whose works, owing to the extraordinary abilities of the writer, and the singularity of his notions, the dogmatical manner in which they are delivered, and the agreeableness of the style, have had more influence in spreading infidelity and irreligion, though none of them are directly levelled against revealed religion. The merit of Hobbes consists in having successfully applied the inductive method of reasoning, recommended by Bacon, to the investigation of mental philosophy. In his search after truth he is startled by no consequences to which the inquiry may lead, his professed object being to ascertain the boundaries of knowledge, and to show

where the imperfection of human intellect renders our creed a matter of conventional authority. He states the Pentateuch and other sacred histories of the Jews to be no older than the time of Ezra, and that the Christian Scriptures were not received by the church as of divine authority till the settlement of the canon by the council of Laodicea, A.D. 364. Both with respect to religion and government he ascribes great weight to the will of the civil magistrate, and his sentiments on this point, together with his doctrine that a state of nature must be a state of perpetual hostility, in which brute force must supersede law and every other principle of action, have perhaps been most generally objected to. Yet his claim of obedience to existing authorities is qualified by the assertion that it is no longer due than while they can afford protection to the subject. The philosophy of Hobbes, so depreciated among his contemporaries, has been more or less adopted by Locke, Hartley, Hume, and Priestley. His writings are distinguished for acuteness, but contain many paradoxes. Of his several opponents we only mention, among the moderns, Feuerbach, who wrote, in opposition to his system, his "Anti-Hobbes."

HOCHÉ, LAZARUS, a distinguished general in the revolutionary war, was born in 1764 at Montreuil near Versailles, where his father was the keeper of the king's hounds, and when but fourteen years of age he became a groom in the king's stables. He took service in the regiment of French guards, and in the day-time he mounted guard for others, or did their work in order to gain something to purchase books, which he read during the night. At the beginning of the revolution he immediately joined the party of the people, became a member of the municipal guard of Paris, distinguished himself by zeal and intelligence, became in 1792 lieutenant, and studied military science with great diligence. During the siege of Thionville he gave proofs of intrepidity and great military acquirements, and became aid-de-camp of General Leveneur, with whom, after the death of Neerwinden and the defection of Dumouriez, he returned to Paris. His plan of operations met the approbation of the committee of public safety, and he was sent as adjutant general to defend Dunkirk. Hoche inspired all by his addresses and his example, repulsed every attack of the English, and soon obtained the rank of general of brigade and division. He was not twenty-four years old when he received the command of the army of Moselle. The army was raw and inexperienced, but his military spirit immediately gave animation to the whole. His plan was to drive the enemy from Alsace, but he had the most experienced troops of all Europe, under the duke of Brunswick, opposed to him. In vain did he assault for three days the line of Kaiserslautern; he was obliged to make a retrograde movement. He then directed his efforts against the Austrians on the Lower Rhine, crossed the Vosges in spite of the bad weather and roads, defeated General Wormser at Wesseimburg, delivered Landau, took Germersheim, Spire, Worms, &c., and drove the Austrians out of Alsace. His frankness displeased the deputy St. Just, by whose means he was deprived of his command, and sent as a prisoner to Paris. The revolution of the 9th Thermidor saved him from the guillotine.

In 1795 he was employed against the royalists in



the west, in which capacity he displayed great ability, both as a general and as a statesman, exerting himself to pacify and not to destroy; and his efforts were crowned with unexpected success. The new committee of public safety entrusted him with the command of the armies which occupied all the country from the Somme to the Loire, and he now expected, by vigorous measures, to secure the public tranquillity; but the partial treaties concluded by the commissioners of the convention with the insurgents frustrated his plans. When hostilities were renewed, and the emigrants landed at Quiberon in June 1795, he collected his scattered troops, and marched against them with great promptness and decision. He determined upon the assault of fort Penthièvre against the views of the council of war. The fort was taken, the royalists were driven into the sea and forced to surrender. He then wrote to the committee of public safety, to request that all the prisoners except the leaders might be spared; but the committee ordered them all to be executed. Hoche, indignant at this, put the command of Morbihan into the hands of General Lemoine, and marched with his remaining troops against St. Malo. When the directory took the reins of government, Hoche received the command of the armies of the west, with plenary powers, for the subjection of Vendée. He laboured principally to crush Charette, the ablest and most zealous of the Vendean chiefs. Hoche took possession of all the military points of the Vendée, inspired the people of the country with confidence by the severe discipline which he kept in his army; flattered the priests, weakened and divided the royalists, and defeated them every where. Charette and Stofflet fell into his hands, quiet was restored in the Vendée, and Hoche marched towards Anjou and Brittany. Here he was equally skilful and fortunate, and succeeded in establishing tranquillity. On the 16th July, 1796, the directory declared that Hoche and his army had deserved well of their country.

Hoche now conceived the plan of exciting civil war in England, as England had so long maintained the civil war in France, and separating Ireland from Great Britain. After having overcome all the obstacles which were in the way of such an expedition, he set sail from Brest; but a storm dispersed the fleet; he found himself alone on the coast of Ireland, and the plan failed. After his return he received the command of the army of the Sambre and Meuse. He opened the campaign of 1797 by a bold passage over the Rhine in the face of the enemy. In four days he had marched with his army thirty-five leagues, and been victorious in three battles and five skirmishes, and taken Wetzlar; there the news of the armistice concluded in Italy stopped him in the path of victory. After having declared himself ready to lend his support to the directory in the internal struggle in France, he suddenly died on the 15th of September, 1797, in Wetzlar, it was supposed, at the time, of poison, but this has never been proved. A short time prior to his death, Hoche suggested the employment of a floating raft for the invasion of England, and he was said to have done so in consequence of his failure in 1796. Bonaparte is said to have borrowed the idea of this extraordinary kind of marine conveyance from Hoche's model, but the futility of any such attempt must be apparent on the slightest view of the matter.

The monument erected by Bonaparte to the memory of Hoche is represented beneath.



HODGES, NATHANIEL, an eminent English physician, who was admitted at Christchurch College, Oxford, and after having taken in due course his degree in arts, he in 1659 took those of doctor and bachelor of medicine; he subsequently settled in London, and was one of the two stipendiary physicians employed by the city of London, during the plague, to attend the infected, and he fulfilled the duties of his office in an exemplary manner. He was the author of a treatise entitled "*Vindiciæ Medicinæ et Medicorum*," and one called "*Loimologia*," which contained an historical account of the dreadful contagion which nearly depopulated the metropolis. Dr. Hodges died in 1684.

HODGSON, JAMES, a learned mathematician of the last century, who was for some years master of the royal mathematical school in Christ Church Hospital, London. He is principally known from his mathematical works, the principal of which are, "*The Doctrine of Fluxions*," a "*Treatise on Navigation*," and his "*System of the Mathematics*."

HODITZ, ALBERT JOSEPH, COUNT OF.—This singular individual is principally known for his rare talent of changing every thing around him into instruments of pleasure. He was born in 1706, and married the widow of George William, margrave of Bayreuth. He resided on his estate in Moravia, and converted his peasants into dancers, singers, actors, musicians, &c. There were 4000 fountains in his garden; indeed, every thing about it was converted into an ornament. The village of Roswald was often celebrated in song, particularly in an epistle of Frederic II. Hoditz died in 1778.

HODY, HUMPHREY, an eminent English divine, who was born in 1659 and was educated at Wadham College Oxford, where he took his degree of M. A. in 1682. He was the author of several valuable theological works, among which we may mention his "*Dissertation on Aristæus*," "*History of the Seventy-two Interpreters*," "*A History of the English Councils and Convocations*," and his work on the original text and Greek and Latin Vulgate versions of the Bible under the title of "*De Bibliorum Textibus Originalibus Versionibus Græcis et Latina Vulgata*." He died in 1706.

HOET, GERARD, an eminent painter, who was born at Bommel in 1648. He was the son of a glass-painter, and though he received scarcely any

instruction in the higher branches of his art, yet such were his natural abilities that he raised himself to affluence by the excellence of his works, which are still highly prized both for beauty of design and the elaborate style of finish which distinguish them. Hoer died in 1733.

**HOFER, ANDREW.**—Few men have deserved better of their country or served it more devotedly than this "peasant hero" of the Tyrol. His career in many respects resembled that of William Wallace, and it was brought to nearly the same melancholy conclusion. He was born in 1767 at a small inn kept by his father in the valley of Passeyr.



In 1796, when the war approached the Tyrol, he led a rifle company of volunteers, and on a new rupture between the courts of Paris and Vienna in 1808 he assumed a still higher command. Hofer was in his forty-first year when the insurrection first broke out in the Tyrol. Though his make was herculean, in his manner of holding himself he stooped considerably; and, as is usual with those who are in the habit of ascending mountains with heavy burdens, his ordinary walk was slow, and with his knees bent. His voice was soft and agreeable, his countenance not expressive, except of great good humour when he smiled; it was not, however, deficient in animation; and when at prayers, there was a look of humility about him which was said to be more indicative of Christian resignation than of the courageous firmness of an ancient hero. His education was somewhat superior to the generality of country folk, and from his duties as the master of a public-house, and the traffic he carried on, he had acquired some knowledge of the Italian language, which he spoke with tolerable fluency, though in the worst Venetian dialect. His dress was the common habit of the country with some variation,—a large black hat with

a broad brim adorned with black ribbons, and a black feather, a green jacket, red waistcoat, green braces, black leather girdle, and short black breeches, with red or black stockings. About his neck was a crucifix, with a large silver medal of St. George, to which was afterwards added a gold medal and chain sent to him by the emperor. He never, however, received the cross of Maria Theresa, nor obtained any rank in the Austrian army, as has been falsely reported.

But that for which Hofer was chiefly distinguished in his outward appearance, and more especially when he rode on horseback, was his long black beard, which descended very low. The innkeepers in these valleys were accustomed of old to allow their beards to grow, but it was in consequence of a wager that Hofer was induced to cherish this inconvenient appendage, one of his friends having disputed his power of doing what his wife would doubtless so very strongly object to. In his disposition he was phlegmatic, fond of his ease and comfort, an enemy to every thing new and precipitate, and only to be roused when his respect for old-established privileges and customs, for the religion which he professed or the country which he belonged to, excited him to action. He was slow in decision, and, in transacting business, confined in his information, and rather confused in his projects, credulous as most of his countrymen are, and accessible to flattery, however gross; his head, indeed, was not strong enough to bear his unexpected elevation to a degree of reputation to which his personal qualities gave him no pretensions. It was easy to urge him to severe measures, but the natural mildness and pliancy of his disposition hindered their completion, and it was impossible to hear unmoved the natural and unaffected tone in which he expressed himself, when his feelings of national pride or patriotism were excited. He was quite free from dissimulation of every kind. The last speaker generally succeeded in convincing him, especially if aware, and it was not difficult to find it out, of the way which led to the heart of the person he addressed. The bare mention of a victory gained by Austria, or in the cause of his native country, a classical allusion to the old times of the Tyrol, an enthusiastic word in favour of the sacred person of the emperor, or of the archduke John, so dear to every Tyrolian,—any one of these proved an appeal too powerful to be withstood.

In personal courage Hofer was certainly not deficient: it was manifested on many occasions, and more especially in the last act of his life. But however strange it may appear, it is a well-known fact that in 1809 he never was in fire excepting on one occasion when he was observed for a short time in the thickest of the fight; and it has even been said that in more than one engagement his convivial habits kept him employed at the top of his table when he ought to have been at the head of his men:—it was in allusion to his failings in this respect, and to the superstitious weakness which ran through his whole character, that he has been represented as conducting his marches with the bottle in one hand and the rosary in the other. It may be asked how with these defects Hofer was enabled to act the conspicuous part which he confessedly did, and to obtain so completely the confidence of his countrymen. There was, in the first place, a degree of honesty in his character, a total absence of all considerations of per-



sonal interest which could not fail of attaching to him the affections of his followers, to which must be added a certain reliance on his military skill produced by his early success against the Bavarians, and by the oracular tone and manner in which he is said to have delivered his orders and opinions. All this, however, will not be sufficient to account for the popularity which his name acquired, and we must look for it in the circumstance of his being one of the chief channels of communication between the Tyrolese and the court of Vienna through the medium of the archduke John.

For some years previous to that to which our observations now refer, the archduke had passed much of his time in wandering over the Rhaetian Alps. Whilst employed there in botanical and mineralogical researches, and in obtaining a geographical knowledge of the country, he insensibly gained the hearts of the people from the readiness with which he adopted their habits, and the attention which he gave to all their interests and concerns; and above all, perhaps, by his sharing with them in the perils of their adventurous chase of the chamois, to which, as we have observed, they are all extremely addicted. The more he explored the recesses and passes of the Tyrol, the more he felt satisfied that it might be defended as an impregnable fortress, that it ought to be so considered in a military point of view, and that the people might be converted into most invaluable troops by proper discipline and care. His suggestions, however, on this subject do not appear to have met with the attention they merited; the organization of the militia was miserably neglected, and a few inefficient officers and ill-armed peasants were all that it produced. It was not until September 1805, when Bonaparte was rapidly advancing from Boulogne to the Rhine, that all the evils of this neglect became fully apparent, and the archduke, whose influence among the Tyrolese was well known at Vienna, was sent to repair in a few days the effects of a system of mismanagement which had existed so long. This was no easy task; time is absolutely necessary for bringing into discipline any body of men, and none require it so much as the Tyrolese, from their great dislike to regular service. Innspruck was at this time almost destitute of troops, the archduke being left there with only a few soldiers belonging to the customs. Whilst in this situation, intelligence was brought that a French corps had shown itself, and was attempting to penetrate by the way of Scharnitz. The tocsin was immediately sounded throughout the valley, and the following day 12,000 peasants were assembled on the heights of Scefeld. These, however, were soon dismissed as the apprehensions of immediate attack subsided, and in a few days the archduke set off for Italy to take a command in the army then under his brother Charles on the Adige. He had hardly time, however, to establish himself at head-quarters before a deputation from the Tyrol arrived to request his return, and two days after he had joined the army he was again in motion on his return to Innspruck to take the command of the country which he had so lately quitted. Nothing could be more discouraging than the aspect of affairs there. He found the troops loosely scattered on the borders, the generals at variance, and the people full of distrust. To concentrate the forces and to form some systematic plan of defence was the first object; but whilst employed

in these salutary and necessary arrangements he was surprised by the appearance of a large body of Austrian officers, who announced their having been made prisoners at Ulm, the extent of the disaster which had befallen their army in that quarter, and the danger to be apprehended from the approach of the enemy. It was at this critical moment that the archduke proposed his long-digested plan for the defence of the Tyrol, and which, if carried into effect at this period, as it was in 1809, might have rendered the consequences of the battle of Austerlitz less fatal than they afterwards proved, by cutting off the communications of the French army, and keeping up the spirits of the people of Germany. But the proposals on this subject were not accepted at Vienna. The army of Italy retired, and Prince John received orders to quit that country which he felt that he had ability as well as means to defend. A more embarrassing situation than that of the archduke at this juncture cannot well be conceived, or one more distressing to the people whom he was thus compelled to abandon. He had, however, completely gained their confidence; they obeyed the order given, and returned to their homes. But what tended more than all to tranquilize the minds of the Tyrolese at this moment, and was, in fact, the real cause of the cessation of all further attempts on their part in 1805, was a circumstance which took place before the archduke quitted the country. At Brunecken he was overtaken by the deputation selected to wait upon him, amongst whom was Hofer; the prince here gave his hand to those appointed to take leave of him, and accompanied this with a solemn promise that whenever the moment for action arrived, and arrive it must, they should be apprized of it, and allowed to arm for the purpose of carrying into effect the plan secretly agreed upon. He then exhorted them to remain quiet for the present, to conceal their arms, to make such preparations as might be in their power, and to keep up a regular correspondence between the districts.

Thus driven from his favourite abode, the archduke in 1807 turned his steps towards Stiria and Carinthia: he was often on the confines of his old territory but the prudence of his ancient adherents was carried so far that not a single person from that quarter ever ventured to come near him. In the year 1808 the prince was employed in organizing the militia of the countries above mentioned, and it was only in the district of Salzburg that he had any communication with his old followers from the Tyrol. A regular correspondence had, however, been carried on all this time, in which political events were clothed in the language of courtship. The bride, it was stated, was ready and the nuptial feast prepared, the bridegroom alone was wanted, and inquiry was made for him; to which the general answer given was, that the marriage could not take place immediately, as the bridegroom had not as yet made the necessary preparations.

Besides this mode of intercourse, a variety of contrivances were adopted for bringing together those who were labouring in the same cause: on Sundays and holidays they met in the church-yards, or at the little inns and houses of entertainment, where these transactions could be carried on with the greatest security, as the inn-keepers were universally staunch and zealous in the cause, and formed the chain which kept all things together. At length in

the month of January 1809, the war being no longer doubtful, the archduke wrote to say that the bridegroom was ready, desiring at the same time that some trusty persons might be sent to confer with him, and particularly naming Hofer amongst them. Hofer came accordingly, accompanied by some of his most faithful associates, who presented themselves in the unceremonious manner of their country to the prince, who was then lodging in the imperial palace. The archduke was on the point of setting out for Graz to make preparations for the approaching campaign. The deputies however had some private conferences with him of short duration, in which the state of affairs was explained to them. They were directed to hold themselves in readiness, and assurances were given that they should be duly informed when the day was fixed for a general rising. Another chieftain named Hormayer was privy to all these proceedings, and, having the entire confidence of the archduke, was entrusted with the task of negotiating with the deputies, and making every arrangement connected with the Tyrol. His plan was to provide for a simultaneous movement on a given day, by establishing a certain number of fixed rallying points, so that the country should thus be in a state of complete insurrection from one end to the other, and that the suddenness of the movement should operate like a thunder-clap upon the enemy, and serve as a signal to the rest of Germany. Two months elapsed before this plan was carried into execution, and it speaks highly for the credit of the nation that a scheme of so much importance, which must necessarily have been known to so many people, should have remained for so long a time secret. There is no instance upon record of any Tyrolian being induced to turn traitor for a bribe, and even the women, says Bartholdy, knew how to be silent. It is also deserving of notice, as a proof of the skillfulness of Hormayer's arrangements, that at the first breaking out of hostilities his plans were successful at all the leading points, excepting one, and that was the carrying Kufstein by a *coup de main*. His situation, however, was not free from difficulty;—among the Austrian generals there was considerable difference of opinion as to the policy to be pursued in regard to the Tyrol. Some were inclined to consider it as an insulated fortress which must be defended at all hazards; others were for withdrawing from it the force still remaining, small as it was, on the plea that Austria could ill afford to suffer any division of her troops; whilst not a few considered the insurrection as likely to be productive of habits of insubordination and disorder, and, though they approved of the end proposed, were inclined to be scrupulous as to the means employed.

At such a crisis it was very desirable that the popular feeling, in the state of exaltation and enthusiasm to which it was raised, should not be led astray by designing men,—that the chiefs should be chosen from amongst themselves, whose views and inclinations were free from all suspicion, to whom the people might look with confidence, and on whose integrity and disinterestedness the court of Vienna could implicitly rely. Of those selected by Hormayer with this view, Hofer was the chief, and a safer choice could not have been made. His mild and honest disposition rendered it impossible to apprehend any evil from his obtaining too much popularity amongst his countrymen.

We have not sufficient space to enter into a detail of the progress of the Tyrolese arms; a few observations on some of the most remarkable incidents which took place will be sufficient for our purpose; for although on no occasion were more energy and gallantry or more self-devotion displayed than by the people of the Tyrol in 1809, yet the contest partook (as must be expected) of the nature of every popular insurrection, and the leading features are unavoidably such as occur in all struggles of a similar description. The first breaking out of hostilities was attended with signal success, and a blow was struck which obliged the enemy for a time to abandon the country altogether. The French and Bavarian forces in Innsbruck were compelled to surrender themselves prisoners to the rude peasantry whom they had so often affected to despise, and Bonaparte was doomed to see a second edition of the capitulation of Baylen in the opening of a war, where every check was of the utmost importance to him, and in a quarter where failure was least of all expected. The good fortune which marked the opening of affairs in the Tyrol was not of long duration. The French successes in other quarters soon opened the way to this devoted province, and General Wrede and the duke of Dantzig regained possession of Innsbruck. The battle of Berg-Isel, fought on the 29th of May by the Tyrolese, in a spot which tradition had told them would one day be favourable to their country, relieved Innsbruck a second time from the enemy. The success of this action was chiefly due to the courage and skill of Joseph Speckbacher, a worthy associate of Hofer, and his superior in military talent, though not equally high in public reputation. Here too the Capuchin Haspinger, a very conspicuous and interesting personage in the events of this time, is recorded to have fought nobly. A greater game was meanwhile playing in the very heart of the Austrian dominions, and the emperor was compelled, as one of the stipulations of the armistice which was agreed to after the battle of Wagram, to withdraw his troops from the Tyrol, and to publish a proclamation in which its inhabitants were exhorted to lay down their arms and to trust to the clemency of the French. Lefevre again entered Innsbruck, and attempted to advance into the Lower Tyrol; but this was a task beyond his powers, and to this day his total failure, in consequence of the determined resistance and activity which was opposed to him, is a subject of glee and exultation in the Tyrol. On the 12th of August the enemy was again defeated in the auspicious neighbourhood of the Isel mountain, and on their retreat across the Inn, Hofer assumed the command at Innsbruck. His mode of exercising his functions, among much good sense, exhibited some amusing traits of character, which involuntarily remind us of Sancho's deportment when invested with the high authority of which he was so ambitious. But this prosperous state of things was only the prelude to the tragical finale which very soon followed. Austria made peace with France, and was compelled, as one of the bitterest humiliations which attended this treaty, to abandon the faithful Tyrolese to their fate; who still, however, with a degree of energy and spirit to which there is no parallel, for some time maintained the unequal conflict.

The sport of the contending opinions which prevailed as to the proper policy for his countrymen to



pursue, and deceived by false intelligence, he disdained to bend to the storm when further resistance was hopeless and only served to exasperate his enemies; and even when forced to fly for refuge to the mountains, he was obstinate in his determination to remain there, with the hope of better times and a renewal of hostilities. Every facility of escape from his hiding-place was offered by the viceroy Beauharnois, as well as the Austrian government, and both either directly or indirectly testified their desire to promote it. But no persuasion could induce him to separate himself from his family, or even to cut off the long beard which he wore, both of which precautions were absolutely necessary to prevent his being recognised. His place of concealment was a wretched Alpine hut about four long German miles from his own dwelling, and at times inaccessible from the snow which surrounded it. Hither some of his most trusty followers brought such provisions as were required for himself and his family, and in this situation he remained from the end of November to the conclusion of the month of January in perfect security, although a considerable reward was offered for his head. His retreat was at last revealed by a wretch to whom it was known at the instance of Donay, a vile traitor to the cause: and a body of men, amounting to nearly two thousand (of such importance was his capture considered), were sent to secure him. It was dark when they approached his miserable hut, but as soon as he was aware that his pursuers had discovered him he came forth intrepidly and submitted quietly to be bound. Chains were then brought to secure him better, and he was marched with his wife, his daughter, and little son of twelve years old, to Botzen, amidst the taunts of the French soldiery and the tears of his countrymen. Here he appears for the first time to have met with that sympathy which his character and misfortunes deserved. Baraguay d'Hilliers, the general in command, gave orders that less rigorous measures should be adopted for his confinement, and put a stop to the excesses which had been committed by the soldiers in plundering his little property in the Passeyr valley. The French officers too manifested their commiseration for his fate by such attentions as it was in their power to bestow, in return for the invariable kindness which he had shown to his prisoners. Although, from his long confinement in cold quarters, and coarse food, his looks were much altered, and his eye fallen, his spirit was as buoyant and as untamed as ever; and amidst the mournful faces which surrounded him, his alone retained its cheerfulness and serenity. He took occasion during his short stay at Botzen to request forgiveness of some persons there whom he feared he had offended, and he was then hurried off under a strong escort to Mantua. His family were set at liberty by an order to that effect, and he parted with them for ever. On his arrival at Mantua a court-martial was immediately assembled for his trial, of which General Bisson was chosen president. On collecting the voices great difference of opinion was found to prevail in regard to the sentence to be given; the majority were for confinement, and two even had the courage to vote for his entire liberation; but a telegraph from Milan decided the question by decreeing death within twenty-four hours, thus rendering it impossible for the intercession of Austria to be of any avail in his behalf. Berthier, who was then at Vienna as a suitor

by proxy for Bonaparte, brought upon himself universal indignation by the hypocritical manner in which he affected to lament this "unlucky accident." "Such a transaction," he said, "would be a matter of serious concern to his master the emperor, and never would have been permitted had his majesty been aware of it." Hofer was far from expecting the sentence which was passed upon him. He had felt secure in the justice of his cause, and in the conviction that he was not amenable to those edicts by which he had already been proclaimed worthy of death. When his doom was communicated to him he received the intelligence with the most unshaken firmness, and requested that a priest might be allowed to attend him, which was granted without hesitation.

The details of his last moments are given in the following simple and affecting narrative, by his German biographer:—As eleven o'clock struck, the generale sounded,—a company of grenadiers were drawn out, and the officers appointed to attend his execution entered the prison. In going out from thence he passed by the barracks on the Porta Molina, where the Tyrolese were confined: all there fell on their faces, put up their prayers, and wept aloud. Those who were at large in the fortress assembled on the road by which he was conducted, and even after the escort had left it, threw themselves on the ground, and implored his blessing. This Hofer gave them, and then requested their forgiveness for the share which he might have had in producing their present misfortunes, expressing at the same time his assurance that they would once again return under the dominion of the emperor, to whom he cried out the last "vivat" with a clear and steady voice. He delivered to Manifesti the priest, who remained with him to the last, every thing he had to be distributed to his countrymen. This consisted of 500 florins in Austrian notes, his silver snuff-box, and his beautiful rosary. To this faithful attendant himself he gave his crucifix, which was small and of silver. On the broad bastion at a little distance from the Porta Ceresa the commanding officer halted his men. The grenadiers formed a square open to the rear, and twelve of the privates and a corporal stepped forward. Hofer remained standing in the middle. The drummer then handed to him a white handkerchief to bind his eyes, and reminded him that it was necessary to bend on one knee; but he directly threw away the handkerchief, and peremptorily refused to kneel, observing that "he was used to stand upright before his Creator, and in that posture would he deliver up his spirit to him." He then cautioned the corporal to take good aim, at the same time giving him a small piece of Tyrolese money; and, having thus done, he gave the word "fire" in a loud and articulate tone. His death, like that of Palm, was not instantaneous, for the executioners performed their office at first imperfectly—a merciful shot, however, at last dispatched him. He fell, and the spot on which he suffered is still considered sacred by his countrymen and former companions. The French, as if to compensate by honours to the dead for the injury done to the living, now testified their respect for his remains by going through all the ceremonies of a public funeral. His body, instead of being allowed to remain for some time on the place of execution, as is usual in the case of those condemned to die, was borne by the grenadiers on a sable bier to the church of St. Michael. There

his corpse was laid out in state, a guard of honour was appointed to watch over it, and all the populace were admitted to see that the much dreaded leader was really no more. The interment then took place.

Thus perished Hofer in his forty-third year. The calmness and resignation displayed by him in his last moments will bear a comparison with the deportment of any of the heroes of ancient or modern times under circumstances equally trying; and a degree of intrepidity in no degree more striking has served to throw a lustre over the deaths of many characters whose lives were of a very different complexion from that of this simple countryman. A pension was settled by the emperor Francis upon Hofer's family, and a sum of money given to enable them to settle in Austria, which they were invited to do; but his widow preferred returning to her old habitation in the valley of Passseyr, where she lived till the close of the last year (1836). Two statues have since been erected to the memory of the hero of the Tyrol,—one on his own beloved mountains, and a second, which we have placed at the beginning of this article, in the cathedral church of the Holy Cross at Innspruck.

HOFFMANN, CHRISTOPHER LEWIS, a German physician and medical writer of the last century, who was born at Rheda in Westphalia in 1721, and after having been physician to the bishop of Munster and the elector of Cologne, he in 1787 accepted the same situation with the elector of Mayence. That prince gave him the direction of the college of medicine in that city. On the suppression of the electorate he removed to the small town of Eltviel on the Rhine, where he died in 1807. He distinguished himself as a professional writer by forming a new system of medicine, combining the nervous and humoral pathology. He admitted the sensibility and irritability of the solids as the basis of his system, and the corruption of the humours as a principle of irritation. His ideas are developed in the following works: "On the Sensibility and Irritability of Diseased Parts," "On the Scurvy and Syphilis," "On the Medicinal Virtues of Mercury," "A Treatise on the Small-Pox," and "The Magnetist." He also published a number of Latin dissertations in the Memoirs of the college of medicine at Munster.

HOFFMANN, FREDERIC, a celebrated individual, who was born in 1660 at Halle in Saxony, where his father was an eminent physician. He studied medicine at Jena under Professor Wedelius. In 1680 he attended the chemical lectures of Caspar Cramar at Erfurt, and, returning to Jena, took the degree of M. D. in 1681. On the establishment of the university of Halle, Hoffman in 1693 was appointed primary professor of medicine and natural philosophy. He improved the spirit of medical education, promoting among the students of the university a disposition for inquiry highly favourable to the progress of knowledge. In 1718 he commenced the publication of a work entitled "Systema Medicinæ Rationalis," which was received with great approbation by the faculty in different parts of Europe. In this system of medicine he exhibits his peculiar theoretical opinions, the chief feature of which is the doctrine of atony and spasm, afterwards made the foundation of a medical hypothesis by Dr. John Brown. Much of the humoral pathology was retained by Hoffmann, whose speculations are chiefly important as having given an impulse to future enquiries. He made a useful collection of the most

important cases which occurred to him in his practice as a physician, and published them under the title of "Medicina Consultatoria." After a long life devoted to the cultivation of medicine, he died at Halle in 1743.

HOGARTH, WILLIAM.—This great moralist in the pictorial art was born in 1697. He commenced his career in the humblest walk of his profession. "He was bound," says Mr. Walpole, "to a mean engraver of arms on plate. Hogarth probably chose this occupation as it required some skill in drawing, to which his genius was particularly turned, and which he contrived assiduously to cultivate. His master, it appears, was Mr. Ellis Gamble, a silversmith of eminence, who resided in Cranbourne Street, Leicester Fields. In this profession it is not unusual to bind apprentices to the single branch of engraving arms and cyphers on every species of metal, and in that particular department of the business young Hogarth was placed; but before his time was expired he felt the impulse of genius, and that it directed him to painting." During his apprenticeship he set out one Sunday with two or three companions on an excursion to Highgate, and, the weather being hot, they went into a public-house, where they had not been long before a quarrel arose between some persons in the same room. One of the disputants struck the other on the head with a quart pot and cut him very much. The blood running down the man's face, together with the agony of the wound, which had distorted his features into a most hideous grin, presented Hogarth, who showed himself thus early "apprized of the mode nature intended he should pursue," with too laughable a subject to be overlooked. He drew out his pencil and produced on the spot one of the most ludicrous figures that ever was seen. What rendered this piece the more valuable was, that it exhibited an exact likeness of the man, with the portrait of his antagonist, and the figures in caricature of the principal persons gathered round him.

Hogarth's first employment after he was out of his time appears to have been the engraving of arms and shop bills; and we are fortunately enabled to illustrate his labours at this period by a copy from one of his earliest productions.



In the card the female figure is looking up towards a boy who "is probably meant allegorically



to represent Design or Invention; and the figure of the old man writing on the opposite side, that of History." It appears that an original impression once sold for the sum of 25*l.*—such was the value attached to the humblest essay of this extraordinary man.

In 1730 Hogarth married the only daughter of Sir James Thornhill, by whom he had no child. This union, indeed, was a stolen one, and consequently without the approbation of Sir James, who, considering the youth of his daughter, then barely eighteen, and the slender finances of her husband, as yet an obscure artist, was not easily reconciled to the match. Soon after this period, however, he began his *Harlot's Progress*, and was advised by Lady Thornhill to have some of the scenes in it placed in the way of his father-in-law. Accordingly, one morning early, Mrs. Hogarth undertook to convey several of them into his dining-room. When he arose he enquired whence they came; and being told by whom they were introduced, he said, "Very well; the man who can furnish representations like these, can also maintain a wife without a portion." He designed this remark as an excuse for keeping his purse-strings close, but soon after became both reconciled and generous to the young people. Mr. Hogarth continued his labours for many years with uninterrupted success; and in 1757 his brother-in-law, Mr. Thornhill, resigned the place of king's serjeant-painter in favour of Mr. Hogarth. "The last memorable event in our artist's life," as Mr. Walpole observes, "was his quarrel with Mr. Wilkes, in which, if Mr. Hogarth did not commence direct hostilities on the latter, he at least obliquely gave the first offence by an attack on the friends and party of that gentleman. This conduct was the more surprising as he had all his life avoided dipping his pencil in political contests, and had early refused a very lucrative offer that was made to engage him in a set of prints against the head of a court party. Without entering into the merits of the cause I shall only state the fact. In September 1762 Mr. Hogarth published his print of *The Times*. It was answered by Mr. Wilkes in a severe North Briton. On this the painter exhibited the caricature of the writer. Mr. Churchill, the poet, then engaged in the war, and wrote his 'Epistle to Hogarth,' not the brightest of his works, and in which the severest strokes fell on a defect that the painter had neither caused nor could amend—his age; and which, however, was neither remarkable nor decrepit; much less had it impaired his talents, as appeared, by his having composed but six months before, one of his most capital works, the satire on the Methodists. In revenge for this epistle Hogarth caricatured Churchill under the form of a canonical bear, with a club and a pot of porter—*et vitulâ tu dignus est hic*—never did two angry men of their abilities throw mud with less dexterity.

"When Mr. Wilkes was the second time brought from the Tower to Westminster Hall, Mr. Hogarth skulked behind in a corner of the gallery of the court of common pleas; and while the chief justice Pratt, with the eloquence and courage of old Rome, was enforcing the great principles of *Magna Charta* and the English constitution, while every breast from him caught the holy flame of liberty, the painter was wholly employed in caricaturing the person of the man, while all the rest of his fellow-citizens were animated in his cause, for they knew it to be their

own cause, that of their country, and of its laws. It was declared to be so a few hours after by the unanimous sentence of the judges of that court, and they were all present."

Hogarth's last large work was a satirical picture directed against the Methodists, which is unquestionably a most exaggerated production. From that time his health visibly declined, and he died in October 1764.

Charles Lamb, the inimitable illustrator of Hogarth and his pictorial style, thus metes out ample justice to his powers as an artist:—"It is the fashion with those who cry up the great historical school in this country, at the head of which Sir Joshua Reynolds is placed, to exclude Hogarth from that school as an artist of an inferior and vulgar class. Those persons seem to me to confound the painting of subjects in common or vulgar life with the being a vulgar artist. The quantity of thought which Hogarth crowds into every picture would alone unvulgarize every subject which he might choose. Let us take the lowest of his subjects,—the print called *Gin Lane*. Here is plenty of poverty and low stuff to disgust upon a superficial view; and, accordingly, a cold spectator feels himself immediately disgusted and repelled. I have seen many turn away from it, not being able to bear it. The same persons would, perhaps, have looked with great complacency upon Poussin's celebrated picture of the *Plague at Athens*. Disease and death, and bewildering terror in Athenian garments, are endurable, and come as the delicate critics express it, 'within the limits of pleasurable sensation;' but the scenes of their own St. Giles's, delineated by their own countryman, are too shocking to think of. Yet if we could abstract our mind from the fascinating colours of the picture, and forget the coarse execution (in some respects) of the print, intended as it was to be a cheap print, accessible to the poorer sort of people, for whose instruction it was done, I think we could have no hesitation in conferring the palm of superior genius upon Hogarth, comparing this work of his with Poussin's picture. There is more imagination in it,—that power which draws all things to one, which makes things animate and inanimate, beings with their attributes, subjects and their accessories, take one colour and serve to one effect. Every thing in the print, to use a vulgar expression, *tells*. Every part is full of 'strange images of death.' It is perfectly amazing and astounding to look at. Not only the two prominent figures, the woman and the half dead man, which are as terrible as any thing which Michael Angelo ever drew, but every thing else in the print contributes to bewilder and stupify,—the very houses, as I heard a friend of mine express it, tumbling all about in various directions, seem drunk,—seem absolutely reeling from the effect of that diabolical spirit of phrenzy which goes forth over the whole composition. To show the poetical and almost prophetic conception in the artist, one little circumstance may serve. Not content with the dying and dead figures which he has strewed in profusion over the proper scene of the action, he shows you what (of a kindred nature) is passing beyond it. Close by the shell, in which, by the direction of the parish beadle, a man is depositing his wife, is an old wall which, partaking of the universal decay around it, is tumbling to pieces. Through a gap in this wall are seen three figures, which appear to make a part in

some funeral procession which is passing by on the other side of the wall, out of the sphere of the composition. This extending of the interest beyond the bounds of the subjects could only have been conceived by a great genius."

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"The faces of Hogarth have not a mere momentary interest, as in caricatures, or those grotesque physiognomies which we sometimes catch a glance of in the streets, and, struck with their whimsicality, wish for a pencil and the power to sketch them down, and forget them again as rapidly; but they are permanent abiding ideas, not the sports of nature, but her necessary eternal classes. We feel that we cannot part with any of them lest a link should be broken. It is worthy of observation, that he has seldom drawn a mean or insignificant countenance. Hogarth's mind was eminently reflective; and, as it has been well observed of Shakspeare, that he has transfused his own poetical character into the persons of his drama (they are all more or less poets), Hogarth has impressed a thinking character upon the persons of his canvass. This remark must not be taken universally. The exquisite idiotism of the little gentleman in the bag and sword beating his drum, in the print of the Enraged Musician, would of itself rise up against so sweeping an assertion. But I think it will be found to be true of the generality of his countenances. The knife-grinder and Jew flute-player in the plate just mentioned, may serve as instances instead of a thousand. They have intense thinking faces, though the purpose to which they are subservient by no means required it; but, indeed, it seems as if it was painful to Hogarth to contemplate mere vacancy or insignificance. This reflection of the artist's own intellect from the faces of his characters is one reason why the works of Hogarth, so much more than those of any other artist, are objects of meditation. Our intellectual natures love the mirror which gives them back their own likenesses. The mental eye will not bend long with delight on vacancy.

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"In the Election Entertainment (which, perhaps, as far exceeds the more known and celebrated March to Finchley as the best comedy exceeds the best farce that ever was written) let a person look till he be saturated, and when he has done wondering at the inventiveness of genius which could bring so many characters—more than thirty distinct classes of face—into a room, and set them down at table together, or otherwise dispose them about in so natural a manner, engage them in so many easy sets and occupations, yet all partaking of the spirit of the occasion which brought them together, so that we feel that nothing but an election time could have assembled them, having no central figure or principal group,—for the hero of the piece, the candidate, is properly set aside in the levelling indistinction of the day,—one must look for him to find him,—nothing to detain the eye from passing from part to part, where every part is alike instinct with life; for here are no furniture-faces; no figures brought in to fill up the scene like stage-choruses, but all *dramatis personæ*: when he shall have done wondering at all these faces so strongly characterized, yet finished with the accuracy of the finest miniature,—when he shall have done admiring the numberless appendages of the scene, those gratuitous doles which rich genius flings into

the heap when it has already done enough, the over measure which it delights in giving as if it felt its stores were exhaustless,—the dumb rhetoric of the scenery, for tables, and chairs, and joint stools in Hogarth are living and significant things—the witticisms that are expressed by words, (all artists but Hogarth have failed when they have endeavoured to combine two mediums of expression, and have introduced words into their pictures), and the unwritten numberless little allusive pleasantries that are scattered about,—the work that is going on in the scene and beyond it, as is made visible to the "eye of mind" by the mob which chokes up the door-way, and the sword which has forced an entrance before its master: when he shall have sufficiently admired this wealth of genius, let him fairly say what is the result left on his mind? Is it an impression of the vileness and worthlessness of his species? or is it not the general feeling which remains after the individual faces have ceased to act sensibly on the mind,—a kindly one in favour of his species? Was not the general air of the scene wholesome? did it do the heart hurt to be among it? Something of a riotous spirit to be sure is there; some worldly-mindedness in some of the faces, a Doddingtonian smoothness which does not promise any superfluous degree of sincerity in the fine gentleman who has been the occasion of calling so much good company together; but is not the general cast of expression in the faces of the good sort? do they not seem cut out of the good old rock—substantial English honesty? would one fear treachery among characters of their expression? or shall we call their honest mirth and seldom-returning relaxation by the hard names of vice and profligacy? That poor country fellow that is grasping his staff (which, from the difficulty of feeling themselves at home which poor men experience at a feast, he has never parted with since he came into the room), and is enjoying with a relish that seems to fit all the capacities of his soul, the slender joke which that facetious wag his neighbour is practising upon the gouty gentleman, whose eyes the effort to suppress pain has made as round as rings,—does it shock the "dignity of human nature" to look at that man, and to sympathize with him in the seldom-heard joke which has unbent his care-worn, hard-working visage, and drawn iron smiles from it? or that full-hearted cobbler who is honouring with the grasp of an honest fist the unused palm of that annoyed patrician whom the licence of the time has seated next him?"

HOGG, JAMES.—The Ettrick Shepherd, as this distinguished poet was usually called, furnishes a striking example of the extraordinary spread of genius amongst even the humblest classes of the Scottish peasantry. A denizen of the land whose superstitions he has illustrated, he was cradled in its historical recollections, and he early in life exhibited the deepest enthusiasm for its military heroes. The shepherds of the southern highlands of Scotland from whom Hogg sprung, and amongst whom he passed the greater part of his life form a class unique in Scotland, and unparalleled in the range of European society. They are thinly scattered over the country, and pass their days in solitude and seclusion: their cottages are often miles asunder, and during the inclemency of winter they may be debarred for months from social intercourse by the wreathing snow that chokes up their pathways, while even in summer their time is spent in lonely watchings on the hills;



and their meetings are few, save when on the morning of the sabbath they assemble at the church in the valley. Their sense of religion is fervent and unfeigned; the faith their fathers bled for has been cherished in its purity, and its rites have acquired no gloss or tinsel from the glittering but unsubstantial adornments of society. They have little of the polish, and none of the arts, derivable from an intercourse with the world. Their interests, their pursuits, and their feelings are the same; they are like one widely scattered but soul-united family, who participate in every emotion, and with whom every feeling is mutual; they are unmoved by the storms of mankind around them; politics and sectarianism are to them tales of a distant country; they have but one king to serve, and the same tolling of the village bell unites all in the service of the same protecting God. The rays of knowledge and of education which have glanced through these calm retreats, have taught them merely to investigate the manners of more remote districts, not to change their own. Their thirst for information is proportionate to the opportunity which their habits afford them of gratifying it; and their natural shrewdness has directed their taste to the most pure and useful channels. It is seldom



that you can encounter a shepherd upon the hills that he is not busily occupied with a book, whilst his plaid thrown across his arm shelters the beams of the sun from the page over which he has lain down to ponder; and every idea he is imbibing takes a tinge from the sublimity or beauty of the scenery by which he is surrounded. From this daily and uninterrupted stream of knowledge they derive an acquaintance with literature and the world, unparalleled in any equally humble class of any country in Europe, and excelled by few in the higher walks of life. When they retail the opinions of others, it is with an accuracy acquired by study and research; and when they advance their own, it is with a clearness the result of searching thought and a firmness that implies while it commands conviction; whilst their language, their imagery, and their ideas possess a pathos and a poetry unknown to the natives of less lofty or more frequented districts.

James Hogg was born in the parish of Ettrick on the 25th January 1769. His father, who, like himself, was a shepherd of that district, had by his industry contrived to save a little money, by which he was enabled to tenant a small sheep farm. A sudden fall, however, took place in that species of agricultural stock, and the consequence was he became a ruined man. The education of James Hogg was consequently much neglected, but we cannot do better than take his own estimate of its quality and amount. He says, "The school-house being at our door I had attended it for a short time, and had the honour of standing at the head of a juvenile class, who read the shorter catechism and proverbs of Solomon. Next year my parents took me home, during the winter-quarter service (as a cow-herd), and put me to school with a lad of the name of Ker, who was teaching the children of a neighbouring farmer. Here I advanced so far as to get into a class who read the Bible. I had likewise for some time before my quarter was out tried my hand at writing, and had horribly defiled several sheets of paper with copy-lines, every letter of which was nearly an inch long. Thus terminated my education. After this I was never another day at any school whatever; in all I had spent about half-a-year at it. It is true my former master denied me, and, when I was only twenty years of age, said, if he was called to make an oath he would swear I never was at his school; however I know I was at it for two or three months, and do not choose to be deprived of the honour of having attended the school of my native parish, nor yet that old John Beattie should lose the honour of such a scholar."

The range of Hogg's reading was of course limited both by his pecuniary resources and literary endowments, and it appears that the first book he mastered was the "Chivalrous Life of Wallace." Burnet's "Theory of Comets" next engaged his attention, and he says that it produced a wonderful effect upon his imagination. It set him pondering all day on the grand millenium, and dreaming all night "of a new heaven and a new earth, the stars in horror, and the world in flames!" But at this period he could read only very imperfectly, and in writing knew not how to form some of the letters of the alphabet. Allan Ramsay's "Gentle Shepherd" was another of the books which he read, but, singular as it may seem, he expressed his disappointment that it had been written in prose instead of verse, as in attempting to follow the rhyme he lost the reason of the poem. This horror of verse, it appears, did not last long, for we find him in his eighteenth year becoming a poet himself, though from his own acknowledgment his first efforts were "bitterly bad." Accident, however, excited in him an ambition to be known, and on one occasion, while attending the Edinburgh sheep market, he boldly ventured on the publication of a small volume, which he tells us "went to its lang hame," that is to say, it fell still born from the press. This was in the year 1801. But the Shepherd's ardour was not damped by this misfortune, and the result proved of greater importance than he had anticipated. The attention of Sir Walter (then Mr. Scott) was drawn towards the humble author, and a friendship was thus commenced between them which lasted with little interruption through life. The Wizard of the North was sheriff for the county in which the rustic poet lived, and having heard of Hogg's ballad propensities paid him a visit among

his own native hills. James regarded it a proud day for the "shirra" to visit him in his biggin and in the end he was encouraged to publish a volume of ballads, which appeared under the title of "The Mountain Bard." The success attendant upon the sale of this work, together with an "Essay on Sheep" which gained a Highland Society premium, having put some money in his pocket, he engaged in a ruinous agricultural adventure, which kept him in a constant turmoil for several years, until he was at last compelled in some measure to resign his usual pursuits. He shortly afterwards published a collection of songs under the title of the "Forest Minstrel," but from which unfortunately he derived no pecuniary emolument. His enthusiasm, however, continued unabated, and he possessed that confidence in his own abilities which alone buoyed him up against the continual tempest by which he was assailed.

Hogg now determined on commencing a weekly periodical to be entitled "The Spy," which was to be expressly devoted to the elegancies of polite literature. How well the humbly educated shepherd was qualified for such a task, is shown by his own words:—"At this time," he says, "I had never been once in any polished society, had read next to none, was now in my thirty-eighth year, and knew no more of human manners than a child." "The Spy" turned out an unfortunate undertaking, the sale was low, and had just reached the remunerating point when some of the city spirits took fright at sundry rude unpruned expressions of the hills, and withdrawing their subscriptions, stopped the publication. All this while, however, Hogg had been secretly at work, and when many were imagining he would be silenced for ever, surprised his friends and charmed the country by publishing "The Queen's Wake." Those who the day before had shunned him, now sought his friendship, and the titled and the beautiful were not slow in admiring. The work consists mainly of a series of ballads, written in imitation of the old Scottish style, and connected and diversified by a fiction of considerable ingenuity. Mary queen of Scots is supposed soon after her arrival in Scotland to have been struck with some of the native melodies which were played before her, and with the accounts she received of the multitude of romantic legends that were adapted to such airs in every part of the country. To gratify her curiosity, she accordingly appointed a grand competition of minstrelsy to take place at the approaching festival of Christmas, and invited all the bards and harpers of the north and south to repair to Holyrood, and contend before her for the prizes with which her royal munificence was to reward their skill and ingenuity. A great convocation accordingly took place at the time appointed, and the various ballads which form the bulk of the work are supposed to have been recited during the three nights that the queen "waked" in the midst of her court, and held open those noble lists to the champions of song. The work accordingly is divided into three books, with an introduction containing an account of the origin and preparation for the wake, and a conclusion narrating the distribution of prizes; the books themselves being separated by descriptions of the court and of the weather, and the songs by pretty long accounts of the history and deportment of the several minstrels who successively appear on the scene. This, it is obvious, is a plan that admits

and even invites to every possible degree of variety, at the same time that it has the disadvantage of excluding all sustained or continued interest, and of forcing the author in a great measure to mimic a diversity of styles, and consequently to forego that which is most natural and best adapted to his genius, and allowance for both these peculiarities must of course be made in judging of this performance, the character of which, however, it is not so easy to mistake.

The little episodic tale of "Bonny Kilmeny" possesses great merit, and we cannot better illustrate the style of this highly gifted poet than by a reference to its romantic incidents. The story is simply that of a beautiful maiden, who was transported in her sleep to a world of purer spirits, and permitted after a time to return for a short period to her mortal parents. It thus describes her disappearance and return:—

"Bonny Kilmeny gaed up the glen;  
But it was not to meet Duneira's men,  
Nor the rosy monk of the isle to see,  
For Kilmeny was pure as pure could be,  
It was only to hear the yorlin sing,  
And pull the cress-flower round the spring;  
The scarlet hypp, and the hindberrye,  
And the nut that hangs frae the hazel tree;  
For Kilmeny was pure as pure could be,  
But lang may her mother look o'er the wa',  
And lang may she seek i' the green-wood shaw;  
Lang the laird of Duneira blame,  
And lang, lang greet or Kilmeny came hame!

"When many a day had come and fled,  
When grief grew calm, and hope was dead,  
When mass for Kilmeny's soul had been sung,  
When the bedes-man had prayed, and the dead-bell rung,  
Late, late in a gloamin, when all was still,  
When the fringe was red on the westlin hill,  
The wood was sere, the moon i' the wane,  
The reek of the cot hung over the plain,  
Like a little wee cloud in the world its lane;  
When the ingle lowed with an eiry leme,  
Late, late in the gloamin Kilmeny came hame!"

Her mother then interrogates her about her mysterious absence—and marvels, not without awe, at the lily brightness of her garments, and the glow and the fragrance of the flowers that glanced upon her brow. The description of her deportment is conceived, we think, in a very high strain of poetry and beauty:—

"Kilmeny looked up with a lovely grace,  
But nae smile was seen on Kilmeny's face;  
As still was her look, and as still was her ee,  
As the stillness that lay on the emerald lea,  
Or the mist that sleeps on a waveless sea,  
For Kilmeny had been she knew not where,  
And Kilmeny had seen what she could not declare;  
But it seemed as the harp of the sky had rung,  
And the airs of heaven played round her tongue,  
When she spake of the lovely forms she had seen,  
And a land where sin had never been;  
A land of love, and a land of light,  
Withouten sun, or moon, or night;  
Where the river swa'd a living stream,  
And the light a pure celestial beam;  
The land of vision it would seem,  
A still, and everlasting dream."

The poet then proceeds to recount in his own words the substance of her astonishing narration from the moment of her losing sight of her earthly habitation. After describing a lonely recess in a steep and woody vale to which she had wandered from her mother's cottage one still summer evening, he proceeds:—

"In that green wene Kilmeny lay,  
Her bosom happed wi' flowerits gay;  
But the air was soft and the silence deep,  
And bonny Kilmeny fell sound asleep.  
She kend nae mair, nor opened her ee,  
Till waked by the hymns of a far countrie."



She 'wakened on couch of the silk sae slim,  
 All striped wi' the bars of the rainbow's rim;  
 And lovely beings round were rife,  
 Who erst had travelled mortal life;  
 And aye they smiled, and 'gan to speer,  
 'What spirit has brought this mortal here?'

One of the immortals answers, that he had transported her from earth to show how near to celestial purity a woman might attain, if snatched betimes from the cares and pollutions of that lower region. The hospitable spirits then flock around her:—

"They clasped her waist and her hands sae fair,  
 They kissed her cheek, and they keemed her hair,  
 They lifted Kilmeny, they led her away,  
 And she walked in the light of a sunless day:  
 Then deep in the stream her body they laid,  
 That her youth and her beauty might never fade;  
 And they smiled on heaven, when they saw her lie  
 In the stream of life that wandered bye.  
 And she heard a song, she heard it sung,  
 She knew not where; but sae sweetly it rung,  
 It fell on her ear like a dream of the morn:  
 'O! best be the day Kilmeny was born!  
 Now shall the land of the spirits see,  
 Now shall it ken what a woman may be,'" &c.

They then bear her softly through the soft and fragrant air, over all the Elysian landscape beneath—

"She saw the sun on a summer sky,  
 And clouds of amber sailing by;  
 A lovely land beneath her lay,  
 And that land had glens and mountains gray;  
 And that land had valleys and hoary piles,  
 And marbled seas, and a thousand isles:  
 Its fields were speckled, its forests green,  
 And its lakes were all of the dazzling sheen,  
 Like magic mirrors, where slumb'ring lay  
 The sun and the sky and the cloudlet gray.  
 "Kilmeny sigh'd and seem'd to grieve,  
 For she found her heart to that land did cleave;  
 She saw the corn wave on the vale,  
 She saw the deer run down the dale;  
 She saw the plaid and the broad claymore,  
 And the brows that the badge of freedom bore;  
 And she thought she had seen the land before."

A few more lines bring us back to the state of things with which the tale opens:—

"With distant music soft and deep,  
 They lulled Kilmeny sound asleep;  
 And when she waken'd, she lay her lane,  
 All happ'd with flow'rs in the green-wood wene.  
 When seven lang years had come and fled;  
 When grief was calm, and hope was dead;  
 When scarce was remember'd Kilmeny's name,  
 Late, late in a gloamin Kilmeny came hame!"

The "Poetic Mirror" consisted of a series of imitations of the principal living bards, and was a very successful work; but Hogg's "Dramatic Tales," which followed, never reached any high degree of popularity. The disappointment consequent on the limited notice which these volumes attracted, induced the shepherd for a time to abandon poetry and try his hand at prose. With this view he set to work, and the first fruits of his industry were "The Brownie of Bodsbeck."

In 1819 appeared the "Jacobite Relics," and in the following year the poet married Miss Phillips of Annandale. He then embarked in agricultural speculations, by which he lost about 2000*l.* This compelled him once more to try his fortune as an author, and in a few months was written and published, "The Three Perils of Man," a border romance, by which he realized about 150*l.*, and the next year followed "The Three Perils of Women," a similar work which produced a like sum. In 1824 Mr. Hogg published anonymously a book of horrors, called "Confessions of a Sinner," which sold tolerably well, but never produced anything to the author; and in the next year appeared "Queen

Hynde," a clever work, but which was not successful. The author of an admirable critique on the works of Hogg which appeared in the "Athenæum," thus describes the residence of the Ettrick Shepherd:—  
 "His house, called Mount Benger, is situated on the side of one of the hills of Yarrow, and is supposed to occupy the site of an ancient monastery. Around him are the glens and the mountains over which he has wandered since childhood, and which he has celebrated in his song; and from his windows he almost describes the placid mirror of St. Mary's Loch, so accurately described in the introduction to the second canto of 'Marmion,' and so often referred to in his own metrical traditions. He is one of the keenest and most skilful sportsmen in Scotland, especially as a brother of the angle, and his time is divided between his fictions and his fishing-hooks. In past time as in poetry, he is all enthusiasm; I have seen him stroll with his rod up the stream of the Yarrow as far as its junction with the Loch, walk in up to the middle so as to reach a scientific distance from the shore, and thus wade round till he again joined the stream on the left bank, and returned down the river to Mount Benger. The peasantry all know him, and his importance as a bard seems totally merged in his popularity as a shepherd. His appearance is clownish, but his expression is intellectual; and the very roughness of his exterior indicates the gentleness of his heart. His social habits are all unreserved good humour, and he has a ceaseless flow of sparkling good spirits. Being introduced to the convivialities of more polished society at a late period of his life, he entered upon the new scene with all the ardour of novelty and the ambition of out-doing his rivals even here. Hence those whom envy or malice had armed against him, did not fail to represent his hospitality as profusion, his liveliness as revelry, his wit as ribaldry, and his laugh of heartfelt good humour as the boisterous indication of exuberant excess." The injustice of these charges are fully admitted by all those who knew this amiable man, but it must be admitted that those who would take his "acts and deeds" on trust from the pages of the "Noctes" in "Blackwood's Magazine" could hardly come to any other estimate than the unfavourable one first quoted. But we must hasten to the close of his life, which still continued to present an example of the most laborious literary industry. In 1831 Hogg visited the British metropolis, and during his short sojourn here he was the "lion" of the day. He was dined and be-praised, and flattered by the great; every one exhibiting the greatest anxiety to show his kindness and extend his patronage. An immense number of literary friends and admirers honoured him with a public dinner at Freemasons' Hall, which was graced by the presence of some of the most distinguished characters of the day.  
 In 1834 Hogg produced a volume of "Lay Sermons," and about the same period appeared the "Domestic Manners of Sir Walter Scott." In the following year Sir Robert Peel transmitted 100*l.* as an earnest of an annual pension to that amount, but it came too late to be of much real service, as his constitution had been long sinking under the united effects of pecuniary difficulties and intense literary labour. There was scarcely a periodical of any note that did not benefit by his labours, and we have not even attempted a genera. enumeration of his works. The Ettrick Shepherd died in the

midst of scenes he had so long loved to illustrate, on the 21st of November 1835, and was buried in the church-yard adjoining to the cottage where he first drew his breath.

**HOHENLOHE-INGELFINGEN, FREDERIC LOUIS, PRINCE OF**, was born A. D. 1746, and served as a general in the Prussian service, in the campaign of 1806. In the war against the French, in 1792, he commanded a division, and in 1793 fought with distinction in the battles of Oppenheim, Pirmasens, and Hornbach, and had a share in the forcing of the lines at Weissenburg. In 1794 he gained a victory at Kaiserslautern, and received the command of the line of neutrality on the Ems, and in 1804 he was made governor of the principality of Franconia, and commandant of Breslau. When in 1805 the Prussian army approached Franconia, the prince commanded a corps between the Saale and the Thuringian forest, and in the war of 1806 led the army, whose advanced guard, under Prince Louis Ferdinand, suffered a defeat at Saalfeld. After the battle of Jena he directed the retreat, and led the remnants of the great Prussian army, which had collected under him at Magdeburg, to the Oder. But the distance of the camp of General Blücher prevented him from joining the prince. Destitute of cavalry, and unable with his infantry, exhausted by fatigue, to engage with a superior enemy, he thought himself authorized to surrender with 17,000 men at Prenzlau, on the 28th of October, 1806. He died in February 1818.

**HOHENSTAUFEN**.—In the battle of Merseburg, which took place in 1030 between the emperor Henry IV. and his competitor, Rodolph of Suabia, Frederic of Staufen, lord of Hohenstaufen, in Suabia, displayed so much courage under the eyes of the emperor that he was rewarded with the duchy of Suabia, and received Agnes, daughter of Henry, in marriage. Thus was laid the foundation of the future greatness of a house whose elevation and fall are among the most important epochs in the history of the German empire. Frederic, who died in 1103, left two sons, Frederic and Conrad, the elder succeeded him as duke of Suabia, and the younger was invested in 1116 by his uncle, the emperor Henry V., with the new duchy of Franconia. After the death of the emperor Henry V., who was the last male of the Franconian line, his two nephews, Frederic II. duke of Suabia, and Conrad duke of Franconia, appear to have aspired to the German crown; but their connexion with the late emperor was made the ground of opposition by the directors of the election, the archbishop of Mentz and the legate of the pope; and the election of Lothaire of Saxony took place in 1125. This circumstance, with the demand made by the new emperor, of the restitution of all the possessions acquired by the lords of Hohenstaufen during the preceding reign, produced a fierce war between the emperor and the two brothers. Lothaire would have been overpowered in this contest had he not preserved himself by a union with Henry the Proud, duke of Bavaria, to whom he gave his daughter and the duchy of Saxony. Frederic II. was unable to withstand the overwhelming power of both, since his brother Conrad, after his return from the Holy Land, had undertaken a campaign to Italy, where he had caused himself to be proclaimed king. The peace of Muhlhausen, which was concluded in 1135 between Lothaire and Conrad, put an end to

this war. Conrad renounced his title of king of Italy, but received the first rank among the dukes, and both he and his brother regained all their lands.

After Lothaire's death in 1137, Conrad duke of Franconia, of the house of Hohenstaufen, was raised to the throne of Germany, being chosen in February 1138, and crowned in March of the same year. The archbishop Adelbert of Treves, and the legate of the pope, Cardinal Theodoin, accomplished this work; for the politic and skilful Conrad had succeeded, during Lothaire's reign, in gaining the favour of the church, and he appeared to all less dangerous than his rival, Henry the Proud, duke of Saxony and Bavaria, whose power was formidable. The inextinguishable hatred of the Guelphs against the house of Hohenstaufen (Ghibelines), the first germ of which lay in the alliance between Duke Henry and the emperor Lothaire was still more inflamed by the emperor Conrad III. placing Henry the Proud under the ban, depriving him of his feudal possessions, and otherwise injuring him, because he refused to obey his order to relinquish the duchy of Saxony and Tuscany, and some other Italian possessions, it being contrary to the German constitution for a prince to hold two duchies. The contest produced by this imperial sentence, which brought so many sufferings on Germany and Italy, lasted for more than 300 years. After the death of Conrad III. the confidence which was felt in the Hohenstaufen family caused the choice to fall on his nephew, Frederic III. of Suabia, son of Frederic II., called among the German kings Frederic I., (Barbarossa) the Red-Beard. Frederic I. had excited the jealousy of the pope by his increasing power in Italy, and this was the true cause of the failure of the exertions of his son and successor, Henry VI., to make the German crown hereditary in his family, so that he was scarcely able to have his son Frederic, two years of age, declared his successor in 1169. After the death of Henry VI., Philip, duke of Suabia, was named regent of the empire during the minority of Frederic, his nephew, who was acknowledged king; and the pope was powerful enough to set up in opposition to him, first Berthold, duke of Zähringen, and then Otho, second son of Duke Henry the Lion, who by the gift of his uncle, King Richard of England, had become lord of the French county of Poitou.

The murder of Philip, by Otho, count of Wittelsbach, in June 1208, secured to Otho IV., for some years, the entire government; but when he wished to make good his imperial rights in Italy he excited the anger of Pope Innocent III. to such a degree that he took under his protection Frederic, the young king of Sicily (against whom Otho was carrying on war), laid the emperor under an interdict, and raised up a powerful party in Germany against him. King Frederic now went to Germany, caused himself to be crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and after the defeat of Otho IV. at Bovines in 1214, became sole ruler, under the title of Emperor Frederic II. During his life-time Frederic had his second son Conrad chosen king of the Romans after his eldest son Henry, who died in prison in 1242, had rendered himself ineligible to this dignity by rebelling against his father.

Conrad IV., after the death of his father, was acknowledged as king by most of the states of the empire; but Innocent IV. laid him under an interdict, declared him stripped of all his lands, and persecuted him with relentless hatred; but Conrad, who



had many personal friends in Germany, kept in check William of Holland, the opposite candidate, defeated the army of the pope, and was about to advance into Lombardy, when he died, in his camp, at Lavello in 1254, as is thought, from poison, administered to him by his illegitimate brother, Manfred. After the death of Conrad IV. this Manfred possessed himself of the crown of Sicily; but he lost his life and his crown in a battle, and Charles of Anjou was crowned by the pope in 1266 king of Naples and Sicily. The severe and cruel government of Charles raised up a powerful party against him; their love for the noble house of Hohenstaufen was awakened, and Conradin, the only son of Conrad IV., was called from Bavaria, where he had hitherto lived, in order to ascend his rightful throne. In order to raise money to defray the expenses of a campaign in Italy, Conradin pledged several castles and other possessions for 2200 marks of silver, went to Italy at the head of his army, accompanied by his friend, the young prince Frederic of Baden, defeated the usurper Charles in August 1268, but had the misfortune, while pursuing the enemy too warmly, to be taken prisoner with Frederic and several German princes. Charles had him, together with his attendants, publicly executed at Naples on the 20th of October, 1268. Thus perished the last Hohenstaufen. The possessions of the family fell to Bavaria, Baden, and Württemberg; the ducal dignity in Suabia and Franconia ceased, and the title of duke of Franconia alone went to the bishop of Würtzburg.

The fame of the family of Hohenstaufen is rendered imperishable by the political greatness to which the Frederics, in particular, attained by means of their wisdom, virtue, and power, by their struggles to free Germany from the dominion of the pope, by the order which they introduced into all the states of the empire, by the encouragement which they gave to commerce and trade, and likewise by their unwearied care to promote the sciences and arts. They merit lasting honour for their administration of justice, and the rectitude with which they allowed the rights of their subjects, even against the throne itself. Astronomy, astrology, physical science, philosophy, geography, and particularly poetry, were the favourite pursuits of the Frederics, even in the midst of public business and the tumult of arms; and very favourable effects followed from the close alliance between the German poets and the minstrels of Naples and Sicily after those states had come into the possession of the family of Hohenstaufen.

HOLBACH, PAUL THYRY, BARON OF, a learned member of the academies of Petersburg, Manheim, and Berlin, who was born at Heidelberg in 1723. He was educated in Paris, where he passed the greater part of his life, and died in 1789. He was the centre of a circle of men of wit, but of the *nouvelle philosophie*, using his great fortune, says Rousseau, generously, and appearing to advantage in the learned society which he gathered round his table. He was the author of a great number of works, most of which were anonymous or pseudonymous, and he contributed many papers on natural history, politics, and philosophy to the "Encyclopédie;" he also translated a German work of Waller on Mineralogy, "Akenside's Pleasures of Imagination," some essays of Tindal, Hume, &c. His principal work, which appeared under the name of M. Mirabaud, and which excited much attention in the

learned world, is the "Système de la Nature." Voltaire characterizes it as execrable in morality, and absurd in physics, and Frederic the Great undertook to refute it. According to Holbach, matter is the only form of existence, and every thing is the effect of a blind necessity; instead of God, whom he asserts to have been invented by theologians, he substitutes Nature, which he considers an assemblage of all beings and their motions.

HOLBEIN, HANS.—This talented artist was the son of a painter at Basle in Switzerland, and being instructed by his father in the rudiments of the art, soon rose to great eminence in his profession. The year of his birth has been variously fixed, by Patin in 1495, but by others in 1498, which latter is the era more generally received. His talents procured him the acquaintance and even the friendship of Erasmus in spite of his rough and dissolute habits which that philosopher exerted himself much to correct. His advice, and the wish to escape from the consequences of an unfortunate marriage, induced the young artist to set out for England, whither he had been invited most pressingly by one of the nobility. His finances were so low at the time that he found the greatest difficulty in reaching this country, where, when he arrived, he had forgotten the name of his promised patron. Fortunately, however, the features of the peer were yet fresh in his recollection, and a striking resemblance of him, which he produced, enabled him to discover his name. Letters from his friend Erasmus, whose "Panegyric on Folly" he had illustrated by a series of drawings, procured him subsequently the patronage of the chancellor, Sir Thomas More, who took him into his own house, employed him to delineate the portraits of most of his own personal friends about the court, and introduced him to the notice of Henry VIII., who, with all his faults, was a liberal encourager of the fine arts. At the command of this monarch, Holbein drew the portrait of the dowager duchess of Milan, whom Henry entertained thoughts of espousing; also that of Anne of Cleves, the original of which was afterwards considered by his fastidious patron, so far inferior in point of beauty to her picture that his disgust was expressed in terms less courtly than sincere. Holbein also painted most of the principal English nobility, who showed themselves eager to encourage an artist ranking so high in the favour of Henry. These portraits are still considered master-pieces of art. Some of his earlier productions, especially his Dance of Death, are also very celebrated, and have perhaps contributed as much to his reputation as his later productions. The capricious prince whom he served, however fickle towards others, was constant in the protection which he afforded to him, and was so sensible of his value that a memorable saying of his is recorded on the occasion of some complaint made against this artist by a court butterfly: "I can, if I please, make seven lords of seven ploughmen, but I cannot make one Holbein even of seven lords."

Allan Cunningham, in his "Lives of the British Painters," thus speaks of Holbein's progress in this country:—"He wrought at the court of Henry with a diligence, and, what was better, with a skill new to the country. His works are chiefly portraits, and are all distinguished by truth and by nature. His Sir Thomas More has an air of boldness and vigour, and a look at once serene and acute, which attest the sincerity of the resemblance. His Anne Boleyn is

graceful and volatile, his King Henry bluff and joyous, with jealous eyes and an imperious brow. He was not always so faithful to nature, and knew how to practise the flattery of his profession. He lavished so much beauty on Anne of Cleves that the king, who had fallen in love with the picture, when the original came to his arms, regarded her with aversion and disgust, exclaimed against the gross flattery of Hans, and declared she was not a woman but a Flanders mare. This anecdote, however, confirms the painter's claim to fidelity in his other likenesses, he was no habitual flatterer, or Henry would not have given implicit faith to him. On another occasion Holbein went to Flanders to draw the picture of the duchess dowager of Milan, the intended successor to Jane Seymour. She was a princess of equivocal virtue, but of ready wit. 'Alas!' said she, 'what answer shall I give to the king of England? I am unfortunate enough to have but one head; had I two, one of them should be at his highness's service.'

"It is traditionally asserted that the king employed Holbein to paint the portraits of the fairest young ladies in his kingdom, that in case of the frailty of a queen he might go to his gallery and select her successor. This story, which I can desire no one to credit, seeing that his majesty had ready access to the originals, is countenanced by an anecdote related by Vermander. One day, whilst the artist was painting in private the portrait of a favourite lady for the king, a great lord unexpectedly found his way into the chamber. The painter, a brawny powerful man, and somewhat touchy of temper, threw the intruder down stairs, bolted the door, ran to the king by a private passage, fell on his knees, asked for pardon, and obtained it. In came the courtier and made his complaint. 'By God's splendour,' exclaimed the king (this was his customary oath), 'you have not to do with Hans but with me. Of seven peasants I can make seven lords, but I cannot make one Hans Holbein.'

"The works of Holbein were once very numerous in England, but some were destroyed during the great civil wars, others were sold abroad by the Puritan parliament, and many perished when the great palace of Whitehall was burned. The original drawings, eighty-nine in number, which he made of the chief persons of Henry's court, are the greatest curiosity in his present majesty's collection. Charles I. exchanged them with the earl of Pembroke for the splendid St. George of Raphael; Pembroke gave them to the earl of Arundel; they suffered something in the vicissitudes of the civil war, and at last found their way back, it is not remembered how, into the Royal Gallery. 'A great part of these drawings,' observes Walpole, 'are exceedingly fine, and in one respect preferable to the finished pictures as they are drawn in a bold and free manner. And though they have little more than the outline, being drawn with chalk upon paper stained of a flesh colour, and scarce shaded at all, there is a strength and vivacity in them equal to the most perfect portraits.'

"Holbein died of the plague in 1554. His works have sometimes an air of stiffness, but they have always the look of truth and life. He painted with great rapidity and ease, wrought with the left hand, and dashed off a portrait at a few sittings. He was gay and joyous, lived freely, and spent his pension of 200 florins and the money he received for his works with a careless liberality. He had a strong frame, a swarthy sensual face, a neck like a bull,

and an eye unlikely to endure contradiction. It would be unjust to his fame to withhold the information that his talents were not confined to pictures. Like other eminent artists his mind took a range beyond the brush and the easel. He was an able architect—he modelled and he carved. He was skilful too in designing ornaments, and in making drawings for printed books, some of which he is said to have cut himself. Sir Hans Sloane had a book of jewels of his designing, which is now in the British Museum. Inigo Jones had another book of his designs for weapons, hilts, ornaments, scabbards, sword-belts, buttons, hooks, hatbands, girdles, shoe-clasps, knives, forks, salt-cellars, and vases, all for King Henry." Holbein died at Whitehall in 1554.

HOLBERG, LOUIS, BARON OF.—This individual, who is justly considered as the father of modern Danish literature, was born in 1684 at Bergen in Norway, and early lost his father, who had raised himself by a bold achievement from the rank of a common soldier to the office of colonel. Little care was taken in forming his mind and character, but in 1732 he commenced studying theology and the foreign languages at Copenhagen, and afterwards became an instructor. The perusal of the accounts of travellers excited in him a great desire of visiting other countries, and, notwithstanding his straitened circumstances, he went first to Amsterdam, then to England, Germany, France, and Italy. He then resided at Copenhagen two years as a teacher of languages. In 1718 he received the chair of metaphysics, and in 1720 he became assessor of the consistory and professor of eloquence. Holberg had hitherto devoted himself to the study of jurisprudence, history, and the languages; and until his thirtieth year he had written no poetry. At this time he attempted a satire, in which he took Juvenal as his model. This attempt was successful, and he now wrote his great comic-heroic poem, in iambics, the "Peter Paars." Holberg laid the foundation of his fame by this national satire. An accident having induced him to write for the stage, he here found a proper field for his talents, and he wrote with much ease, and in quick succession, twenty-four comedies, all of which were received with great favour, and which constitute him the founder of the comic theatre at Denmark. The strong lively wit, the native humour, and the original characters in his comedies, secure to him an elevated place among the small number of genuine comic writers among modern authors. Their genuine comic character has induced Baggesen, one of the poets of Denmark, to undertake to adapt the language to the present state of the Danish tongue. His satirical and humorous romance, "Nicholas Klimm's Subterraneous Travels," in the Latin language, translated into seven languages shortly after it appeared, and into Danish by Baggesen, has also contributed to his fame. His "Epistles," "Fables," and "Epigrams," are highly valued, not less so are his historical works which he wrote under Christian VI., who was not very favourable to poetry; still Holberg acquired fame and riches, and was elevated by the king to the rank of baron in 1747. He died in 1754, and left the greatest part of his property to the seminary for young noblemen at Soroe.

HOLCROFT, THOMAS.—This eminent dramatist has chronicled his own life, and as it is written with much candour, we may best take a brief outline of it in his own words.



He says, "I was born in London, in Orange Court, Leicester Fields, on the 10th day of December, 1745, old style; and was baptized and registered in St. Martin's church, where my name is erroneously written Howleroff. In a will of one of my uncles, which may be seen in Doctor's Commons, the name is spelt Houldecroft. From this it appears that our family did not pay much attention to subjects of orthography, or think the manner in which their name was spelt a matter of importance. Most persons, I believe, retain through life a few strong impressions of very early childhood. I have a recollection of being played with by my parents, when very young, and of the extreme pleasure it gave me. On another occasion, as I and one or two of my brothers or sisters were playing in the court, and kneeling and peeping down a cellar window, where there were some fowls, a shutter that belonged to the window, and was fastened up, by some means or other got loose, and entirely cut off one side of my sister Anne's thumb;—a disaster never afterwards to be forgotten. My father one day whipped me very severely for crying to go to a school in the neighbourhood, where children were sent rather to keep them out of the way than to learn any thing. He afterwards ordered an apprentice he had to take me to school. This apprentice was an exceedingly hard-featured youth, with thick lips, wide mouth, broad nose, and his face very much marked with the small-pox, but very kind and good tempered. I perfectly remember his carrying me in my petticoats, consoling me as we went, and giving me something nice to eat. Perhaps I bear his features in mind the more accurately, because I occasionally saw him afterwards, till I was seven or eight years old, when he used to visit my father, who was then under misfortunes. He seldom came without something kind to say or good to give; but his last and capital gift, too precious to be ever forgotten, consisted of two small books. One was the "History of Parismus and Parismenes," and the other of the "Seven Champions of Christendom." These were to me an inestimable treasure, that often brought the rugged good-natured Dick to my remembrance with no slight sense of obligation.

"Till I was about six years old my father kept a shoe-maker's shop in Orange Court; and I have a faint recollection that my mother dealt in greens and oysters. After I became a man, my father more than once pointed out the house to me: the back of it looks into the King's Mews, and it is now No. 13. My father was fond of speculation, and very adventurous. I believe he had been set up in trade by my uncle John, who lived several years, first as a helper, and afterwards as a groom, in the king's stables; where, being an excellent economist, he saved money. For a time, my father, through John's influence, was admitted a helper in the stables; but he did not continue there long, not having his brother's perseverance. How or when he procured the little knowledge of shoe-making which he had I do not recollect, though I have heard him mention the fact. He was not bred to the trade. He and a numerous family of his brothers and sisters all spent their infancy in the "field country;" or, as I have heard him describe it, the most desolate part of Lancashire, called Martin's Muir, where my grandfather was a cooper; a man, according to my father's

account, possessed of good qualities, but passionate, and a dear lover of Sir John Barleycorn. My grandmother was always mentioned by my father with very great respect.

"At the period of which I speak, the west end of London swarmed with chairmen; who, that they might tread more safely, had their shoes made differently from those of other people; to which particular branch of the trade my father applied himself with some success. But he was not satisfied with the profits he acquired by shoe-making: he was very fond of horses, and having some knowledge of them, he became a dealer in them. Few persons but the great at this time kept any sort of carriage. It was common for those who wished to ride out to hire a horse for the day, and my father kept several horses for this purpose. If his word was to be taken, they were such as were not very easily to be matched. The praise he bestowed on them for their performances, and his admiration of their make and beauty, were strong and continued. Young as I was, he earnestly wished to see me able to ride. He had a beautiful pony (at least so he called, and so I thought it), but it was not more remarkable for its beauty than its animation. To hold it required all my father's strength and skill; yet he was determined I should mount this pony, and accompany him whenever he took a ride. For this purpose my petticoats were discarded; and as he was fonder of me than even of his horses, nay, or of his pony, he had straps made, and I was buckled to the saddle, with a leading rein fastened to the muzzle of the pony, which he carefully held. These rides, with the oddity of our equipage and appearance, sometimes exposed us to the ridicule of bantering acquaintance; but I remember no harm that happened.

"About the same time my father indulged another whim; whether he was led to it by any particular accident, I cannot tell. I must have been about five years old when he put me under the tuition of a player on the violin, who was a public performer of some repute. Either parental fondness led my father to believe, or he was flattered into the supposition, that I had an uncommon aptitude for the art I had been put to learn. I shall never forget the high praises I received, the affirmation that I was a prodigy, and the assurances my teachers gave that I should soon be heard in public. These dreams were never realized.

"My father was under great obligations to my uncle John, and was afraid, especially just at that time, of disobliging him. My uncle's pride took the alarm; and after marking his disapprobation, he asked with contempt, 'Do you mean to make a fiddler of the boy?' My practice on the violin therefore ceased; and it is, perhaps, worth remarking, that, though I could play so well before I was six years old, I had wholly forgotten the art at the age of seven; for, after my master left me, I never touched the instrument. In the days of my youthful distress, I have sometimes thought, with bitter regret, of the absurd pride of my uncle."

At the tender age of six, the scene suddenly changed, and young Holcroft was carried into the country, while much distress and poverty immediately ensued. It luckily happened, however, that his father's quondam apprentice, "the kind hearted Dick," brought the boy two delightful little histo-

ries, which first inspired him with a taste for books, and rendered the dreary cottage in Berkshire less disagreeable.

Notwithstanding he was afterwards employed by his parents "in tramping the villages, to hawk their pedlary," yet this taste never once forsook him; and it is not a little remarkable that the future comedian and dramatic writer should have first exhibited a passion for the stage on listening to the dialogue and beholding the feats of an itinerant Merry-Andrew at a Wisbeach fair.

Such appears to have been his misery that he envied the sleek looks and unpatched clothes of the grooms at Nottingham; and when Woodcock employed him at his stables near Newmarket, he was in perfect ecstasy at the idea of being clad in a suit of livery.

But his passion for books seemed also to increase, and he devoured every species of publication that presented itself to his voracious appetite. "The Whole Duty of Man," Horneck's "Crucified Jesus," "The Life of Francis Spira," and John Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," were all dispatched in succession, and with astonishing rapidity. Perceiving this to be his ruling passion, a person, who kept a little day school at Newmarket, taught him gratis, and such indeed had been his proficiency and success in private that he astonished all the boys by actually spelling a word of six syllables at first sight.

Two or three years after this young Holcroft came to London, and after being a rough rider on the turf, at the age of sixteen worked for some time with his father, who then kept a cobbler's stall in South Audley Street. He at length rose to the dignity of a shoe-maker; but a stooping posture proved hurtful, "and his time was again idled away in reading." Yet it was this passion that finally raised him to a more respectable rank in society. First he taught a few boys at Liverpool; next he wrote essays in the "Whitehall Evening Post" at five shillings a column; then he became amanuensis to the late amiable Mr. Granville Sharp, and soon after repaired to Ireland as an actor.

At length, after a variety of adventures, Mr. Holcroft, in 1780, published his first novel, entitled "Alwyn, or the Gentleman Comedian," and became henceforth a professional author. His first comedy, called "Duplicity," was acted with great applause in 1781 at Covent Garden. At a later period he visited the continent; and after a variety of vicissitudes in his fortune, during all of which he preserved the character of an honest man, he died in 1809, at a good old age, greatly beloved by his family and friends.

It ought not to be omitted, that on hearing his name was included in the same bill of indictment with Messrs. Tooke and Hardy, he voluntarily surrendered himself in open court; and it is almost unnecessary to add, that no proof of guilt was ever adduced against him.

**HOLDER, WILLIAM.**—This ingenious divine is best known for his mode of instructing the deaf and dumb. He was born at Nottingham, and educated at Cambridge. After having been rapidly promoted in the church, he published "The Elements of Speech," pointing out the best mode of instructing those born without hearing. He died in 1696.

**HOLDSWORTH, RICHARD,** a divine of the church of England, who was born in 1590. He was

educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, and for several years held the office of divinity professor of Gresham College. He was afterwards expelled from his benefice and other offices, which were filled by Puritan divines. He published "Prælectiones Theologicae," and the "Valley of Vision." His death occurred about 1650.

**HOLDSWORTH, EDWARD,** a learned classical scholar. There is little certain known of his early history, but he appears to have been educated at Oxford. Mr. Holdsworth published a Commentary on part of the Georgics of Virgil, entitled "Pharsalia and Philippi." "Muscipula," which was published some time after, is remarkable for the purity of its latinity. He died in 1747.

**HOLE, RICHARD,** a miscellaneous writer, born in Devonshire, and educated at Oxford. He is said to have translated "Fingal" into heroic verse, but his principal researches relate to Homer. Mr. Hole died in 1803.

**HOLINSHEAD, or HOLINGSHEAD, RAPHAEL,** an English chronicler, who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. He has been represented as a clergyman, and Bishop Tanner farther states that he was educated at Cambridge, and took the degree of M. A. there in 1544; but Dr. Farmer, in his "Essay on the Learning of Shakspeare," has corrected this mistake, having ascertained that the graduate was one Ottewall Holingshead, who was subsequently nominated by the founder one of the first fellows of Trinity College. From the will of the historian, preserved by Hearne, it appears that at the close of his life he was a steward or servant to Thomas Burdet, Esq., of Bromcote, in Warwickshire. His death took place about 1582. The "Chronicles of Holingshead," for which he is principally celebrated, were first published in 1577; and a second edition, in 1587. Several individuals were concerned in the compilation of this work. In 1807 a new edition of it appeared, in six volumes, in which the omissions, chiefly from the preceding impression of the third volume, were restored. They principally relate to the history of Lord Cobham and the earl of Leicester during the reign of Elizabeth, to whom the passages in question appeared offensive. Prefixed to the "Chronicles" is one of the most curious and interesting memorials existing of the manners and domestic history of the English in the sixteenth century.

**HOLLAND, PHILEMON,** a medical practitioner, born in 1549. He published English versions of Suetonius and several other classical authors, but his most important work was a translation of Camden's "Britannia." His son Henry Holland was a bookseller in London and published several works.

**HOLLAR, WENCESLAUS,** a very eminent engraver, whose works still retain a high price in his peculiar style of art. He was born at Prague in 1607, and was originally intended for the law but afterwards devoted himself to the art of engraving, for which he had shown some talent, as a means of future support. In this his new profession he soon rose to distinguished excellence, and the delicacy with which he had, even as early as his eighteenth year, executed copies of portraits from the best masters and miniature views of several of the cities of Germany, not only obtained him great reputation among his brother artists, but secured him the valuable patronage of Howard earl of Arundel, at that time



ambassador from England to the court of Vienna. This munificent encourager of the arts took Hollar into his service in 1636, and on his recall brought him in his suite to England, where he soon engaged in executing specimens of his art for the booksellers. A view of Greenwich, and an equestrian portrait of his noble patron were among the first of these his productions, and appeared in 1637. Two years afterwards his now generally acknowledged talents procured him the notice of royalty, and he was engaged to instruct the junior members of the royal family in the art of designing. This avocation did not however occupy so much of his time as to prevent his executing about the same period many beautiful copies of the Arundelian and other works of art.

On the breaking out of the civil wars, and the ruin of the royal cause, his talents, which had hitherto brought him fame at least, if not fortune, proved most inimical to his welfare. His having perpetuated so many likenesses of persons obnoxious to the party then in power was gravely alleged as a charge against him, and being at length taken in arms for the king, at Basing House, in 1645, he was thrown into prison. What might have been the event of his captivity can only be conjectured, had he not fortunately contrived to make his escape to Antwerp, where he again attached himself to his tried friend, the earl of Arundel, then dwelling there in exile. The Restoration brought him once more to England, but the same ill fortune which had so long pursued did not yet abandon him; and although his exertions and perseverance in the use of his graver were unceasing, the national calamity which took place in 1666, when London was consumed, together with an immense mass of property, involved him in the common ruin which overwhelmed so many. The king's countenance was not however withdrawn from him; and he proceeded the year following, at the instance of the court, to Tangier, in order to bring home a correct fac-simile of the fortifications there. In 1672 he went into the north of England, where he executed many views of the principal towns and buildings, and soon after some of Windsor castle, together with prints of the costume, and portraits of the knights of the Garter, &c.; but although he appears to have ever been kept in full employ, either a want of prudence on his own part, or the parsimony of those who benefited by his labours, or, as is far from improbable, both these causes combined, prevented his ever extricating himself from the load of debt in which he had suffered himself to become involved, and he died in March 1677 in great distress. His "*Ornatus Muliebris Anglicanus*," is a work of considerable merit.

HOLLES, DENZIL, LORD, an eminent political character of the seventeenth century, who was the second son of Holles the first earl of Clare, and was born in 1597. He was liberally educated, and, when his father had a place at court, was playfellow and companion to Prince Charles. The earl of Clare's subsequent discontent was communicated to his sons, and in the last parliament of James I. Denzil sided with the opposition. In the parliament of 1627 he took a leading part in favour of liberty with his characteristic ardour and courage. When the three resolutions of the commons against popery, Arminianism, and tonnage, and poundage by the king's prerogative, were drawn up, he was one of the two members who forcibly held the speaker in the chair until they were passed. For this conduct, refusing

to give bail or sureties for his good behaviour, he was condemned to fine and imprisonment, the latter of which he endured in the Tower for upwards of twelve months.

In 1640 he entered the long parliament, a determined foe to the court, and was placed at the head of the Presbyterian party. The earl of Strafford having married his sister, he was prevented from taking part in the prosecution of that minister, but he carried up the impeachment against Archbishop Laud. He was also one of the members, the imprudent attempt to seize whom, in the parliament house, formed the immediate cause of taking up arms. In the ensuing war the parliament conferred on him the command of a regiment, and appointed him lieutenant of Bristol; but, becoming aware of the designs of the leaders of the Independents, he endeavoured to frustrate them by promoting a treaty with the king. In 1644 he was one of the commissioners appointed to carry propositions of peace to Charles at Oxford; and in 1647 he made a motion for disbanding the army, but that party was now too strong, and the attack was returned upon himself by an impeachment for high treason. He consulted his safety by retiring to France, whence he was allowed to return in 1648, when he resumed his seat in parliament, and was one of the commissioners appointed to treat with the king in the Isle of Wight. He was soon after again obliged, by the violence of the times, to retreat to France, where he remained until the Restoration, which he zealously promoted. He was one of the members of the House of Commons who waited upon the king at the Hague: and Charles II., before his coronation, advanced him to the peerage, by the title of Lord Holles of Isfield in Sussex. In 1663 he was sent ambassador to France, and in 1667 was one of the English plenipotentiaries at Breda. Notwithstanding these employments, he remained a zealous friend to liberty; and when the politics of the reign tended to make the king absolute, Lord Holles was a conspicuous leader of opposition. He is mentioned by Barillon, the French ambassador, as one of the noblemen who entered into negotiations with France to thwart the suspected measures of Charles against liberty at home; but it is at the same time intimated, that he and Lord William Russell alone refused the money offered by Louis XIV. He died, with a high character for honour, integrity, and patriotism, in 1680, in the eighty-second year of his age.

HOLLEY, HORACE, an American writer of some eminence, who was born in 1731, and in his early childhood gave indications of high and generous qualities. While a boy of twelve or thirteen years of age, he was employed in his father's shop or on the farm; but, showing a decided taste for study, he was at the age of sixteen sent to school, and entered Yale College in 1799. Having finished his collegiate course with credit, he began the study of the law, which he soon after abandoned for that of divinity. In 1805 he was ordained to the pastoral charge of Greenfield Hill, Fairfield, where he continued three years, when this connexion was amicably dissolved. In 1809 he was installed over the society in Hollis Street, Boston, where he continued ten years the pride of his people, from whom he received every demonstration of affection and esteem. Mr. Holley had been educated at Yale College under Dr. Dwight, but of course in the Calvinistic faith. Further study

and reflection had led to a change in his religious views, and he became Unitarian in his sentiments. His sermons were generally extemporaneous, or, if written, were seldom finished; they were practical, addressed equally to the heart and understanding, and distinguished for eloquence and power. It was his custom to remain in his study late on Saturday evening, arranging the plan of his discourse, and making notes. After a few hours' sleep he returned to his study, without allowing himself to be interrupted by a breakfast, and often passed the day without dining; so that he kept his mind full of his subject, and constantly on the watch. In 1818 he accepted an invitation to become president of Transylvania university in Kentucky. Here he remained until 1827, when he was induced to resign the presidency of the institution, of which he had elevated the character and increased the number of the students. A plan was then formed of erecting a seminary in Louisiana, to be placed under his direction; but he was taken sick while at New Orleans, in the summer of 1827, and, having embarked for New York, died on the passage in July of the same year.

HOLLIS, THOMAS, an English gentleman, memorable for his attachment to civil and religious liberty, and his services to literature and the arts, was born in London in 1720. He was descended from a Yorkshire family of dissenters, and was sent, after a common school education, to Amsterdam, in his thirteenth or fourteenth year, to learn the Dutch language and merchants' accounts. Not long after his return in 1735 his father died; and being now the heir to a handsome fortune it was resolved to complete his education upon a liberal plan. In 1740 he took chambers in Lincoln's Inn, but never engaged in the law as a profession. His attention seems to have been chiefly occupied with the study of the English constitution and the cultivation of a zealous attachment for civil and religious liberty, and of the friendship of its most eminent supporters, especially among the dissenters. In 1748 he travelled over a part of the continent, and in 1750 engaged in another tour through the remainder. Finding, on his return, that he could not enter parliament without compliances which he did not approve, he made collections of books and medals, especially such as preserved the memory of eminent asserters of liberty, among whom he highly regarded Milton and Algernon Sidney. He was a fellow of the Royal Antiquarian, and other learned societies, and made many valuable presents to the British Museum. He presented a handsome collection of English books to the library at Berne, and also to Harvard College in New England, to which, in imitation of some deceased members of his family, he was a most liberal benefactor. In his own country, also, it was one of his leading objects to disseminate books favourable to popular principles of government, editions of many of which he caused to be reprinted. He died in 1774. He was very gentle and polite in his manners, and seems to have united much of the ancient stoic to the modern partisan of freedom and general philanthropist.

HOLLOWAY, THOMAS.—This clever engraver was born in 1748, and commenced his career as a seal-engraver. This he afterwards abandoned for line engraving, and the first great work on which he entered was the English publication of Lavater's "Essays on Physiognomy." To this he was encouraged by a great lover of the arts, who suggested to him

that if the plates were executed in a superior style, and duplicates given of the most interesting subjects from the antique, and from original pictures in this country of which Lavater had not been able to avail himself, the publication might be well received. He, in consequence engaged the Rev. Dr. Hunter, minister of the Scots Church, London Wall, in the translation; and, forming a connection with two publishers, had the courage to embark in a work containing 700 plates, and extending to five volumes imperial quarto. The translation was executed with delicacy and elegance; the graphic illustrations were of equal merit. So balanced indeed was the public favour between the translator and the artist, that some called the work Hunter's and some Holloway's Lavater, which is the case to the present day.

About the same time Mr. Holloway's inclinations were occasionally directed to portrait painting. A beautiful head of his mother by Russel, refined his taste, and stimulated his talents. He exhibited at Somerset House several specimens in miniature, and of the size of life in crayons. Amongst the latter were likenesses of himself and of his eldest niece and nephew, which are certainly equal to any examples of this beautiful style.

But Mr. Holloway's great work is the series of engravings from the Cartoons of Raphael. George III. frequently watched the progress of the undertaking, and often familiarly conversed on those occasions, not forgetting sometimes to intermingle a few pleasant sarcasms on the apparent slowness with which it proceeded. Once he said, "Mr. Holloway, I have only to live 300 years to see the termination of your labours!" His majesty was correct in his observation of the artist's caution, for at first the importance of his employment, and perhaps the vicinity of the royal presence, seemed in some degree to abate the confidence of a mind which otherwise rarely discovered irresolution. At this time no adequate calculation had been made of the probable magnitude of the impending labour, whether in respect of time or expense; the enthusiasm of the moment at once diminished the greatness of the task, and suggested the flattering hope of its rapid completion. A few years, therefore, and a moderate price, appeared sufficient to finish and make compensation for the time and talents to be devoted to it. With these ideas Mr. Holloway proceeded to Windsor, and left his pupils and establishment at his house in Newington Green, thinking his speedy return with the first drawing would prevent the necessity of removing. Weeks, however, elapsed almost without a commencement, and he was soon convinced of the real character of the important enterprise in which he had embarked. On this discovery the plan was changed, and his establishment entirely transferred to the precincts of the royal castle. This proved a fortunate necessity, as the originals thus became equally accessible to the younger students, whose admiration of their unexpected grandeur and beauty added a lively interest to their employment, and urged to greater emulation of improvement and new vigour of application.

As the magnitude and expensiveness of the work became more and more apparent, the terms of subscription advanced; but such was the diffidence of the artists, that additions were made at long intervals before the price was ultimately fixed at ten guineas. This remuneration would not have been required had



the original proposals been better planned; the first price of three guineas being, as it must appear to all who are acquainted with the engravings, totally inadequate to their value: it ought, however, to be mentioned, to the honour of the early subscribers, that the greater part increased their payments to four, five, six, and in some instances to eight and ten guineas. A few years limited the stay of Mr. Holloway and his associates at a place rendered interesting by many favourable circumstances, for the Cartoons being removed to their original gallery at Hampton Court, thither the artists followed; and it was here that the first plate, which on its appearance gained immediate reputation, was published. After the lapse of many years at this palace, all the drawings were finished; during which time the Charge to Peter, and the Death of Annanias, and Elymas, were presented to the public with honours equal to the first plate. Mr. Holloway's time at the palaces was agreeably passed; for, although occasioning many interruptions of his studies, he enjoyed the opportunity of frequent conversation with the numerous admirers of Raphael.

The drawings being completed, forming a most faithful and valuable series of copies, the artists, now that the pictures were no longer essential to them, except for occasional consultation, removed to Edgefield in Norfolk; to which delightful village they were attracted by the love of perfect retirement, the probability of a reduction in their expenditure, and the affectionate society of some valued relatives who had long been resident there. Through these circumstances they soon felt themselves at home; but after sustaining for a considerable period the inconvenience of houses unsuitable for their large and increasing families, they were obliged, reluctantly, to make another change. At Edgefield, however, the beautiful plate of the Miraculous Draught of Fishes, which supported to its fullest extent the credit of the former four, was finished; and it was soon after published. The desired object being at length obtained of eligible and contiguous habitations, Mr. Holloway and his associates removed to Coltishall, near Norwich; where, in February 1827, having had the pleasure to see the sixth engraving in advanced progress, and the only remaining one commenced, this excellent man, surrounded by the greater proportion of his nearest relatives, serenely closed a life which for almost eighty years had been devoted to usefulness and goodness.

HOLMAN, JOSEPH GEORGE, a dramatic writer and performer, who was born in 1764. His friends destined him for the church, and he was entered at Queen's College, Oxford. He was inducted, however, in 1784, to embrace the stage as a profession, and he accordingly first appeared at Covent Garden Theatre as Romeo, in which character, according to the critics, he "ranted" rather than performed. Improvement, however, in this as in all other cases, followed practice, and Holman began to attain a certain degree of familiarity, at least, as well as ease, and self-possession, which a novice can never aspire to. He was for a time successful, but he soon quitted the London stage, and repaired first to Dublin, and afterwards to Edinburgh, in the latter of which cities he acquired great popularity. After a short interval Mr. Holman returned to Covent Garden, then appeared on the boards of the Haymarket, afterwards repaired

once more to Ireland, and purchased a share in the theatre of that capital, which was disposed of to great loss in consequence of the unpromising aspect of the times. In 1798 he married the youngest daughter of the Honourable and Reverend Frederick Hamilton, with whom he obtained some fortune, but this lady died in 1810. Meanwhile this disciple of Roscius had determined to remove to the Transatlantic continent. This speculation at first proved productive both of fame and money, for he performed there with an unusual degree of applause. Finding this place advantageous, he returned to London in 1812 for the express purpose of engaging performers for his new theatre at Charlestown in South Carolina, a gay, but unhealthy provincial capital. During his short stay in England he appeared once more at the summer theatre of the Haymarket, in the character of Jaffier, which he played to his own daughter's Belvidera. On arriving in America, he became manager of the theatre in Charlestown. His death was remarkable and melancholy, taking place together with that of his second wife, two days after their marriage, by the yellow fever, in 1817. His dramatic productions are "Abroad and at Home," a comic opera; "Red Cross Knights," a play; "Votary of Wealth," a comedy; "What a Blunder," a comic opera; "Love gives the Alarm," a comedy; and "The Gazette Extraordinary," a comedy.

HOLMES, GEORGE, a laborious English antiquary, who was born in 1662, and died in 1749. His only literary work was a new edition of "Rymer's Fœdera."

HOLMES, ROBERT, a distinguished clergyman of the church of England, who was born in 1749. He was educated at Oxford, and took the degree of D. D. in 1789. The year following he succeeded Mr. Thomas Warton in the professorship of poetry, and about the same period he went to Paris for the purpose of collating the different manuscripts of the scriptures, preserved in the library there. Besides his biblical studies, and the valuable works to which they gave rise, Dr. Holmes appeared as a lyric poet on more occasions than one, especially at the duke of Portland's installation as chancellor of the university in 1793; the ode performed in the theatre on which occasion was of his composition. The other productions of his muse are, an ode entitled, "Alfred," and a small collection of sonnets. The names of his graver writings are, the "Bampton Lectures," and an octavo volume of "Divinity Tracts," besides several occasional sermons; an essay on the prophecies of Daniel, and a letter addressed to the bishop of Durham, respecting his own laborious collation of the Septuagint manuscript, in five folio volumes, after the manner of Kennicot. It is much to be lamented that he did not live to complete this valuable and erudite work, which has, however, since his decease, been carried on by Mr. Parsons. This learned and industrious divine was successively rector of Stanton in Oxfordshire, canon of Salisbury, and canon of Christchurch till the year 1804, when he was preferred to his deanery. He did not, however, enjoy his elevation long, dying at Oxford, in November, 1805.

HOLROYD, JOHN BAKER, LORD SHEFFIELD.—This nobleman was a native of Yorkshire, and early in life served with distinction in the army. He is, however, best known as the friend of Gibbon

and the editor of his posthumous works. Lord Sheffield died in 1821, at the age of eighty.

**HOLSTENIUS, LUCAS**, a learned German writer, who was born at Hamburg in 1596, and educated in the Lutheran faith; but being converted to the Catholic persuasion, he went to Rome, and attached himself to Cardinal Francis Barberini, who took him under his protection. He was honoured by three popes; Urban VIII. gave him a canonry of St. Peter's; Innocent X. made him librarian of the Vatican; and Alexander VII. sent him in 1655 to Queen Christina of Sweden, whose formal profession of the Catholic faith he received at Innspruck. He spent his life in study, and was very learned both in sacred and profane antiquity. He died in 1661.

**HOLT, SIR JOHN**, an English judge, celebrated for firmness, integrity, and knowledge of constitutional law, who was born in 1642, and was entered as a gentleman commoner at Oriel College, Oxford. Being designed for the profession of the law, he became a member of the society of Gray's Inn in 1658, was called to the bar in due course, and soon distinguished himself as a sound lawyer and an able advocate. His professional eminence having procured him the post of recorder to the city of London, he filled that responsible office with much ability for about a year and a half, when, the court determining on the abolition of the test act, his uncompromising opposition to that unpopular measure lost him his situation. He continued in disgrace with James till 1686, when he was made serjeant-at-law; and, becoming a member of the lower house, on the arrival of the prince of Orange he distinguished himself so much by his talents and exertions in what is called the convention-parliament, that William, soon after his establishment on the throne, elevated him to the dignity of lord chief justice of the king's bench, with a seat at the council board. In this situation he continued during the remainder of his life, declining the chancellorship, which was offered him on the removal of Lord Somers in 1700, and discharging the duties of his high office with a degree of resolute uprightness, which, however distasteful on more occasions than one to both the houses of lords and commons, gained him popularity with his contemporaries, and has secured him the veneration of posterity. The only professional remains of this able magistrate are his edition of "Sir John Kelyng's Reports of Cases in Pleas of the Crown, in the Reign of Charles II.," with Notes, printed in 1708. Sir John Holt died in the spring of 1709.

**HOLTY, LEWIS HENRY CHRISTOPHER**.—This lyric poet, who excelled particularly in the elegy and idyl, was born at Mariensee in Hanover in 1748. He was the son of a clergyman, was, when a boy, lively and desirous of knowledge, affectionate and pleasing; but the loss of his mother, and his sufferings from the small-pox, which attacked him in his ninth year, deprived him of his gaiety. His severe studies, which he often pursued until late at night, also contributed to this effect. In 1765 his father sent him to school at Celle, and in 1769 to Göttingen, where he studied theology faithfully, but without neglecting the ancient and modern poets, and without ceasing to exercise his own political talents. As early as 1769 he had gained the reputation of a young man of genius, and Kästner admitted him into his German society. He subsequently became

acquainted with Bürger and Muller, and afterwards with Voss, Boje, Count Stolberg, and the other members of the society of poets at Göttingen at that period, where the young members met once a week to assist each other in their labours. The best of Hölty's poems, even in the department peculiar to him, were written at this period, when he was much excited by the influence of this association. To enable himself to remain at Göttingen, he applied for a place in the philological seminary, and endeavoured to earn something by translations and by giving instruction. Love also contributed to bind him to this city. Like Petrarch, he became acquainted with a Laura, but never made known to her his affection. His health was undermined by severe study, and his father's death in 1775, which affected him deeply, increased his debility. Conscious of the near approach of death, he wrote many touching elegies, and was occupied with a collection of his poems, when he breathed his last on the 1st of September, 1776.

**HOLWELL, JOHN ZEPHANIAH**, a distinguished officer in the service of the British East India Company. He had the command at Calcutta on the surrender of Fort William, and was afterwards shut up in the Black Hole. He afterwards returned to England, but in 1758 he went out again, and the next year succeeded Colonel Clive as governor. At the close of the following year he again returned to England, where he died in 1798. Mr. Holwell was the author of many tracts on Indian affairs of a temporary interest, from which however must be excepted his "Narrative of the Sufferings endured in the Black Hole of Calcutta," and his "Interesting Historical Events relative to the Province of Bengal and the Empire of Hindostan." He was placed in this terrible underground dungeon with 146 persons, and before the lapse of twelve hours four-fifths of the number had expired; such was the intense heat of the weather and a want of proper ventilation.

**HOLYOAK, FRANCIS**.—This learned scholar was born in 1567. He died in 1653, leaving a valuable etymological dictionary of the Latin tongue. His son, Thomas Holyoak, also published a dictionary in Latin and English.

**HOMBERG, WILLIAM**.—This eminent chemist was born in 1652, and in 1672 he was made advocate at Magdeburg and there applied himself to the study of experimental philosophy. Some time after he travelled into Italy, and devoted himself to the study of medicine, anatomy and botany, at Padua and Bologna. He at length travelled into France, England, and Holland, obtained the degree of doctor of physic at Wittenberg, travelled into Germany and the North, and visited the mines of Saxony, Bohemia, Hungary, and Sweden. He was on the point of returning into Germany, when M. Colbert induced him to fix his residence at Paris. M. Homberg, who was already well known for his philosophical and chemical discoveries and for the number of his observations, was received into the academy of sciences in 1691, and had the laboratory of that academy, of which he was one of its principal ornaments. The duke of Orleans, afterwards regent of the kingdom, at length made him his chemist, settled upon him a pension, gave him a most superb laboratory, and in 1704 made him his first physician. He had abjured the Protestant religion in 1682 and died in 1715. There are a great number of learned and curious



treatises of his writing in the memoirs of the Academy of Sciences and in the journals published at the period.

HOME, HENRY, LORD KAMES, an eminent Scottish lawyer, was born in the year 1696. Lord Kames' grandfather, Henry Home, was a younger son of Sir John Home of Renton, who held the high office of lord justice-clerk, or chief criminal judge of Scotland, in the year 1663. He received the estate of Kames from his uncle George, brother to the then lord justice-clerk. In early youth he was lively and eager in the acquisition of knowledge. He never attended a public school, but was instructed in the ancient and modern languages, as well as in several branches of mathematics, by Mr. Wingate, a man of considerable parts and learning, who spent many years as preceptor to Mr. Home.

After studying with great diligence at the university of Edinburgh, where he acquired a knowledge of the civil law, and the municipal law of his own country, Mr. Home early perceived that a knowledge of these alone is not sufficient to make an accomplished lawyer. An acquaintance with the forms and practical business of courts, and especially of the supreme court, as a member of which he was to seek for fame and emolument, he considered as essentially necessary to qualify him to be a complete barrister. He accordingly attended for some time the chamber of a writer to the Signet, and, on the second day of February 1752, he was advanced to the bench as one of the judges of the court of session, under the title of Lord Kames.

Before this period, however, notwithstanding the unavoidable labours of his profession, Mr. Home had favoured the world with several useful and ingenious works. In the year 1728 he published "Remarkable Decisions of the Court of Session from 1716 to 1728." In 1732 appeared "Essays upon Several Subjects in Law." This early produce of his genius excited not only the attention but the admiration of the judges, and of all the other members of the college of justice. It was succeeded in the year 1741 by "Decisions of the Court of Session from its first institution to the year 1740, abridged, and digested under proper heads, in form of a Dictionary," a very laborious work, and of the greatest utility to every practical lawyer. In 1747 appeared "Essays upon Several Subjects concerning British Antiquities, viz. 1. Introduction of the Feudal Law into Scotland. 2. Constitution of Parliament. 3. Honour, Dignity. 4. Succession or Descent, with an appendix upon hereditary and indefeasible right." In a preface to this work, Lord Kames informs us, that in the years 1745 and 1746, when the nation was in great suspense and distraction, he retired to the country, and, in order to banish as much as possible the uneasiness of his mind, he contrived the plan and executed this ingenious performance.

Though not in the order of time, we shall continue the list of all Lord Kames' writings on law before we proceed to his productions on other subjects. In 1757 he published "The Statute Law of Scotland Abridged, with Historical Notes," a most useful and laborious work. In the year 1759 he presented to the public a new work under the title of "Historical Law Tracts." It contains fourteen interesting tracts, viz. History of the Criminal Law, History of Promises and Covenants, History of Property, History of Securities upon and for Payment of Debt, History of the Privilege which an Heir-ap-

parent in a Feudal Holding has to continue the Possession of his Ancestor, History of Regalities, and of the Privilege of Repledging, History of Courts, History of Brieves, History of Process in Absence, History of Execution against Moveables and Land for Payment of Debt, History of Personal Execution for Payment of Debt, History of Execution for obtaining Payment after the Death of the Debtor, History of the Limited and Universal Representation of Heirs, Old and New Extent. In 1760 he published "The Principles of Equity," a work which shows both the fertility of the author's genius and his indefatigable application. In 1766 he gave to the public another volume of "Remarkable Decisions of the Court of Session, from 1730 to 1752." In 1777 appeared his "Elucidations respecting the Common and Statute Law of Scotland." This book contains many curious and interesting remarks upon some intricate and dubious points which occur in the law of Scotland.

From this sketch of Lord Kames' compositions and collections with a view to improve and elucidate the laws of Scotland, the reader may form some idea of his great industry, and of his anxious desire to promote the honour and welfare of his country. It remains to be remarked, that in the law courts there the law-writings of Lord Kames are held in equal estimation, and quoted with equal respect, as those of Coke or Blackstone in the courts of England. Lord Kames' mind was very much inclined to metaphysical disquisitions. When a young man, in order to improve himself in his favourite study, he corresponded with the famous Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne; Dr. Butler, bishop of Durham; Dr. Samuel Clark, and many other ingenious and learned men both in Britain and Ireland.

The year 1751 gave birth to the first fruits of his lordship's metaphysical studies, under the title of "Essays on the Principles of Morality and Natural Religion," in two parts. Though a small volume, it was replete with ingenuity and acute reasoning, excited general attention, and gave rise to much controversy. It contained, in more explicit terms than perhaps any other work of a religious theist then known in Scotland, the doctrine which has since made so much noise under the appellation of "Philosophical Necessity." The same thing had indeed been taught by Hobbes, by Collins, and by the celebrated David Hume; but as those authors either were professed infidels, or were supposed to be such, it excited, as coming from them, no wonder, and provoked for a time very little indignation. But when a writer, who exhibited no symptoms of extravagant scepticism, who insinuated nothing against the truth of revelation in general, and who inculcated with earnestness the great duties of morality and natural religion, advanced at the same time so uncommon a doctrine as that of necessity, a number of pens were immediately in operation against him, and for a while the work and its author were extremely obnoxious to a great part of the Scottish nation. On the other hand, there were some, and those not totally illiterate, who, confounding necessity with predestination, complimented Mr. Home on his masterly defence of the established faith: and though between those two schemes there is no sort of resemblance, except that the future happiness or misery of all men is, according to both, certainly foreknown and appointed by God. Lord Kames, like many other great and good

men, continued a Necessarian to the day of his death; but in a subsequent edition of the *Essays* he exhibited a remarkable proof of his candour and liberality of sentiment by altering the expressions, which, contrary to his intention, had given such general offence.

In 1761 he published an "Introduction to the Art of Thinking." This small but valuable book was originally intended for the instruction of his own family. The plan of it is both curious, amusing, and highly calculated to catch the attention and to improve the minds of youth. It consists of maxims collected from Rochefaucult and many other authors. To illustrate these maxims, and to rivet the spirit and meaning in the minds of young persons, his lordship has added to most of them beautiful stories, fables, and historical anecdotes.

In the department of belles lettres his "Elements of Criticism" appeared in 1762. This valuable work is the first and a most successful attempt to show that the art of criticism is founded on the principles of human nature. Such a plan, it might be thought, should have produced a dry and phlegmatic performance. Lord Kames, on the contrary, from the sprightliness of his manner of treating every subject he handled, has rendered the "Elements of Criticism" not only highly instructive, but one of the most entertaining books in our language. Before this work was published, Rollin's "Belles Lettres," a dull performance, from which a student could derive little advantage, was universally recommended as a standard; but, after the "Elements of Criticism" were presented to the public, Rollin instantly vanished, and gave place to greater genius and greater utility. With regard to real instruction and genuine taste in composition of every kind, a student, a gentleman, or a scholar, can in no language find such a fertile field of information. Lord Kames, accordingly, had the happiness of seeing the good effects of his labours, and of enjoying for twenty years a reputation which he so justly merited.

In the year 1773 Lord Kames published his "Sketches of the History of Man." This work consists of a great variety of facts and observations concerning the nature of man; the produce of much and profitable reading. In the course of his studies and reasonings, he had amassed a vast collection of materials. These, when considerably advanced in years, he digested under proper heads, and submitted them to the consideration of the public. He intended that this book should be equally intelligible to women as to men; and, to accomplish this end, when he had occasion to quote ancient or foreign books, he uniformly translated the passages. The Sketches contain much useful information; and, like all his lordship's other performances, are lively and entertaining. We now come to Lord Kames' last work, to which he modestly gives the title of "Loose Hints upon Education, chiefly concerning the culture of the heart." It was published in the year 1781, when the venerable author was in the eighty-fifth year of his age.

Besides the books we have enumerated, Lord Kames published many temporary and fugitive pieces in different periodical works. In the "Essays Physical and Literary," published by a society of gentlemen in Edinburgh, we find compositions of his lordship, on the Laws of Motion, on the Advantage of Shallow Ploughing, and on Evaporation;

all of which exhibit evident marks of genius and originality of thinking. How a man employed through life in public business, and in business of the first importance, could find leisure for so many different pursuits, and excel in them, it is not easy for a less powerful mind to form even a conception. Much, no doubt, is to be attributed to the superiority of his genius; but much must likewise have been the result of a proper distribution of his time. He rose early, when in the vigour of life at four o'clock, in old age at six; and studied all the morning. When the court was sitting, the duties of his office employed him from eight or nine, till twelve or one; after which, if the weather permitted, he walked for two hours with some literary friends, and then went home to dinner. Whilst he was on the bench, and we believe when he was at the bar, he neither gave nor accepted invitations to dinner during the term or session; and if any friend came uninvited to dine with him, his lordship displayed his usual cheerfulness and hospitality, but always retired with his clerk as soon as he had drunk a very few glasses of wine, leaving his company to be entertained by his lady. The afternoon was spent as the morning had been, in study. In the evening he went to the theatre or the concert, from which he returned to the society of some men of learning, with whom he sat late, and displayed such talents for conversation as are not often found. Lord Kames died in December 1782, retaining his faculties to the last.

HOME, JOHN, a celebrated Scottish dramatic writer, who was born near Ancrum, in Roxburghshire, in 1724. He was educated at Edinburgh for the church, but in 1745 took up arms on the royal side, and was made prisoner at the battle of Falkirk, but contrived to escape. On the suppression of the rebellion he resumed his studies and was licensed to preach in 1747. After visiting London he was settled as minister at Athelstaneford in East Lothian, where he composed his tragedy of "Agis," which was refused by the London managers, a circumstance which did not prevent him from composing "Douglas," also refused by Garrick; on which the author had it performed at Edinburgh in 1756, Mr. Home and several of his clerical brethren being present. For this alleged departure from the decorum enjoined by the church of Scotland the author was so severely threatened with ecclesiastical censures that he resigned his living and ever after acted and appeared as a layman. As a persecuted man he was complimented on this occasion by David Hume, who, in a strain of high panegyric, addressed to him his "Four Dissertations." Shortly after "Douglas" was represented at Covent Garden in March 1757, and gradually became a stock piece. He followed with "Agis," "The Siege of Aquileia," "The Fatal Discovery," "Alonzo," and "Alfred," none of which had even temporary success. In 1763, by the patronage of Lord Bute, he was made commissioner of sick and wounded seamen, and appointed conservator of the Scottish privileges at Campvere in Zealand. In 1778 he received a captain's commission in the Buccleugh Fencibles, which he held until the peace. He subsequently published a "History of the Rebellion of 1745-6," a work which disappointed public expectation. He died, decayed in his faculties, at Merchiston House, in 1808, at the advanced age of eighty-five.



**HOME, EVERARD**, an eminent surgeon, and brother-in-law of John Hunter, under whom he studied. Sir Everard was the author of a great number of works connected with his own profession, amongst which we may particularly enumerate his "Lectures on Comparative Anatomy" and "Observations on Cancer." For many years he was president of the College of Surgeons, and he held the office of sergeant surgeon to the king. Sir Everard died in 1832.

**HOMER.**—All who love or profess a veneration for the Greek classics look up to this distinguished bard as the father of poetry, or at least consider the writings which bear his name as the most striking which have been handed down to us. Of his origin but little is now known, but the earliest authority says, that Crytheis, his mother, supported herself by her labour till Phemius, a school-master at Smyrna, fell in love with and married her. On the death of his father-in-law, Homer succeeded him in his school, and was much celebrated for his wisdom. Attracted by his fame, Mentès, who commanded a Leucadian ship, visited him, and induced him to leave his occupation and travel. In the company of this friend, he went to Italy and Spain; but, at last, was left at Ithaca in consequence of a disease in his eyes. While in this island he was entertained by a wealthy man, named Mentor, who told him those circumstances upon which he afterwards framed the *Odyssey*. On the return of Mentès he accompanied him to Colophon, where he became totally blind. On this misfortune he returned to his native place, Smyrna; but his hopes of support were disappointed by the apathy with which the productions of his genius were regarded by his countrymen. He therefore removed to Cumæ, where he received great applause, but no reward, the people alleging that they could never think of maintaining all the "blind men." Thus again baffled, he travelled to Phocæa, where a school-master, named Thestorides, offered to support him on condition of being allowed to transcribe his poems; which being granted, his new friend took them away to Chios, and gained universal applause by producing them. Hearing of this treachery, Homer resolved to lay claim to his own compositions, and, for that purpose, set out for Chios. Before, however, he met with Thestorides, he was found by Glaucus, a shepherd, and introduced by him to his master at Bollissus, who employed him in the education of his children. As his fame increased while he remained in this situation, his piratical foe took flight, and left him in possession of the field. On this he left his employment and went to Chios, where he acquired considerable wealth by his poems, married, and had two daughters, one of whom died young, and the other was married to the person in whose family he had recently been a teacher. He determined, however, to proceed to Athens; but the vessel was detained during the winter at Samos, where he sung or recited his poems, often followed by a train of children. He attempted in the spring to prosecute his voyage, but was seized with sickness at Iô, died, and was buried on the sea shore.

This account, as we have already observed, is but little to be relied on, and yet it is the only circumstantial relation which has reached us of the adventures and condition of him whose name every civilized country has united in revering. According to Diodorus Siculus, he was educated under Pro-

napides, a man of great genius, who taught the Pelagic letter invented by Linus. In two respects all the accounts concerning him agree—that he had been a great traveller, and that he was afflicted with blindness. From the first circumstance it has been inferred that he was either rich or enjoyed the patronage of the wealthy, but this will not appear necessary when it is considered that in his time journeys were usually performed on foot, and that he probably travelled, with a view to his support, as an itinerant musician or reciter. From most of the traditions respecting him it appears that he was poor, and it is to be feared that necessity rather than the mere desire of gratifying curiosity prompted his wanderings. All that has been advanced respecting the occasion of his blindness is mere conjecture. Certain it is, that this misfortune arose from accident or disease, and not from the operation of nature at his birth, for the character of his compositions seems rather to suppose him "all eye" than destitute of sight; and if they were even framed during his blindness, they form a glorious proof of the vivid power of the imagination more than supplying the want of the bodily organs, and not merely throwing a variety of its own tints over the objects of nature, but presenting them to the mind in a clearer light than could be shed over them by one whose powers of immediate vision were perfectly free from blemishes.

We must not omit to notice that Mr. Bryant has endeavoured to show that the birth-place of the poet, and scene in which he composed his great works, was Ithaca. He supports this opinion partly by its freedom from the objections advanced against other theories, and partly from the peculiar statistics of the poet. He contends, with great enthusiasm, that Homer returned hither from his wanderings by sea and land to enjoy a genial repose, and that here, amidst his native scenery, he produced, from the materials collected on his travels, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. In the latter Mr. Bryant supposes him to have told his own adventures, and to have expressed the personal feelings which he most fondly cherished, and to have even celebrated the constancy of his own wife in the character of Penelope. Undoubtedly there are passages in which the emotion seems to have flowed immediately from the heart—a lingering and fond retrospect of departed joy—a mild and softened melancholy—and a constant and tender recollection of home, with all its sweet associations, rendered yet more sacred by time. Some particular scenes too are described with a vividness so striking that they seem to have been remembered rather than invented. But all this falls very short of proving the identity of Ulysses and Homer since it is easy to conceive that scenes of which the poet was actually a witness were transferred to his works as seen by other spectators, and that he used a fictitious character to express sentiments, which, in their original intensity, glowed within his own bosom.

The works of Homer have naturally furnished abundant opportunities for commentaries and editions from the time of their first collection. The first commentators were probably those philosophers who endeavoured to remove prejudices against the representations made by the poet of supernatural things, by endeavouring to find in them a secret meaning, of which the fiction was but an allegorical veil. None of their works, however, now survive. Alexander

the Great, being enthusiastically attached to the poems of Homer, is said not only to have encouraged a new and improved edition by Aristotle, his preceptor, but to have assisted himself, with Anaxarchus and Callisthenes, in its revision. When this work was completed, the conqueror of Asia laid it up in a casket of great value which he had taken among the spoils of Darius, as the most valuable thing which he could deposit in so precious a case, and thence it was called the edition of the casket. Aristotle also, in his *Poetics*, comments largely on the works which he thus edited; and drew from them the system of epic poetry which has since determined the laws of that species of composition.

It does not appear that the Greeks were either very skilful in tracing out the true readings of the poet or very careful to preserve the text entire as corrected by its first editor. Their disposition and genius were little fit for verbal criticism, and there is every reason to believe that great errors were allowed to creep into the manuscripts, amidst the highest veneration for the author. At length the Ptolemies in Egypt began to show a great degree of zeal for the purification and general diffusion of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. A number of copies, especially the Massiliotic, the Chian, the Argive, the Sinopic, the Cyprian, and the Cretan, so called from the cities in which they had been preserved, were sent to Alexandria. Hence Zenodotus framed his edition under the auspices of the first of the Ptolemies. But the great restorer of Homer to purity and correctness was Aristarchus, tutor to the son of Ptolemy Philometor, who entered critically into the examination of his author, and formed the basis of those copies which are now extant. The commentaries of Eustathius are the most celebrated and useful of all the critical writings on Homer until very recent times. The author lived in the twelfth century, was a native of Constantinople, and bishop of Thessalonica. The results of his critical labours were published at Rome in the years 1542 and 1550.

In modern times a great number of editions of the works of Homer have been published. The first printed edition was at Florence in 1488, in two volumes, folio. The second was that of Aldus, in the year 1504, in octavo, but it is a mere copy of the Florentine edition. In 1542 a splendid edition was published at Rome, containing all the commentaries of Eustathius. Various editions have been published at Paris; the first of which was that of Turbetus in 1554, diligently collated with the preceding copies, especially that of Rome. Barnes, in 1711, published his edition at Cambridge, which has been the subject of very severe animadversion by Dr. Bentley, but is invaluable for its extensive collation of manuscripts and preceding editions. Clarke's splendid edition of the *Iliad*, in two volumes, quarto, appeared in 1729, and contains, in the notes, clear illustrations of the principles of grammar and prosody. The *Odyssey*, *Batrachomyomachia*, &c., in 1740. The Glasgow edition appeared in 1756, in four volumes, folio; it was superintended by Moor and Muirhead, and underwent a singularly careful revision. Three editions of Homer have been given to the world by the celebrated Wolf, and a magnificent edition of all the works of Homer issued from the Clarendon press in 1808 under the patronage of the Grenville family. In 1802 Heyne's great edition of the *Iliad* made its appearance, enriched with an immense fund of

critical observations on the works of Homer, but countenancing all the sceptical opinions respecting the unity and authenticity of the whole.

Homer has been translated into most modern languages. In this country the principal translations of the poems of Homer are those of Chapman, Pope, and Cowper. Chapman loved his author with a poet's love; he came to his work with a kindred spirit with his great original, but his production is not a translation, scarcely a paraphrase. His genius was too daring to be confined to the text even of Homer. To use the words of an excellent critic, "His Homer is not so much a translation as the stories of Achilles and Ulysses re-written. The earnestness and passion which he has put into every part of these poems would be incredible to a reader of mere modern translations. His almost Greek zeal for the honour of his heroes is only paralleled by that fierce spirit of Hebrew bigotry with which Milton, as if personating one of the zealots of the old law, clothed himself when he sat down to paint the acts of Samson against the uncircumcised. The great obstacle to Chapman's translations being read, is their unconquerable quaintness. Hepours out, in the same breath, the most just and natural, and the most forced expressions. He seems to grasp whatever words come first to hand during the impetus of inspiration, as if all other must be inadequate to the divine meaning. But passion (the all in all in poetry) is everywhere present, raising the low, dignifying the mean, and putting sense into the absurd. He makes his readers glow, weep, tremble, take any affection which he pleases, be moved by words, or in spite of them; be disgusted, and overcome their disgust."

Pope's translation of the *Iliad* is the most popular version of Homer ever made, or, perhaps, of any poet who has been translated into a modern tongue. It is not, indeed, written in a style very congenial with the original, and, in point of sense, frequently deviates from it. Neither its excellencies nor its faults are those of Homer, but it is, with all its blemishes, a noble work of human industry, skill, taste, and even of genius. His pictures are often vivid, his details elegant and graceful. If his poem is not Homer's, that bard is, at least, indebted to him for a great part of the popular veneration in which his name is held in this country. His great defect is a want of power of description to follow his original, when the grander parts of nature are to be depicted. His gorgeous misrepresentation of moonlight has been often and deservedly exposed. In the tenderer passage, as the parting of Hector and Andromache, he follows his author more closely, and almost equals him. The translation of the *Odyssey* is far inferior to the *Iliad* as a whole, though parts of it are executed with admirable polish and exactness of finishing.

Cowper's translation is the reverse of Pope's. It has all that its predecessor wants, and wants all that it possesses. It is generally faithful, but will never be read. As if to avoid the Ovidian graces of Pope, the author runs into the contrary extremes, and affects a ruggedness quite repulsive, and very different, indeed, from the smooth Ionian of Homer. The excellencies of this work are not those which would recommend it to popular notice, since the readers of translations are those who cannot peruse the original, and are, therefore, unable to appreciate the merit of correctness.

HOMMEL; the name of several great Saxon



jurists. One of the earliest was Ferdinand Augustus Hommel, who was born at Leipsic in 1697, and became professor of law and a member of the supreme court in the same place. He died, after a life devoted industriously to the science of law and the administration of justice, in 1766. His works show his philosophical mind and great legal erudition. His son, Charles Ferdinand Hommel, was born in 1722 at Altenburgh, and in 1756 was made professor of the decretals. After having received many honours and titles, he died in 1781. He was one of the greatest jurists of his age. In addition to his labours in the science of law, he contributed to introduce a better and purer language in the German courts. Besides the law, he was well versed in many other branches of science, as his "*Bibliotheca Juris Rabbinnica et Saracenorum Arabica*," his "*Jurisprudentia Numismatibus Illustrata*," and his many academical writings prove. Among his works are his "*German Flavius*," which contains directions for drawing up sentences, both in civil and criminal cases.

**HOMPESCH, FERDINAND, BARON OF.**—This nobleman was the last grand-master of the order of the knights of St. John. He was born in 1744 at Düsseldorf. In the twelfth year of his age he went to Malta, where he rose, successively, from a page of the grand-master to the rank of grand-cross. He was for years minister of the court of Vienna to his order, and in 1797 was chosen grand-master. When Bonaparte landed at Malta, on his passage to Egypt, in June 1798, the works were surrendered by the commander, Bosreddon, without the knowledge of Hompesch, who, on the third day after the surrender, embarked for Trieste. He received 100,000 crowns for his plate, and was promised an annual pension of the same amount, which, however, he did not receive; for, after his arrival in Trieste, he solemnly protested against the capitulation as never consented to by him, and, some months afterwards, abdicated his dignity in favour of the emperor Paul I. He afterwards lived in obscurity and great distress. Necessity at length compelled him to go to Montpellier, to demand the arrears of the pension which had been promised him. He obtained, with much difficulty, 15,000 francs of this sum, and died in 1803.

**HONDEKOOTER, MELCHIOR**, a celebrated Dutch painter born at Utrecht, who particularly excelled in painting animals, and especially birds. His father and grandfather were of the same profession, and their subjects the same, but surpassed not only his father but even the best of his contemporaries in a very high degree. After his father's death, which took place in 1653, he received some instructions from his uncle John Baptist Weenix; but his principal and best instructor was nature, which he studied with intense application. His pencil was delicate, his touch light, his colouring exceedingly natural, lively, and remarkably transparent. The landscapes which he introduced as the back ground to his pictures are well adapted, and admirably finished; they harmonize his subject, and always increase the force and the beauty of his principal objects. His pictures sell at a high price, and are much sought after. He died at Utrecht in 1695.

**HONORIUS**, the first Roman emperor of the West. He was the son of Theodosius the Great, and succeeded his father, with his brother Arcadius,

A. D. 395. He was neither bold nor vicious, but he was of a modest and timid disposition, unfit for enterprise and fearful of danger. He conquered his enemies by means of his generals, and suffered himself and his people to be governed by ministers who took advantage of their imperial master's indolence and inactivity. He died of a dropsy, in the thirty-ninth year of his age, but left no issue, though he had married two wives. Under him and his brother, the Roman power was divided into two different empires. The successors of Honorius, who fixed their residence at Rome, were called the emperors of the west, and the successors of Arcadius, who sat on the throne of Constantinople, were distinguished by the name of emperors of the eastern Roman empire.

**HONORIUS** (several of the popes bore this name). Honorius I. was elected pope in 626. He favoured the heresy of the Monothelites, which was condemned by the sixth council of Constantinople. He died in 638.—Honorius II., elected pope in 1124, was, at the time of his election, bishop of Ostia. A part of the bishops and cardinals had previously invested Cardinal Thibaut with that dignity; but, both candidates having resigned, Honorius was re-elected. He died in 1130.—Honorius III. was raised to the papal chair in 1216, on the death of Innocent III. Immediately on his election, he wrote to the king of Jerusalem to assure him of his support; to the bishops of France, to encourage pilgrims; and to the emperor of Constantinople, to promise him assistance against the schismatics. John, king of England, had left to his successor, Henry III., the burthen of a war with the French prince Louis, who laid claim to the English throne, and had been encouraged in his pretensions by Innocent. Honorius reconciled the barons with Henry, and obliged Louis to renounce his pretensions. The pope then turned his attention to the crusades, and crowned Frederic II., emperor of Germany, on condition that he would go to Palestine within two years. In France he instigated Philip Augustus and Louis VIII. to support the war against the Albigenes. He died in 1227, and was succeeded by Gregory IX.—Honorius IV. was elected pope in 1285. He supported the French king, Philip the Bold, in the war against Peter of Arragon, and died in 1287.

**HONTAN, BARON DE LA**, a native of the province of Gascony in France, who served as a common soldier in Canada, and afterwards as an officer. He was sent to Newfoundland as king's lieutenant, but, in consequence of disputes with the governor, he was disgraced, and retired, first to Portugal, and then to Denmark. His "*Travels in North America*" (which were published at Amsterdam in 1705) afford some curious details respecting the Indian tribes, but the work is written in a barbarous style, and its authenticity is very questionable.

**HONTHEIM, JOHANN NICOLAUS VON.**—This learned individual was descended from an ancient and noble family in Treves. He studied law, became afterwards a clergyman, travelled to Rome, and made himself acquainted with the policy and abuses of the ecclesiastical government. On his return he was appointed, by the elector of Treves, counsellor of the consistorium, and, soon afterwards, professor of the civil law. He was afterwards made suffragan of the archbishopric. Between 1750 and 1760 he wrote a "*History of Treves*" in Latin; and in 1763, under

the assumed name of Justinus Fabronius, a bold work, which procured him much reputation, "On the Condition of the Church and the Lawful Power of the Pope." This was likewise in Latin. Though he was an ardent Catholic, and dedicated the work to the pope, yet the usurpations of the Romish see are here attacked with so much boldness that the author was persecuted and the work prohibited by the court of Rome. He died in 1790 at Montquintin, much esteemed for his piety and benevolence.

**HONTHORST, GERARD**, a celebrated artist who was born at Utrecht in 1592, and was a disciple of Abraham Bloemart. He completed his studies at Rome, and imitated the style of Caravaggio. His subjects are generally night pieces, as large as life, and illuminated by torch or candle light. Among his numerous pictures, that of Jesus Christ before the Tribunal of Pilate, in the Justinian gallery, is the most celebrated. He visited London, and obtained the favour of Charles I. by many able performances, and on his return to Holland was much employed by the prince of Orange. The pencil of Honthorst is free and firm, and his colouring has a great deal of force, although often unpleasing, from a predominancy of brown and yellow tints: with more grace and correctness in his figures, he would have been an excellent painter. He died in 1660.—William Honthorst, brother to the above, painted portraits, which are highly esteemed.

**HOOD, ROBIN**.—The severity of the tyrannical forest laws introduced into England by the Norman kings, and the great temptation to break them in the case of persons living near the royal forests, at a time when the yeomanry of the country were every where trained to the use of the long-bow, and excelled all other nations in the art of shooting, must constantly have occasioned great numbers of outlaws, especially among the best marksmen. These naturally fled to the woods for shelter, and, forming into troops, endeavoured, by their numbers, to protect themselves from the dreadful penalties of their delinquency. The ancient punishment for killing the king's deer was loss of eyes and castration—a punishment worse than death. This will account for the troops of banditti which lurked in the royal forests, and, from their superior skill in archery and knowledge of all the recesses of those unfrequented solitudes, found it no difficult matter to resist or elude the civil power. Among all those none was more celebrated than Robin Hood, whose chief residence was in Sherwood forest, in Nottinghamshire, and the heads of whose story, as collected by Stow, are briefly these:—"In this time (about the year 1190, in the reign of Richard I.) were many robbers and outlaws, among which Robin Hood and Little John, renowned thieves, continued in the woods, despoiling and robbing the goodes of the rich. They killed none but such as would invade them, or by resistance for their own defence. The saide Robert entertained an hundred tall men and good archers, with suche spoiles and thefts as he got, upon whom four hundred (were they ever so strong) durst not give the onset. He suffered no woman to be oppressed, violated or otherwise molested; poore men's goods he spared, abundantlie relieving them with that which by theft he got from abbeyes and the houses of rich old carles, whom Maior (the historian) blameth for his rapine and theft; but of all the theeves he affirmeth him to be the prince, and the most gentle

theefe." The personal courage of this celebrated outlaw, his skill in archery, his humanity, and especially his leveling principle of taking from the rich and giving to the poor, have, in all ages, rendered him the favourite of the common people, who, not content to celebrate his memory by innumerable songs and stories, have bestowed on him the dignity of an earl. Indeed, it is not impossible that Robin himself, to gain more respect from his followers, or they, to derive the more credit to their profession, may have given rise to such a report, for we find it recorded in an epitaph which, if genuine, must have been inscribed on his tombstone, near the nunnery of Kirklees in Yorkshire, where (as the story goes) he was bled to death by a treacherous nun, to whom he applied for phlebotomy. This epitaph gives the year 1247 as the time of his death.

**HOOD, SAMUEL, LORD VISCOUNT**.—This distinguished naval officer was born in 1724. He entered the service at sixteen years of age, and in 1759 was made post-captain. His services with Admiral Rodney were rewarded by his being called to the peerage; but Lord Hood's most distinguished achievements occurred before Toulon in 1793, and as the operations were of a very interesting character, we may describe them somewhat in detail.

The combined English and Spanish forces were successful in most of their first operations, and the French sustained a very severe loss in September, from an attack made on a height from which the Spaniards had been expelled by the besiegers. This enterprise was conducted by Lord Mulgrave, and reflected the highest credit on the English arms; nor should the services of a corps of Neapolitans on this occasion be passed over in silence: a detachment of these troops gave an example of gallantry which could not have been surpassed by the best disciplined and most enterprising soldiers. For the better protection in future of the outer road and naval hospital, which had been exposed to these partial attacks from the enemy, it was found necessary to place a battery on the *Hauteur de Grasse*.

On the 1st of October the combined British, Spanish, and Neapolitan troops, under the command of Lord Mulgrave, Captain Elphinstone, and Rear-admiral Gravina, obtained a complete victory over the republican troops on the heights of Pharon, which consisted of nearly 2000 men, of whom 1500 were killed, wounded, and taken prisoners; the great loss sustained by the enemy was chiefly owing to the precipitancy of their retreat, many having fallen over the precipices, and broke their necks. The loss on the side of the combined forces amounted to eight killed, seventy-two wounded, two missing, and forty-eight taken prisoners.

On the 23rd Lord Hood was much surprised to receive a letter from Don Langara, acquainting him that on account of the valour and good conduct of Admiral Gravina his Catholic Majesty had promoted him to the rank of lieutenant-general, and "had appointed him commander-in-chief of the combined forces off Toulon." This Lord Hood very properly resisted; the town and its dependent forts having been yielded to the British troops entirely at his lordship's disposal, or to act under whatever British officer he might judge fit to appoint. He therefore felt it his duty to put the Sardinian and Sicilian troops, together with the British, under the command of Major-general O'Hara, who had arrived on the same day



with a commission to be governor of Toulon and its dependencies.

The menacing position in which Don Langara placed his fleet, consisting of twenty-one sail of the line, proved nothing more than a gasconade, though Don Langara sought frequent opportunities to entice Lord Hood to a rupture by the improper proposals which he frequently made, and the dissatisfaction shown at the unequal partition of power between the commanders of the two nations, all of which Lord Hood resisted with becoming firmness and resolution.

On the evening of the 15th of November a large body of the enemy made several vigorous attacks on Fort Mulgrave, situated on the heights of Balaguier, which covered the town and harbour of Toulon, in all of which they were repulsed by the spirited exertions of Captain Duncan Campbell, of the royalists, who commanded the detachment in the fort. The enemy's loss was very considerable, amounting to about 600 men killed and wounded; on the side of the combined forces only sixty-one; among the wounded were Captain Campbell and Lieutenant Lemoine of the royal artillery.

At this time the enemy was increased to between thirty and forty thousand men, while the force of the allies consisted but of eleven, 4000 of whom were rendered incapable of performing their duty by sickness. The troops fit for service were harassed by severe fatigue, occasioned by the occupation of a great extent of posts. Batteries were erected against many of the works still in their possession, and every thing announced the melancholy certainty of a speedy and successful attack. This was not long delayed: on the 17th of December the French carried by storm a fort erected by the allies on the heights of La Grasse, entering it without much opposition on the side defended by the Spaniards. This post, after being annoyed for three days by discharges of shot and shells, which made a considerable slaughter among the troops, was at last stormed by three numerous and massy columns of the enemy reported to consist each of 5000 men. The British soldiers and seamen did not abandon the quarter in which they were stationed without making as firm a resistance as their situation would allow; but the French, with their usual quickness and ingenuity, took advantage of the ill-construction of the fort, and directed their march so skilfully as to elude the fire from the works, and the besieged were obliged to weaken their own defences, and cut down the embrasures in order to bring their guns to bear. The enemy, instead of following up their success, retired for a considerable time, after demolishing the greater part of the works; but the consternation which had pervaded the Spanish and Neapolitan troops rendered the recovery of the post impossible, and another attack on the same day drove the allies from a most important position on Mount Pharon. The besiegers, by obtaining possession of the heights of La Grasse, gained the entire command of the inner harbour, which the combined fleet quitted the following night, and anchored in the outer road. The town and inner road were now completely commanded by the shot and shells of the enemy, whose troops overhung the city on different sides, appearing every moment ready to break in, with a force which no hope could be entertained of resisting with success. Within the royalists were in the utmost dismay, the jacobins were ripe for revolt, and a great part of the force of the allies in a state of despondency.

At this crisis a council of war was summoned. The necessity of evacuating the town was admitted by all parties, but a short discussion arose respecting the possibility of rendering a post at Cape Sepet capable of affording protection to the anchorage in the outer harbour; a project however, which the engineers, on being consulted, pronounced impracticable. The next determination taken was to destroy the French ships in dock and the naval stores, which passed without opposition, though the Spaniards were known to be adverse to its execution. It was agreed, from evident motives of policy, to conceal the resolution taken for abandoning the place as long as possible, and to defer the destruction of the ships and stores till the last. It was at the same time determined that the French ships ready for sea should sail out with the allies, under the command of Admiral Trugoffe, a decided royalist, and that all possible exertions should be made on the evacuation of the place for carrying off those of the inhabitants whose conduct had rendered them obnoxious to the fury of the republicans.

On the morning of the 18th the sick and wounded, and the British field artillery, were sent off, and more of the posts evacuated. The orders given for the retreat were, that the troops should march out at night and take to their boats under the guns of Fort la Malgue, still in their possession. In the mean time Lord Hood had appointed a naval detachment to burn the French ships and stores, consisting of an united English and Spanish force. Admiral Langara had undertaken the destruction of the ships in the inner basin, and three Spanish gun-boats were to co-operate with the English. The only assistance, however, derived from the Spaniards, was the service of a mortar-boat, the crew of which fairly shared the dangers and labours of the night. The flotilla consisted of the Vulcan fire-ship, the Alert sloop, the Swallow tender, three English gun-boats, and the Spanish mortar-boat. The direction of this enterprise was volunteered by Sir Sydney Smith, who had lately joined the British fleet, and who proceeded at night to the arsenal to execute Lord Hood's orders. The signal for him to begin the conflagration was not to be given till the allies had commenced their retreat. This they could not effect by the natural route through the gate of Italy, for the fort of St. Catherine, which is within musquet-shot of part of the road by which they must have passed, had been abandoned by the Spaniards without orders, and was now possessed by the enemy. But retiring through a sally-port they gained an advanced part of the road, reached La Malgue without accident, and formed on the rising ground of the Peninsula. Boats were in readiness, the sea was calm, and the embarkation commenced under the most favourable circumstances.

While Lord Hood remained at Toulon he kept such ships of his fleet as were not necessary for the protection and defence of the place actively employed. Rear-admiral Gell was sent with a squadron to clear the port of Genoa of the French; he there seized *La Modeste*, a frigate of thirty-six guns, and 300 men, with three gun-boats. *L'Imperieux*, a fine French frigate of forty guns, took shelter in Aspecchio Bay, where she was sunk by her crew, and afterwards weighed by a detachment of the squadron under Admiral Gell.

Agreeable to his charge, Sir Sydney Smith had made his preparations at the arsenal. This is a large hollow building, part of which stands on the shore,

and is composed of great magazines and store-houses, the other sides are built on solid piers standing in the water; the walls contain two areas, which are wet-docks, and at this time were full of ships; the two exterior sides of the largest compartment are composed of small store-houses, containing materials for the particular repair of each ship.

Sir Sydney Smith on his arrival found the dock gates well secured, though the workmen manifested their hostile intentions by the substitution of the tricoloured for the white cockade; and 600 slaves aboard a galley, all of whom were either unchained or employed in freeing themselves from their irons, seemed bent on resistance. As he was unwilling to deprive these men of their only chance of escaping the dangers which threatened them, he gave them no interruption, and only took the precaution of pointing the guns of the *Swallow* so as to enfilade the quay, on which they must have landed in order to attack him. During these preparations on the part of the English, the enemy kept up a cross fire of shot and shells from Malbousquet and the neighbouring hills; but this, far from having the intended effect, powerfully seconded the operations of the seamen by contributing to keep the galley-slaves in awe, and confining the jacobinical party in the town within their houses; while, on the other hand, the sailors, instead of being confused by the fire, pursued their work with steadiness, and distributed their combustibles without much interruption from the enemy's efforts.

Meanwhile a great multitude of the besiegers kept drawing down the hill towards the dock-yard wall, animating each other's enthusiasm by shouts and republican songs; and, as the night closed in, approached so near as to pour in a quick but irregular fire of musquetry as well as artillery; but discharges of grape kept them at bay, and prevented their advancing near enough to discover the weakness of the English force. Other precautions were necessary to guard against the jacobins within: as a defence against these a boat was so stationed as to flank the wall on the outside, and within two field pieces were pointed against the wicket, usually frequented by the workmen. The fire-ship, which was not ready when Sir Sydney Smith began his preparations, was now towed into the great arsenal and immediately placed by her commander, Captain Hare, across the tier of men of war lying there. Her arrival promised to ensure their destruction, and the additional force of men and guns contributed to keep the galley slaves in subjection. Their murmurs and tumultuous debates, which at intervals reached the ears of the English, now ceased, and no sound was heard among them but the noise of the hammer clanking against their irons, from which they were eagerly striving to free themselves.

As soon as the governor's signal was made, for which Sir Sydney Smith was anxiously waiting, the combustibles were lighted and the flames rose rapidly, though the stillness of the air was unfavourable to the diffusion of the fire. The blaze of light rendered the English distinct objects of aim, and made the enemy redouble their discharges. But the *Vulcan* having been now fired by Captain Hare, her guns, which were on both sides, pointed towards the places most likely to be forced, going off, as the flames reached them, checked the advances of the enemy; but their shouts and republican songs continued to be heard till they, as well as the British, were terrified

into a momentary cessation of hostilities by the sudden and tremendous explosion of a powder ship lying in the inner road. The violence of the shock, and a shower of flaming timber, threatened to overwhelm the whole flotilla; but fortunately only one gun-boat and one of the ship's boats were destroyed; both were blown to pieces. In one officer and three men perished; the whole crew of the other were picked up alive. Lord Hood had committed the charge of this and another ship, which contained the powder of the French fleet, to the Spanish troops; but the party to whom this duty was entrusted, in their eagerness to finish their part of the perilous task, set them both on fire instead of scuttling and sinking them according to their orders. This accident, however, instead of having the consequences which might have been expected, while it did little damage to the English flotilla, fortunately contributed extremely to appal the enemy, who only saw the terrific effects without being conscious of their cause, and knew not what other dangers of a new and horrible nature might be in store for them. The flames appearing to spread the English hastened to fire the enemy's ships in other places, having first taken in a guard formed from the royalists, and commanded by Lieutenant Ironmonger, which had remained at the dock-gates till the last, and long after the Spanish guard had been withdrawn. These were brought off by Captain Edge, of the *Alert*, who, having saved all the detached parties to a man, closed the retreat.

For these services Lord Hood was created a Viscount, and governor of Greenwich Hospital, which he held to the time of his death, in 1816.

**HOOFT, PETER CORNELIUS VAN**, a Dutch historian and poet, born in 1581 at Amsterdam. He translated Tacitus into the Dutch language with great fidelity and perspicuity; published a "*Life of Henry IV. of France*" in Latin, a "*History of the Low Countries, from the Abdication of the Emperor Charles V. to the year 1598,*" besides a variety of miscellaneous works, consisting of epigrams, comedies, &c. Louis XIII. made him a knight of the order of St. Michael. He was on his way to witness the obsequies of Frederic Henry, prince of Orange, when he was suddenly taken ill and died on the road in 1647.

**HOOKE, ROBERT**, a very eminent English mathematician and philosopher, who was born in 1635. He very early discovered a genius for mechanics by making curious toys with great art and dexterity. He was educated under Dr. Busby in Westminster school, where he not only acquired a competent share of Greek and Latin, together with an insight into Hebrew and some other oriental languages, but also made himself master of a good part of Euclid's Elements. About the year 1653 he went to Christchurch in Oxford, and in 1655 was introduced to the Philosophical Society there. He was first employed to assist Dr. Willis in his operations in chemistry, and afterwards recommended to the Honourable Robert Boyle, whom he served several years in the same capacity. He was also instructed in astronomy by Dr. Seth Ward, Savilian professor of that science. He invented several astronomical instruments for making observations both at sea and land, and was particularly serviceable to Mr. Boyle in completing the invention of the air-pump. Sir John Cutler having founded a mechanical school in 1664, he settled an annual stipend on Mr. Hooke



for life, entrusting the president council and fellows, of the Royal Society to direct him with respect to the number and subject of his lectures, and on the 11th of January 1664-5 he was elected by that society curator of experiments for life, with an additional salary. In 1666 he produced to the Royal Society a model for rebuilding the city of London destroyed by fire, with which the society was well pleased; and the lord mayor and aldermen preferred it to that of the city surveyor, though it was not carried into execution. The rebuilding of the city according to the act of parliament requiring an able person to plan out the ground, Mr. Hooke was appointed one of the surveyors; in which employment he acquired most part of his property as appeared from a large iron chest of money found after his death, and a date of the time, which showed it to have been shut up above thirty years. Mr. Oldenburgh, secretary to the Royal Society, dying in 1677, Mr. Hooke was appointed to supply his place, and began to take minutes at the meeting in October but did not publish the transactions. In the beginning of the year 1687 his brother's daughter, Mrs. Grace Hooke who had lived with him several years, died, and he was so affected with grief at her death that he hardly ever recovered it. In 1691 he was employed in forming the plan of the hospital near Hoxton, founded by Robert Ask, alderman of London, who appointed Archbishop Tillotson one of his executors; and in December, the same year, Hooke was created doctor of physic by a warrant from that prelate. In 1696 an order was granted to him for repeating most of his experiments at the expence of the Royal Society, upon a promise of his finishing the accounts, observations, and deductions from them, and of perfecting the description of all the instruments contrived by him; but his increasing illness and general decay rendered him unable to perform it. Dr. Hooke died in March 1703. His principal works are "Lectiones Cutlerianæ," "Micrographia, or Descriptions of Minute Bodies made by magnifying glasses," "A Description of Helioscopes," and "A Description of some Mechanical Improvements of Lamps and Water-pipes."

HOOKE, NATHANIEL, author of an esteemed "Roman History" and other performances. Of this learned writer the earliest particulars to be met with are furnished by himself in the following letter to the earl of Oxford, dated Oct. 7. 1722:—

"My Lord,—The first time I had the honour to wait upon your lordship since your coming to London, your lordship had the goodness to ask me what way of life I was then engaged in? a certain *mauvaise honte* hindered me at that time from giving a direct answer. The truth is, my lord, I cannot be said at present to be in any form of life but rather to live extempore. The late epidemical distemper seized me, I endeavoured to be rich, imagined for a while that I was, and am in some measure happy to find myself at this instant but just worth nothing. If your lordship, or any of your numerous friends, have need of a servant, with the bare qualifications of being able to read and write and to be honest, I shall gladly undertake any employment your lordship shall not think me unworthy of. I have been taught my lord, that neither a man's natural pride nor his self-love, is an equal judge of what is fit for him; and I shall endeavour to remember, that it is not the short part we act, but the manner of our performance, which gains or loses us the ap-

plause of Him who is finally to decide of all human actions. My lord, I am just now employed in translating from the French a 'History of the Life of the late Archbishop of Cambray,' and I was thinking to beg the honour of your lordship's name to protect a work which will have so much need of it. The original is not yet published. 'Tis written by the author of the 'Discourse upon Epic Poetry,' in the new edition of Telemaque. As there are some passages in the book of a particular nature, I dare not solicit your lordship to grant me the favour I have mentioned till you first have perused it. The whole is short and pretty fairly transcribed. If your lordship could find a spare hour to look it over, I would wait upon your lordship with it, as it may possibly be no unpleasant entertainment. I should humbly ask your lordship's pardon for so long an address in a season of so much business, but when should I be able to find a time in which your lordship's goodness is not employed? I am, with perfect respect and duty, my lord, your lordship's most obliged, most faithful, and most obedient humble servant, "NATHANIEL HOOKE."

The translation here spoken of was afterwards printed in 1723. From this period till his death Mr. Hooke enjoyed the confidence and patronage of men not less distinguished by virtue than by titles. In 1733 he revised a translation of "The History of the Conquest of Mexico by the Spaniards, by Thomas Townsend, Esq.," and in the same year he published the first volume of "The Roman History, from the building of Rome to the ruin of the Commonwealth," illustrated with maps and other plates. In the dedication to this volume, Mr. Hooke took the opportunity of "publicly testifying his just esteem for a worthy friend, to whom he had been long and much obliged," by telling Mr. Pope, that the displaying of his name at the head of those sheets was "like the hanging out a splendid sign, to catch the traveller's eye, and entice him to make trial of the entertainment the place affords." But, he proceeds, "when I can write under my sign, that Mr. Pope has been here, and was content, who will question the goodness of the house?" The volume is introduced by Remarks on the History of the Seven Roman Kings occasioned by Sir Isaac Newton's objections to the supposed 244 years duration of the royal state of Rome. His pen was next employed in digesting "An Account of the Conduct of the Dowager-dukess of Marlborough, from her first coming to court to the year 1710, in a Letter from herself to Lord— in 1742." His reward on this occasion was considerable, and the reputation he acquired by the performance much greater. The circumstances of this transaction are thus related by Dr. Maty, in his "Memoirs of Lord Chesterfield:"—"The relict of the great duke of Marlborough, being desirous of submitting to posterity her political conduct, as well as her lord's, applied to the earl of Chesterfield for a proper person to receive her information, and put the memoirs of her life into a proper dress. Mr. Hooke was recommended by him for that purpose. He accordingly waited upon the dukess, while she was still in bed, oppressed by the infirmities of age; but, knowing who he was, she immediately got herself lifted up, and continued speaking during six hours. She delivered to him, without any notes, her account in the most lively as well as the most connected manner. As she was not tired herself, she would have continued longer the business of the first sitting, had

not she perceived that Mr. Hooke was quite exhausted, and wanted refreshment as well as rest. So eager was she for the completion of the work that she insisted upon Mr. Hooke's not leaving her house till he had finished it. This was done in a short time; and her grace was so well pleased with the performance, that she complimented the author with a present of 5000*l.*, a sum which far exceeded his expectations. As soon as he was free, and permitted to quit the house of his benefactress, he hastened to the earl to thank him for his favour, and communicated to him his good fortune. The perturbation of mind he was under, occasioned by the strong sense of his obligation, plainly appeared in his stammering out his acknowledgments: and he, who had succeeded so well as the interpreter of her grace's sentiments, could scarcely utter his own."

The second volume of the "Roman History" appeared in 1745; when Mr. Hooke embraced the occasion of congratulating his worthy friend, the earl of Marchmont, on "that true glory, the consenting praise of the honest and the wise," which his lordship had so early acquired. To the second volume Mr. Hooke added "The Capitoline Marbles, or Consular Calendars, an ancient Monument accidentally discovered at Rome in the year 1545, during the Pontificate of Paul III." The third volume of Mr. Hooke's "Roman History," to the end of the Gallic war, was printed under his inspection before his last illness, but did not appear till after his death, which happened in 1764. The fourth and last volume was published in 1771.

HOOKER, RICHARD, a celebrated divine and theological writer of the sixteenth century, was born about 1553 at the village of Heavitree, near Exeter. His avidity for learning procured him the patronage of Bishop Jewel, who in 1567 sent him to Oxford, where he obtained the place of one of the clerks of Corpus Christi College. He was elected a scholar of his college in 1573, and in 1577 was chosen a fellow of Christ Church. In 1579 his skill in the oriental languages procured him the appointment of deputy-professor of Hebrew, and in 1581 he took holy orders, and was shortly after made preacher at St. Paul's Cross in London. In 1584 he was presented to the rectory of Drayton Beauchamp in Buckinghamshire. The first four books of his celebrated treatise "Of the Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity" were printed in 1594. The ensuing year he was presented by Queen Elizabeth to the living of Bishop's Bourne in Kent, where he passed the remainder of his life. The fifth book of his great work appeared in 1597; the last three were not published till after his death, which took place in 1600. The Ecclesiastical Polity, written in defence of the church of England against the attacks of the Puritans, is no less remarkable for learning and extent of research than for the richness and purity of its style, which entitles its author to be regarded as one of the classics of the Elizabethan age.

HOOKER, THOMAS, an eminent divine, was born at Marfield, Leicestershire, in 1586. He became a fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge, and a lecturer in Chelmsford, Essex, but was obliged to give up his ministry in consequence of his refusal to conform to all the rites of the established church. He then kept a school, but being still persecuted by the spiritual court, he went over in 1630 to Holland, and in 1633 embarked for Boston in North America,

where he arrived in September in that year. The following October he was ordained pastor of the church in Newtown, but in June 1636 he removed with his whole congregation to the banks of the Connecticut river, and may be termed the founder of the colony of that name, and especially of the town of Hartford. Whenever he visited Boston, which he did frequently, he attracted great crowds by the force of his preaching. He died in July 1647. He published many volumes of sermons, and various polemical works. His principal production is the "Survey of Church Discipline"—a work of great merit and research.

HOOKER, JOHN, a miscellaneous writer who was born in Exeter about the year 1524. He was instructed in English literature by Dr. Moreman, and then removed to Oxford. Having left the university, he travelled to Germany and resided some time at Cologne; thence he went to Strasburg, where he studied divinity under Peter Martyr. He now returned to England, and soon after visited France, intending to proceed to Spain and Italy, but was prevented by a declaration of war. Returning therefore again to England, he fixed his residence in his native city, where, having married, he was in 1554 elected chamberlain, being the first person who held that office, and in 1571 represented his fellow-citizens in parliament. He died in the year 1601, and was buried in the cathedral church at Exeter. He wrote, among other works, "The Order and Usage of Keeping of Parliaments in Ireland," and an Addition to the Chronicles of Ireland from 1540 to 1568, in the second volume of "Holinshed's Chronicles." He also prepared a "Translation of the History of the Conquest of Ireland from the Latin of Giraldus Cambrensis."

HOOLE, JOHN, a writer of some eminence, who was born in London in 1727. At the age of seventeen he became a clerk in the East India House. In 1758 he began to translate the "Jerusalem Delivered," and published the translation in 1763; and in 1767 he published a translation of six dramas of Metastasio, and the next year brought out his own tragedy of "Cyrus," which did not succeed. "Timanthes" in 1770, and "Cleone" in 1775, were equally unsuccessful, being the whole of his dramatic efforts. In 1773 he published the first volume of his "Orlando Furioso," and concluded it in 1783, when it appeared complete in five volumes. He afterwards connected the narrative of the Orlando, in twenty-four books, and disposed the stories in a regular series, which alteration by no means superseded his former edition. In 1792 he translated Tasso's "Rinaldo," and ended his literary labours with a more complete collection of dramas from Metastasio. Mr. Hoole is smooth, but prosaic, and monotonous in his versification, and his translations are now nearly superseded. He died in 1803.

HOOPER, WILLIAM, an American lawyer, who was born in Boston on the 17th of June 1742, and was the son of a clergyman who had emigrated to that city from Scotland. After graduating in 1760 at Harvard College, he commenced the study of the law, and on being admitted to the bar, removed to North Carolina, where he soon acquired an extensive practice. In 1773 he was chosen a representative in the provincial legislature, from the town of Wilmington, in which he had fixed his residence, and signalized himself by his opposition to an arbitrary mea-



sure of the government. He also wrote several essays, under the signature of Hampden, against the same measure. In 1774 he was named a delegate to the general congress about to meet at Philadelphia, and in that body he fully maintained his previous reputation. He was the chairman of the committee appointed to report an address to the inhabitants of Jamaica, the draught of which was his work. Shortly after signing the declaration of independence Mr. Hooper was obliged to resign his seat in consequence of the embarrassed state into which his private affairs had fallen whilst he was occupied with his public duties. He died in October 1790, at the age of forty-eight years.

HOOPER, JOHN, bishop of Worcester, and a martyr in the Protestant cause, was born in Somersetshire, and educated at Oxford. In 1518 he took the degree of bachelor of arts, and afterwards became a Cistercian monk, but at length he returned to Oxford, and there became a Lutheran. In 1539 he was made chaplain and house-steward to Sir John Arundel, who afterwards suffered with the protector in the reign of Edward VI. But "that very catholic knight," as Wood calls him, discovering his chaplain to be a heretic, Hooper was obliged to leave the kingdom. After continuing some time in France, he returned to England and lived with a gentleman named Seintlow, but, being again discovered, he escaped in the habit of a sailor to Ireland, and there embarked for the continent and fixed his residence in Switzerland. When King Edward came to the crown Mr. Hooper returned once more to his native country, and in 1550, by his old patron, Sir John Arundel's interest with the earl of Warwick, he was consecrated bishop of Gloucester, and in 1552 was nominated to the see of Worcester, which he held in *commendam* with the former. But Queen Mary had scarce ascended the throne before his lordship was imprisoned, tried, and, on his refusing to recant, condemned to the flames. He suffered this terrible death at Gloucester on the 9th of February, 1554, being then near sixty years of age.

HOPE, THOMAS, a gentleman distinguished for his love of literature and the fine arts. He was the nephew of an opulent Amsterdam merchant of the same name. In early life he travelled much, especially in the east; and few Englishmen had acquired a better knowledge of the manners and customs of that division of the world than Mr. Hope. His visits to the European continent were of much more recent date. In its various academies of fine art his name will long be cherished with grateful remembrance, since few men distributed their patronage with so much munificence and judgment. Possessing an ample fortune and exquisite taste, Mr. Hope judiciously applied his knowledge of the fine arts to the internal decorations of houses; thus producing in numberless instances the rare combination of splendour and convenience. On this subject Mr. Hope published in 1805 an illustrative folio work, entitled "Household Furniture and Internal Decorations." He also published two very superb works on costume, entitled "The Costumes of the Ancients," and "Designs of Modern Costume;" in which he displayed high classical attainments and love of the picturesque.

Mr. Hope, however, subsequently appeared before the literary world in a work which at once places him in the highest list of imaginative writers; viz., "ANAS-  
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tasius, or the Memoirs of a Modern Greek." There are indeed few books in the English language which contain passages of greater power, feeling, and eloquence, than this work, which delineate frailty and vice with more energy and acuteness, or describe historical scenes with such bold imagery and such glowing language. The subjects upon which Mr. Hope had previously written were not calculated to call forth his eloquent feeling; and such excellence was not expected from him, who, to use the harmless satire of the Edinburgh reviewer, "meditated muffineers and planned pokers;" indeed, contemporary criticism universally allowed "Anastasius" to be a work in which great and extraordinary talent is evinced. It abounds in sublime passages, in sense, in knowledge of history, and in knowledge of human character;—and the rapid sale of three editions has proved these superior characteristics to have been amply recognised by the reading public. Mr. Hope married in 1806 the Honourable Louisa Beresford, daughter of the archbishop of Tuam.

Of Mr. Hope's literary acquirements and his patronage of the liberal arts we have already spoken. It is, however, grateful to be enabled to refer to special acts of such patronage. It should not, therefore, be forgotten, that to the liberality of Mr. Hope, Thorwaldsen, the celebrated Danish sculptor, was chiefly indebted for a fostering introduction to the world. Mr. Hope, too, was one of the earliest of the patrons of Mr. George Dawe, R.A. In a memoir of this fortunate and distinguished painter we find that Andromache soliciting the Life of her Son, from a scene in the French play entitled "Andromache," was purchased by Mr. Hope, "who, in a most liberal manner, marked his approbation of Dawe's talents by favouring him with several commissions for family portraits, especially a half-length of Mrs. Hope with two of her children, and two whole-lengths of the lady singly." To the useful as well as elegant arts Mr. Hope's encouragement was extended, and for the last ten years of his life he filled the office of one of the vice-presidents of the Society of Arts and Sciences in the Adelphi.

Mr. Hope usually passed a portion of the year at his superb mansion in Duchess Street, Portland Place, where he had assembled a valuable collection of works of art, altogether unrivalled, and comprising paintings, antique statues, busts, vases, and other relics of antiquity, arranged in apartments, the furniture and decorations of which were in general designed after classic models by the ingenious possessor himself. Among the sculpture is the exquisite Venus Rising from the Bath, by Canova. The whole of these valuables were open to the public, under certain restrictions, during "the season." Mr. Hope likewise possessed one of the most delightful estates in the county of Surrey, viz., the Deepdene, near Dorkin, to which he annexed Chart Park, purchased from the devisees of the late Sir Charles Talbot, baronet. On the last-mentioned estate is a spacious mausoleum erected by Mr. Hope about thirteen years before his death, and capable of containing upwards of twenty bodies. Two of his sons, who died in their youth, are buried there. Mr. Hope died February 3, 1831.

HOPE, DR. JOHN, a celebrated professor of botany in the university of Edinburgh, who was born at Edinburgh on the 16th of May, 1725. After finishing the usual course of school education, he



entered the university of Edinburgh; but he obtained the degree of doctor of medicine from the university of Glasgow in the beginning of the year 1750. A few months after that he was admitted a member of the Royal College of Physicians in Edinburgh, and entered upon the practice of medicine in that city. After he had continued about ten years in practice, discharging the duties of his profession with a degree of judgment, attention, and humanity, which did him great honour, by the death of Dr. Alston the botanical chair in the university became vacant, when Dr. Hope, by a commission from his sovereign, dated the 13th of April, 1761, was appointed king's botanist for Scotland and superintendent of the royal garden at Edinburgh. A few weeks after this he was elected by the town-council of Edinburgh as the successor of Dr. Alston in the professorships both of botany and materia medica; and thus he became one of the members of the faculty of medicine in the university. After he had continued for about six years to give regular courses of lectures on these subjects, teaching the one branch during the summer, and the other during the winter months, he found that his health was considerably impaired, which induced him to form the resolution of resigning the materia medica, and of afterwards solely confining his labours as a teacher to his favourite science of botany. This resolution he carried into effect in the year 1768, and by a new commission from his majesty, dated the 8th of May, he was nominated regius professor of medicine and botany in the university, and had the offices of king's botanist and superintendent of the royal garden conferred upon him for life, which till that time had been always granted during pleasure only.

Dr. Hope's predecessor could never obtain sufficient public funds for the establishment of a proper botanic garden at Edinburgh; and from the situation as well as the extent of the garden at that time, joined to the smallness of its conservatories for plants, it could boast of no exotics of value. The only field for improvement, therefore, to the botanical student, was the environs of Edinburgh. In this situation the establishment of a new garden naturally suggested itself as a grand and important object, and it was accomplished by the zeal and industry of Dr. Hope, aided by the munificence of his sovereign. Dr. Hope's unwearied exertions in procuring for the garden the vegetable productions of every climate could not be exceeded. His endeavours were constantly directed in adding, not to the show, but to the riches of the garden; and they were employed with such success that in a very short time the intelligent botanist might gratify his curiosity in contemplating the rarest plants of every country which had then been explored. Nor were his industrious exertions more assiduously bestowed in forming and enriching the garden than in cherishing and promoting a zeal for botanical studies. From but a very small number of lectures, which were all that his predecessor ever gave, he gradually prolonged the course till it became as complete as any one delivered. But even such precept and such example were not the only means he employed for directing the attention of the industrious student to this branch of science. By bestowing on the university, at his own expense, an annual gold medal as a testimony of superior merit, he gave a spur to exertion, from which the toils of study were alleviated by the love of fame, and the la-

bours of industry converted into the pleasures of emulation.

Dr. Hope died in November 1786. He was a member not only of the Royal Society of London but also of several foreign societies; and at the time of his death he held the distinguished office of president of the Royal College of Physicians. Dr. Hope, with whom it was a principal object to make botany subservient to the acts more immediately useful to life, and particularly to medicine, was one of the first who, in conjunction with the late Sir Alexander Dick, turned his attention to the practical cultivation of rhubarb in Britain, and he demonstrated the facility with which it might be multiplied. He lived to see it cultivated in such abundance that the British market was no longer under any necessity of depending upon any foreign climates for this valuable and once expensive medicine.

HOPITAL, MICHAEL DE L', an eminent chancellor of France, who was born in 1505 at Aignepersé, in Auvergne. His father, who was physician and chief manager of the affairs of the constable of Bourbon, sent him to study jurisprudence in the most celebrated universities of France and Italy, where he also distinguished himself by his acquirements in polite literature. He quickly rose in his profession, and, after obtaining the office of counsellor of parliament, was sent ambassador by Henry II. to the council of Trent. In 1554 he was made superintendent of the royal finances, in which post, by his ability, economy, and integrity, he restored the exhausted treasury, and put an end to the dishonest practices and the unjust emoluments of a horde of rapacious court favourites, whose enmity he encountered with inflexible steadiness. On the death of Henry II. he was introduced by the Guises into the council of state, which post he gave up to accompany Margaret of Valois, duchess of Savoy, as her chancellor. The confusion which followed in France soon made it necessary to recall a minister of so much talent, and he was advanced to the post of chancellor. Although patronised by the house of Guise, and obliged to acquiesce in many things which he disapproved, to prevent a great deal that he disapproved still more, he never ceased to advocate toleration, and was the principal author of the edict of 1562, which allowed freedom of worship to Protestants. By this conduct he rendered himself exceedingly odious to the court of Rome, which sought in vain to remove him, until the court came to the sanguinary resolution of exterminating the reformed religion by violence. Finding himself regarded with suspicion and dislike, he anticipated his dismissal by a voluntary retreat to his country-house, where, a few days after, the seals were demanded from him, which he resigned without regret, observing, that the affairs of the world were becoming too corrupt for him to take a part in them. In lettered ease, the conversation of a few friends, and in the composition of Latin poetry, in which he took much pleasure, he enjoyed himself with great satisfaction until the atrocious day of St. Bartholomew in 1572. Upon this event his friends, fearing that he might be made one of its victims, urged him to take measures for his safety; but he not only disdained to seek concealment, but when a party of horsemen, whose motive was unknown, advanced towards his house, he refused to close his gates. They were in fact despatched by the queen with ex-



press orders to save him. On this occasion he was told that the persons who made the list of proscription pardoned him, when he coolly observed, "I did not know that I had done any thing to deserve either death or pardon." This excellent magistrate and truly great man survived that execrable event a few months only, dying on the 13th of March, 1573. Distinguished by that firmness of mind without which the greatest talents are often useless, no one was a more determined enemy to injustice; and the reform in legislation produced by him is regarded as at once highly honourable to his integrity and capacity, and of the greatest benefit to France.

HOPITAL, WILLIAM FRANCIS ANTHONY DE L', MARQUIS DE ST. MESME, a celebrated French mathematician of the seventeenth century. He was born in 1661, his father being a lieutenant-general in the army, and master of the horse to the duke of Orleans. After being educated at home under a private tutor, he entered into the army; but was obliged to quit the service on account of the imperfection of his sight. He then devoted himself exclusively to the study of mathematics. At the age of thirty-two he distinguished himself by solving problems proposed to the lovers of mathematics by James Bernoulli; and in 1693 he was admitted an honorary member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris. From that period he published, in the French and foreign journals, solutions of difficult questions, and other mathematical communications. Such was his reputation that Huygens, profound as was his acquaintance with science, did not disdain to apply to him for information relative to the nature of the differential calculus. This led to the publication of his treatise entitled "*Analyse des Infiniment Petits*," 1696, the first French work on the subject, of which a new edition was published by Lefevre (Paris, 1781, 4to.) The marquis de l'Hopital continued his researches with ardour till his death, which took place in 1704. Besides the works mentioned, he was the author of "*Les Sections Coniques, les Lieux Géométriques, la Construction des Equations*," and "*Une Théorie des Courbes Mécaniques*."

HOPKINS, EZEKIEL, a celebrated bishop of Derry in Ireland, who was the son of an obscure clergyman in Devonshire, and was for some time a chorister of Magdalen College, Oxford, and usher of the adjoining school. He was afterwards a Presbyterian minister, and was considered an excellent preacher. John, Lord Roberts, happening to hear him preach, was so pleased with his discourse that he retained him as his chaplain when he was sent as lord lieutenant into Ireland, and preferred him to the deanery of Raphoe; and, on his being recalled, so strongly recommended him to his successor that he was soon raised to the bishopric of Raphoe, from whence he was translated to Derry. During the war under the earl of Tyrconnel at the Revolution, he withdrew to England, and was chosen minister of St. Mary, Aldermanbury, in London, where he died in 1690. His sermons, his exposition of the ten commandments and that of the Lord's prayer, are much esteemed.

HOPPNER, JOHN, a clever painter and poet, who raised himself from a very humble rank by his talents and industry. He especially excelled in the art of portraiture, and his metrical translations from eastern and other poems have been much admired. Mr. Hoppner died in 1801.

HORAPOLLO, or HORUS APOLLO, a learned grammarian of Panaplus in Egypt, who first taught at Alexandria, and then at Constantinople under the reign of Theodosius. There are extant under his name, two books on the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians, which Aldus first published in Greek, in 1504, in folio, and they have often been published since with a Latin version and notes. It is not certain, however, that the grammarian of Alexandria was the author of these books, they being rather thought to belong to another Horapollo of more ancient date.

HORATII.—Three Roman brothers, who, under the reign of Tullus Hostilius, fought against the three Curiatii, who belonged to the Albanian army. Two of the Horatii were first killed, but the third, by his address, successively slew the three Curiatii, and by this victory rendered the city of Alba subject to the Romans.

HORATIUS, surnamed Cocles from his losing an eye in combat, was nephew to the consul Horatius Pulvillus, and descended from one of the three brothers who fought against the Curiatii. Porsenna, laying siege to Rome, drove the Romans from Janiculum, and pursued them to the wooden bridge over the Tiber, which joined the city to Janiculum. Largius, Herminius, and Horatius Cocles, sustained the shock of the enemy on the bridge, and prevented their entering the city with the Romans; but Largius and Herminius having passed the bridge, Horatius Cocles was left alone, and repulsed the enemy till the bridge was broken under him: he then threw himself armed into the Tiber, swam across the river, and entered Rome in triumph.

HORATIUS, QUINTUS FLACCUS, the most excellent of the Latin poets of the lyric and satirical kind, and the most judicious critic in the reign of Augustus, was the grandson of a freedman, and was born at Venusium 64 B. C. He had the best masters in Rome, after which he completed his education at Athens. Having taken up arms, he embraced the party of Brutus and Cassius, but left his shield at the battle of Philippi. Some time after he gave himself up entirely to the study of poetry, which in reality formed his main source of dependence for many years. The satires of Horace, among which may be included his epistles, since they differ little from the others except in their title, and in being addressed to an individual, have more or less a comic character, and are to be judged only in this point of view. Horace does not expose vices so much as follies, which he places in a ridiculous light: he sees more folly than vice in the world, and even declares himself not exempt from a portion of it. Nevertheless, he seeks to amend follies as far as possible, because he considers them pernicious. To prejudices and errors he opposes his philosophy, which, so far from embittering or even forbidding the enjoyments of life, only exhorts to a prudent vigilance, and teaches all the virtues without which happiness is impossible. The easy agreeable manner in which he philosophizes without appearing to do it, the salt with which he seasons his thoughts, the delicacy and ease with which he expresses himself, afford the most agreeable entertainment. We know not which most to admire,—his accurate knowledge of the human heart and of the different classes of men, his love of truth, candour, and ingenuousness, the agreeable tone, the urbanity which, in seriousness or derision, never forsakes him,

the delicacy with which he presents the ridiculous without bringing it out in bold relief,—or his skill in delineating characters. He seems not to hunt after follies, or, where he does this, his ridicule is not bitter, and is accompanied with so much good humour that the person ridiculed might laugh at the picture. His expression is easy and unaffected, and he manages the hexameter with such skill that he seems to tread the natural path of social conversation. His descriptions are still applicable and interesting, and the poet will therefore ever remain the favourite of those whose morality does not exclude the refinement of life. He composed, at the express command of Augustus, the secular ode for the festival of the centennial games. He died suddenly, in the year of Rome 746, and the ninth B. C., not long after the death of his patron and friend, Mæcenas, near whose tomb on the Esquiline he was interred. Among his earlier commentators are Acron, Porphyryon, and the scholiast of Cruquius; among his later editors and commentators, we will only mention Heinsius, Baxter, Bentley, Gesner, Zeune, Jani, and Francis. Wieland's translation of the epistles and satires of Horace contains illustrations of the genius of Horace and his age, and the peculiarities of his works.

HORNE, GEORGE, a learned divine, who was born in November 1730 at Otham in Kent. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1753 was ordained by the bishop of Oxford. Shortly after he became a convert to the mysticism of Hutchinson, which exposed him to considerable censure. Supported however by the learning and zeal of his friends, Mr. Watson of University College, Dr. Hodges, provost of Oriel, and Dr. Patten of Corpus, he ably defended his principles against the intemperate invectives to which their novelty exposed them. The principles of Mr. Hutchinson beginning to extend their influence in the university, in 1756 a bold attack was made upon them in an anonymous pamphlet, entitled "A Word to the Hutchinsonians." Mr. Horne, considering himself more particularly called upon for a defence as being personally aimed at in the animadversions, produced an "Apology," which has been universally admired for its temper, learning, and good sense. The question agitated seems rather to involve the very essence of religion than to concern Mr. Hutchinson or his principles. The pamphlet was attributed by the public in general, and Mr. Horne in particular, to Mr. Kennicott of Exeter College, a man who had distinguished himself by an accurate acquaintance with the Hebrew.

In 1776 Dr. Horne was elected vice-chancellor of the university of Oxford, which office he held for the period of four years. In this situation he became known to Lord North, the chancellor, and this, it is probable, prepared the way to his subsequent elevation. In 1781, the very year after the expiration of his office of vice-chancellor, he was made dean of Canterbury. In 1789, on the translation of Bishop Bagot to St. Asaph, Dr. Horne was advanced to the episcopal dignity, and succeeded him in the see of Norwich. Unhappily, though he was no more than fifty-nine, he had already begun to suffer much from infirmities. From two visits to Bath he had received sensible benefit, and was meditating a third in the autumn of 1791, which he had been requested not to delay too long. He did, however, delay it too long, and was visited by a paralytic stroke on the road to that place. He completed his journey, though very

ill, and for a short time was so far recovered as to walk daily to the pump-room; but the hopes of his friends and family were of short duration, as he died on the 17th of January, 1792, in the sixty-second year of his age.

HORNECK, OTTOCAR OF, one of the oldest German historians. He lived in the latter half of the thirteenth and the beginning of the fourteenth century, and his native country was Stiria, where his family castle, Horneck, is still to be found. He was instructed in the art of a minnesinger by Conrad of Rotenburg, and he died after the decline of the Hohenstaufen, when the golden age of chivalric poetry was past. After having been present at the battle of Weidenbach, and accompanied Rodolph of Hapsburg to Bohemia, he returned to his native country, which was delivered from the Bohemian yoke, and enjoyed the favour of the Stirian governor, Otho of Liechtenstein, who resided in the castle at Gratz. He employed his talents in writing and rhyming on historical subjects, for which the German prose was not yet adapted. About the year 1280 he composed a work on the great empires of the earth, which concluded with the death of the emperor Frederic II., and is still extant in manuscript at Vienna. Being encouraged to note down the important events of his own time, he wrote a chronicle, consisting of more than 83,000 verses, which the Benedictine friar Pez in 1745 published as the third folio volume of his "Scriptores Rerum Austriæ." It extends from the death of Manfred to the emperor Henry VII., and is therefore important as illustrative of the history of Rodolph and Ottocar, Adolphus of Nassau, and Albert of Austria. It is rich in remarkable events, which the author witnessed in portraits of eminent men whom he had known, and in descriptions of festivals, tournaments, and battles, at part of which he was himself present.

HORNER, FRANCIS, a distinguished financier and parliamentary orator, who was born at Edinburgh in 1778. He was educated in the university of that city, and after studying for the bar was elected member of parliament for St. Ives. In 1810 Mr. Horner entered on that part of his parliamentary career by which he afterwards obtained such a brilliant reputation—the relative state of our coin and exchanges. Accordingly, pursuant to notice, he moved for a variety of accounts and returns respecting the circulating medium and the bullion trade. He deprecated the idea of ascribing the difference between the relative value of these to the number of country banks, as these formed an essential part of our system of credit and currency, nor would he adopt another conclusion, that the cause must be referred wholly to an undue issue of notes by the bank of England. He did not presume however, as yet, to form a clear or confident conclusion upon the subject; his present conjecture was, that the high price of gold might be produced partly by a larger circulation of bank of England paper than was necessary, and partly by the new circumstances in which the bullion trade of this country was placed. But it was to arrive at a correct opinion that he wished the house to call for the information, and undertake the enquiry he meant to propose.

On May 10, 1810, when Alderman Combe made a motion, blaming the ministers for obstructing the address of the lord mayor, aldermen, and livery of London, to his majesty in person, it was seconded by



Sir William Curtis, and supported by Mr. Horner. The last of these gentlemen considered this as "a question of vital importance, respecting which the ministers had attempted to defend themselves by drawing the veil from the infirmities of their sovereign. It was the right of the livery of London, as it was of other subjects, to have access to his majesty's person, in the worst times; even in those of Charles II. this had not been refused. The most corrupt ministers, indeed, had no idea that it could ever be refused. How complete would have been their triumph if they had discovered the practice which of late had prevailed! The obstruction of petitions was a subversion of the fundamental law of the land."

On the debate on the state of the nation, December 20, 1810, in consequence of the king's illness, Mr. Horner delivered a long and able speech. He contended for making a regent by an address instead of a bill, "as the present proceedings exhibited an attempt to break down and confound all the boundaries of legislative authority as distributed among the three independent branches of parliament, to usurp the legislative power of the crown, and, by a gross and illegal fiction, to steal the semblance of an assent where there could be no negative, with the absurdity of affecting to sanction by the royal assent itself the remedy made necessary by the incapacity of the king to assent to any thing." Towards the conclusion of the same session of parliament, the House of Commons demonstrated its respect for the talents of Mr. Horner by unanimously nominating him a member of the bullion committee, the object of which was intimately connected, not only with our coin and our foreign commerce, but also with the balance of trade. We find his name at the head of this list; he also presided for some time as chairman, during the examination of the evidence, and actually drew up the first part of the report.

This subject, in consequence of various adjournments, occupied the House of Commons during four or five evenings, in the course of which Mr. Vansittart, Mr. Rose, Lord Castlereagh, &c., objected to the report. All these were ably replied to by Mr. Horner, who concluded as follows:—

"If there has been a departure from the old and constitutional mode of circulating the legal and substantial currency of the country, the charge of novelty is not imputable to that proposition that would go to restore it. A general rule in the great system of circulating medium has been avowedly violated. I admit, indeed, that that minister is wise and happy who knows when and how to deviate from a general rule, but I contend that there is still more wisdom and more felicity in knowing when and under what circumstances that general rule ought to be adhered to [hear!]; but that, above all, the cool trial of wisdom, the true test of fortune, is to know when to return after the success of an apparently justifiable deviation [hear!], although it is indeed difficult to resist the temptations of temporary expedients. I shall now conclude by reading a passage I met with this morning, preserved by the celebrated Sir Robert Cotton, and cited by him as an extract from a memorial of one of the greatest statesmen this country has produced; it is a remonstrance to Queen Elizabeth from her ablest minister, Lord Burleigh, when, at a time that Spain was aiming at universal monarchy

(how strange the vicissitudes of empires!), that monarch entertained the notion of making some experiments upon the national currency. The language is simple, but, in my mind, pregnant with wisdom: 'it is not by the ends of wit, or by the shifts of devices, that you can defray the expenses of the monarchy, but by sound and solid courses.'"

Meanwhile, the health of Mr. Horner declined apace. His deep researches, his continued studies, and his parliamentary efforts, had alike contributed to wear out and exhaust a constitution which was never very strong. At length, a pulmonary consumption was actually threatened, and a removal to a warmer air and a more cheerful climate was prescribed by his physicians. Accordingly, with no small share of reluctance, he at length complied with their advice, to which were superadded the tender injunctions of his family, and the kind and constant recommendations of his friends. Crossing therefore to the continent with all convenient speed, he passed through France, and not deeming even its southern provinces sufficiently warm, he entered Italy and continued there. The symptoms of the disorder, however, which was carried from England, and had preyed upon him for so long a period, increased to such a formidable degree that he was at length cut off at Pisa, on the 8th of February, 1817, at the age of thirty-eight.

HORNEMANN, FREDERIC CONRAD, a celebrated traveller, who was born in 1772 at Hildesheim, studied theology at Göttingen, and received an appointment in Hanover. An ardent desire to visit the interior of Africa induced him, in 1795, to request Blumenbach, the celebrated naturalist in Göttingen, to recommend him to the African Society in London. After having fully convinced himself of the great zeal and capacity of the young aspirant, Blumenbach wrote to Sir Joseph Banks, and Hornemann's proposal was accepted. He immediately drew up a plan, which he laid before the society, and devoted himself to natural history and the oriental languages with the greatest zeal. In February 1797 he was in London, where the society gave him their instructions; he then went by the way of Paris to Marseilles, where he embarked.

After having visited Cyprus, he landed at Alexandria, and remained some months in Cairo, to learn the language of the Maugrabins or Southern Arabians. When the landing of the French in Egypt became known, he, like all the other Europeans, was detained in the castle in order to save them from the rage of the people. General Bonaparte, being informed of Hornemann's plans, gave him passports, and showed a disposition to promote his objects in every way possible. On the 5th of September, 1799, Hornemann left Cairo with the caravan of Fezzan; on the 8th he entered the Lybian desert, reached Siouah on the 16th, an oasis already visited by Brown, and arrived, after a tedious journey of seventy-four days, at Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan. Here he staid some time, and made an excursion to Tripoli, which he left again on the 20th of January, 1800, and on the 12th of the following April he wrote that he was on the point of setting out with the great caravan of Bornou. From that time nothing certain was known of till 1818, when Von Zach, in his "Correspondence Astronomique," communicated a letter from the English Captain Smith, according to which Horne-



mann died on his return from Tripoli to Fezzan, of a fever, caused by drinking cold water, after being exposed to great fatigue, and lies buried at Aucas. His companion, the bey of Fezzan, assured the captain that he had sent Hornemann's papers to the British consul at Tripoli. Hornemann himself had sent his journal from Tripoli to England. It was written in German, and in 1802 the African Society published a translation of it. In the same year the original was published by Charles König. It contains much valuable information, with useful notes, by Rennel, Young, and Marsden.

**HORNSBY, THOMAS**, an English mathematician and astronomer, who was born in 1734. He held several high posts in the university of Oxford, and was also a member of the Royal Society of London, in whose Transactions he published many valuable papers; but he was principally distinguished in the literary world as the editor of the "Astronomical Observations made by Dr. Bradley at Greenwich," which were published in 1798. He died in 1818.

**HORROX, JEREMIAH**, a learned English astronomer, who was born about 1619, and educated at Cambridge. His death took place on the 3rd of January, 1641, only a few days after he had finished his treatise entitled "Venus in Sole Visa." Other productions of his pen, left in an imperfect state, were collected and published by Doctor Wallis, in 1673, under the title of "Opera Posthuma." Horrox seems to have been the first who ever predicted or observed the passage of Venus over the sun's disc, from which he deduced many useful observations, though not aware of the full advantages to be derived from an examination of that important phenomenon. His theory of lunar motions afforded assistance to Newton, who always spoke of Horrox as a mathematical genius of the highest order.

**HORSLEY, JOHN**, a learned English antiquary, who is best known for his work entitled "Britannia Romana." There is no record of his early life, and he appears to have died in 1732.

**HORSLEY, SAMUEL**, a learned dignitary of the church of England, who was born in London, October 1733, and received his education at Cambridge, where he took the degree of LL.B. in 1758. The same year he became curate to his father. In 1767 he was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society, and the same year he published an elaborate treatise, entitled the "Power of God, deduced from the Computable Instantaneous Production of it in the Solar System." In 1770 was printed, at the Clarendon press, his earliest mathematical publication—"Apollonii Pergæi Inclinationum Libri II." In November 1773 he was elected secretary to the Royal Society, and in 1774 he published "Remarks on the Observations made in the last Voyage towards the North Pole, for discovering the Acceleration of the Pendulum, in Latitude 79° 50', in a Letter to the Honourable C. J. Phipps." In 1776 he published proposals for a new edition of the works of Sir Isaac Newton, which was gradually completed in five volumes. He engaged warmly in the contest carried on in 1783 and 1784 with Sir Joseph Banks respecting his conduct as president of the Royal Society. About the same period he commenced a literary controversy with the great champion of Unitarianism, Dr. Priestley. Shortly after he was made bishop of St. David's. He showed himself the strenuous advocate for the existing state of things in religion and politics, and the

merit of his conduct will accordingly be differently appreciated. He certainly advocated with ability the cause he had adopted. He was promoted to the see of Rochester in 1793, and made dean of Westminster, and in 1802 he was translated to St. Asaph. He died in 1806. Bishop Horsley may at least claim the praise of consistency of conduct as an enemy of innovation; and he was probably honest and sincere, if not wholly disinterested, in his denunciations against religious and political heresy and heretics. Besides the works already noticed, he was the author of "Critical Disquisitions on the Eighteenth Chapter of Isaiah," "Hosea, a new Translation with Notes," a "Translation of the Psalms," "Biblical Criticisms," sermons, charges, elementary treatises on Mathematics, on the Prosodies of the Greek and Latin Languages, and papers in the "Philosophical Transactions."

**HORTENSIVS, QUINTUS**.—This celebrated orator held many military and civil offices, was consul 70 B.C., and was Cicero's colleague as augur. The faction of Clodius, which he opposed in common with Cicero, ill-treated him to such a degree that he narrowly escaped with his life. His death was occasioned by an immoderate effort in the delivery of a speech. He was rich, and loved luxury and splendour. He often opposed Cicero (for instance, as the defender of Verres), yet they were excellent friends. The ancients commend the eloquence of Hortensius as flowery, full of ornament, and approaching the Asiatic style. He was elegant and acute in the conception and distribution of his matter, and succeeded by sudden effect.

**HOSTE, JOHN**, a learned French mathematician, who flourished in the sixteenth century. He was for many years professor of civil and common law in the university of Pont-a-Mousson and afterwards became councillor of war under Henry duke of Lorraine. He died in 1631. Mr. Hoste was the author of several valuable works on astronomy and mathematics.

**HOUBRAKEN, JACOB**, a celebrated Dutch engraver, whose works are distinguished by softness and delicacy of execution, joined to good drawing, and an excellent taste. If his best performances have ever been surpassed by his own countrymen, it is in the masterly determination of the features, which we find in the works of Nanteuil, Edelinck, and Drevet, which gives an animation to the countenance, more easily to be felt than described. His works are numerous, and most of them being for English publications, they are well known in this country. He died at Amsterdam in 1780 in the eighty-second year of his age.

**HOUGH, JOHN**, an eminent English ecclesiastic, who was born in 1650, and received his education at Magdalen College, Oxford, of which he became a fellow in 1676. Shortly after he entered orders and was appointed domestic chaplain to the duke of Ormond, then lord lieutenant of Ireland, in whose suite he passed over to Dublin. The next year he returned with the same nobleman to England, and in 1685 was made a prebendary of Westminster, and presented to the living of Tempsford in Bedfordshire. He graduated as B.D. in 1687, and immediately after made his memorable stand against the arbitrary attempt of James to impose an unqualified president upon his college. By his example the fellows were encouraged to reject the mandamus of the king in favour of Anthony Farmer, who had not been fellow either of Magdalen or of New College, as required



by the statutes, and who was otherwise of very indifferent character. He proceeded farther, and as a statutable majority concurred in electing him president, he had the spirit to accept the office in defiance of the royal order. His election was regularly confirmed by the bishop of Winchester, visitor of the college, and in the same year he was admitted D.D. This bold step was the commencement of that clerical resistance to the tyrannical proceedings of James which materially contributed to bring about the Revolution; nor was the latter slow in showing his indignation. On the day after Dr. Hough had taken his degree of doctor, the king's ecclesiastical commissioners deprived him of the presidentship, and installed Dr. Parker, made bishop of Oxford (although a Catholic), by proxy, in his room. At the same time, the fellows, who refused to sign a submission to their new president, to the number of twenty-five, with Dr. Hough, were immediately expelled the college, and declared incapable of being admitted to any ecclesiastical dignity or benefice whatever.

In 1688, when the prince of Orange's declaration reached England, James found it necessary to retract all these illegal proceedings, in his encounter with which Dr. Hough had behaved with equal temper, prudence, and dignity, and to restore that courageous divine and the ejected fellows to their collegiate rights and privileges. Soon after the Revolution, Dr. Hough was made bishop of Oxford. In 1699 he was translated to the see of Lichfield and Coventry, and lastly, in 1717, to that of Worcester, which he held for twenty-six years, although of the age of sixty-seven when he took possession of it. Dr. Hough died in 1743.

HOULIERES, ANTONIETTE DE, a French poetess of considerable merit, who was born in Paris in 1638. The style of this lady is remarkably good, the thoughts and expressions are noble, and the language pure, flowing, and chaste. Mademoiselle des Houlières, her daughter, won the poetic prize in the French academy against Fontenelle. Both of these ladies were members of the academy of Ricovatri; the mother was also a member of the academy of Arles. Madame Houlières died at Paris in 1694, and her daughter in 1718. The works of these ladies were published collectively in 1747.

HOUTMANN, CORNELIUS, was born at Gouda in the middle of the sixteenth century, and is remarkable from having been the founder of the Dutch East India trade. Being obliged to spend some time in Lisbon, he made inquiries, from curiosity, respecting the trade with the Indies, which then exclusively enriched Portugal, and concerning the routes followed by the Portuguese. He soon became sensible of the great advantages which his countrymen might derive from this commerce, but all such inquiries being strictly forbidden to foreigners, Houtmann was suspected, imprisoned, and condemned to a large fine. Being unable to pay this, he offered to the merchants of Amsterdam to reveal every thing relating to the India trade if they would free him from his confinement. They accordingly ransomed him, and in 1594 he returned to his native country and performed his promise. The merchants then formed a company which they called the "company of remote parts," fitted out four vessels, and made Houtmann supercargo. The flotilla set sail on the 2nd of April, 1595, and arrived before Bantam in Java on the 23rd of June, 1596. They were

kindly received, but the Portuguese soon involved them in difficulties with the natives. They made many attempts upon the Indian islands, but were at last compelled to return, their forces being diminished to less than one-third of their original number. They arrived again on the 14th of August, 1597, in the harbour of Amsterdam. Although this expedition had brought but little profit, it was immediately determined to fit out another. After the example of Amsterdam, similar companies were formed in other parts of the United Provinces, and finally all united into an East India company, which destroyed the trade of the Portuguese, and drove them out of the East Indies, and which continued to monopolize the trade till the end of the eighteenth century.

Houtmann went again in 1598 to the East Indies, as commander of the second expedition, and was this time more successful. After he had visited Madagascar, the Maldives, and Cochín-China, he landed at Sumatra, where he was at first kindly received by the king, but was afterwards thrown into prison. The ships, which were already laden, returned home, and it was believed that Houtmann was dead. But on the 31st of December, 1600, he came with three sailors on board a Dutch ship lying off Acheen, and declared that he did not wish to escape, as he hoped to receive his freedom and to conclude with the king a treaty which would be advantageous to his countrymen. The king was really favourably disposed towards him, but yielded to the influence of the Portuguese, and sent Houtmann into the interior of the country, where he afterwards died. Many interesting accounts appeared of these first voyages of the Dutch, but they published nothing officially concerning their later voyages.

HOÜWALD, CHRISTOPHER ERNST VON, born November 1778, in the Lower Lusace. He studied at Halle, and afterwards devoted himself to the public service, and became eventually syndic of the margraviate of Lower Lusace. He is the author of many novels, tales, and poems, which are much esteemed as books for children. He is also the author of several dramas which are still performed.

HOVEDEN, ROGER DE, an English historian, who flourished in the reign of Henry II. He was born at York, and entering the church, was for some time professor of theology at Oxford. He was also a lawyer, and he is said to have served the king in the capacity of chaplain and in other confidential offices. After the death of Henry he applied himself to the compilation of English history, and wrote *Annals* in Latin, commencing at 731, the period at which Bede finished, and bringing down affairs to the third year of John, 1201. His style is defective, but he is highly esteemed for his diligence and fidelity, and, according to Leland, surpasses all the writers of his class who preceded him. Vossius asserts that he was author of a history of the Northumbrian kings, and of a life of Thomas à Becket. Such was his authority, that Edward I. caused a diligent search to be made in all the libraries for copies of Hoveden's *Annals*, in order to ascertain the homage due from the crown of Scotland.

HOW, WILLIAM, an early English botanist, who was born in London in 1619. He received his education at Merchant Tailors' school. With many scholars of that time he entered the royal army, and was promoted to the rank of captain in a troop of horse. Upon the decline of the king's affairs he prosecuted



his studies in physic, and began to practise. He died in September 1656, leaving behind him, as Wood says, "a choice library of books of his faculty, and the character of a noted herbalist." He published "*Phytologia Britannica, Natales exhibens Indigenarum Stirpium sponte emergentium.*"

HOWARD, JOHN.—This eminent philanthropist, who has justly been characterized as the "noblest of all the Howards," was born at Lower Clapton in 1727, and was educated among the Protestant dissenters, to which body his family belonged, and to which he adhered through life. His instructors, however, confined their attention to moral and religious tuition, as his literary attainments were very slight—a circumstance from which he afterwards found great inconvenience. On the death of his father he was bound apprentice to a wholesale grocer in the metropolis, but on the approach of his majority he purchased the remaining term of his indentures, and indulged his taste by making a tour in France and Italy. In 1756 Mr. Howard commenced a voyage to Lisbon, to view the effects of the recent earthquake which had destroyed that city. This was during a war with France, and the vessel in which he embarked being captured, he was consigned to a French prison. The hardships he suffered and witnessed previously to his release first roused his attention to the subject of his future very important researches. When he reached England he was induced to lay before the commissioners of the sick and hurt office the information he had gained, and his communication was well received. In 1758 he married the daughter of Edward Leeds, Esq., of Croxton in Cambridgeshire, and settled on his estate at Cardington in Bedfordshire, whence he subsequently removed to the neighbourhood of Lymington, in the New Forest. After a residence there of about four years he returned to Cardington, where he indulged the natural benevolence of his disposition in building cottages for the peasantry, establishing schools for gratuitous instruction, and other plans for the encouragement of industry among the lower orders. Horticulture at this time was his principal amusement, and he also made some experimental researches in natural philosophy, and communicated them to the Royal Society, of which he was a member. In 1763 he had the misfortune to lose his wife, who died after giving birth to a son. His usual pursuits, and the early education of this child, engaged his attention till 1773, when he served the office of sheriff for the county of Bedford. In applying to the necessary duties of this station the subject of prison discipline came under his notice; and finding that many abuses existed in the management of gaols, he resolved to devote his time to the investigation of the means of correcting them. With this view he visited personally most of the English county gaols and houses of correction, and in March 1774 he laid the result of his inquiries before the House of Commons, for which he received a vote of thanks.

Mr. Howard now entered upon a new field of philanthropical exertion, in which he discerned that much good was to be done; and with that steady ardour of temper which always led him to carry to the utmost perfection every scheme which he adopted, he resolved to devote his time and fortune to the improvement of this important part of civil polity. He accordingly, in 1773 and 1776, made two tours on the continent, and during their intervals travelled into Scotland and Ireland, and revisited all the counties of

England, solely employed, in all these places, in collecting every particular relative to the management of prisons. The fruit of these elaborate researches was given to the public in 1777, in a quarto volume, entitled "*The State of the Prisons in England and Wales, with Preliminary Observations, and an Account of some Foreign Prisons.*" It was dedicated to the House of Commons, and enriched with a number of illustrative plates. This expensive publication was in a manner presented by him to his country; for, besides a very liberal donation of copies to individuals, he insisted upon fixing so low a price upon those for sale that the purchaser received gratuitously at least the whole value of the plates; and this practice he followed in all his publications. As soon as it appeared, the world was astonished at the mass of valuable materials accumulated by a private unaided individual, through a course of prodigious labour, and at the constant hazard of life, in consequence of the infectious diseases prevalent in the scenes of his inquiries. The cool good sense and moderation of his narrative, contrasted with the enthusiastic ardour which must have impelled him to his undertaking, were not less admired; and he was immediately regarded as one of the extraordinary characters of the age, and the leader in all plans for ameliorating the condition of that wretched part of the community for whom he interested himself. He had no object more at heart than the correction of their vices, which he thought might be effected by gentle but strict discipline, accompanied with that degree of personal comfort which was compatible with confinement; and to this end the greater part of his observations were directed. The House of Commons, having laudably seconded his zeal by bringing in a bill for the establishment of houses of correction according to his ideas, he thought himself obliged to new exertions in order to give all possible perfection to this design. He therefore, in 1778, repeated his visit to the continent, in which he included Italy as well as the nearer countries. After his return in 1779 he made another complete survey of the prisons of England and Wales, and those of Scotland and Ireland. In these tours he comprehended another object of importance and humanity, that of hospitals. He every where observed, and carefully noted down, their structure and regulations, and procured plans and draughts where he thought they might suggest something useful for imitation. These researches furnished him with a large and interesting Appendix to his former work, printed in 1780. At the same time, he published an edition in large octavo of his "*State of the Prisons,*" containing the additional matter of his Appendix.

At this period Mr. Howard accepted the office of one of the three supervisors appointed by the act for establishing penitentiary houses. He made it an indispensable condition of his acceptance that his friend Dr. Fothergill should be one of his associates, and he resolved to take no salary for his labours. The death of Dr. Fothergill, and a difference in opinion, with the other supervisor, concerning the situation of the first of these buildings, caused him, in January 1781, to resign his office, but it was only to resume his far greater exertions in the same cause. In the course of that year he pursued his usual inquiries in a tour through the northern parts of Europe, comprising Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Poland; and he employed the next year in surveying the prisons of



England, and revisiting Scotland and Ireland. The Protestant charter-schools in the latter kingdom were a new object of attention, and he freely exposed the abuses to which they had been subjected. The year 1783 completed his survey of all the civilized parts of Europe, with that of Spain and Portugal. Materials had now accumulated upon his hands sufficient for another "Appendix," which he printed in 1784, together with a new edition of his first work, comprising all the additional matter.

Though Mr. Howard had now almost exhausted the objects which first engaged his researches, yet the habits he had acquired would not suffer him to resign himself to repose while anything remained in which he thought his further labours might serve the interests of humanity. The progress of contagion in prisons and hospitals had led him to consider of all the means used for checking it, and he expected to find these practised in their fullest extent in the prevention of that most fatal contagious disease, the plague. He also knew that the regulations for quarantine in this country were frivolous and usually evaded. He therefore thought an examination of all the principal lazarettos in Europe would produce much valuable information; and as personal hazard never, in his estimation, stood in competition with a matter of duty, he did not hesitate to expose himself to all the dangers which might attend on so near an approach to the most dreadful pestilence.

Mr. Howard set out on this new expedition towards the end of 1785, unaccompanied by a servant, since he did not think it justifiable to expose to similar dangers any one not actuated by the same motives. He took his way by the south of France, through Italy, to Malta, Zante, Smyrna, and Constantinople. From the latter capital he returned to Smyrna, where he knew the plague then to prevail, for the purpose of going to Venice with a foul bill of health that he might be subjected to all the rigour of a quarantine in the lazaretto, and by consequence become acquainted with its rules. How the noisy deeds of military heroes shrink into nothing compared with such cool and deliberate daring! On his return by Vienna, the emperor Joseph expressed a desire of seeing him, for Mr. Howard was now a known and respected character throughout Europe. The interview passed as between an enlightened sovereign, desirous of information, and a plain independent gentleman, above the awe of rank or the vanity of being noticed. During his absence on this journey, the admiration of his countrymen suggested a design of doing him honour, which proved highly oppressive to his feelings. A subscription was entered into for the purpose of erecting a statue, and it was soon filled with names of the first distinction. As soon as he was informed of the scheme, he expressed such a decided aversion to what he termed being "dragged out in public," that it was reluctantly abandoned. He returned in 1787, and, after a short rest went to Ireland, and came back by Scotland. He revisited Ireland in 1788, chiefly for the purpose of completing a survey of its charter-schools, to which he had excited the attention of the parliament of that kingdom. All the county gaols, most of the bridewells, the infirmaries, and hospitals, and the prison-hulks of England, were again examined by him during the course of these two years. The year 1789 was chiefly devoted by him to the methodising and printing the copious and important matter which

had accrued from his researches since his last publication. It appeared in that year in a quarto volume, entitled "An Account of the Principal Lazarettos in Europe, with various papers relative to the plague; together with further observations on some foreign prisons and hospitals; with additional remarks on the present state of those in Great Britain and Ireland." It was accompanied with many plates, illustrative and ornamental, which, as before, were given to the readers. This work opened several new sources of information to the author's countrymen, and was received with avidity.

Mr. Howard quitted England in the summer of 1789, and proceeded through Germany to St. Petersburg and Moscow. He found every where the prisons and hospitals thrown open to him as to the general censor of that part of the police, whose authority was recognised in every civilized country. Such is the force of pure and exalted virtue! He next proceeded to the new Russian settlements on the Black Sea, and took his station at the town of Cherson. At this place a fever of a malignant kind prevailed, among whose victims was a young lady whom he had been requested to visit; for he had been so conversant with infectious diseases that he was thought (and thought himself) to possess medical skill in those cases. From her he probably received a contagion which carried him off on January 20, 1790, about the age of sixty-three. He was buried in the neighbourhood of Cherson, and all honours were paid to his memory by Prince Potemkin and other men in office.



The house in which Mr. Howard was born, a sketch of which is given in the above woodcut, was situated nearly opposite to Hackney school. It was the country residence of his father, who left it to his son, who sold it in 1785 to a London merchant. This house, which was so interesting from its having been the birth-place of Mr. Howard, was taken down a few years back.

The character of this great philanthropist was perhaps never better described than in a speech made at Bristol by Mr. Burke previous to the election of 1780. He says, when speaking of Mr. Howard, "I cannot name this gentleman without remarking that his labours and writings have done much to open the eyes and hearts of mankind. He has visited all Europe—not to survey the sumptuousness of palaces, or the stateliness of temples,—not to make accurate measurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form a scale of the curiosity of modern art,—not to collect medals or collate manuscripts, but to dive into the depths of dungeons,—to plunge into the infection of hospitals,—to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain,

—to take the gauge and dimensions of misery, depression, and contempt,—to remember the forgotten, to attend to the neglected,—to visit the forsaken, and to compass and collate the distresses of all men in all countries. His plan is original, and it is as full of genius as it is of humanity. It was a voyage of discovery—a circumnavigation of charity: already the benefit of his labour is felt, more or less, in every country. I hope he will anticipate his final reward by seeing all its effects fully realized in his own. He will receive, not by retail, but in gross, the reward of those who visit the prisoner; and he has so forestalled and monopolized this branch of charity that there will be, I trust, little room to merit by such acts of benevolence hereafter."

The testimony of public respect which he refused when living was afterwards conferred upon his memory, and a monumental statue was erected in St. Paul's cathedral almost immediately after his decease.



HOWARD, SIR ROBERT, an eminent English writer, who was born in January 1626, and educated at Magdalen College, Cambridge. During the civil war he suffered with his family, who adhered to Charles I., but at the Restoration was made a knight, and chosen as a member of parliament for Stockbridge in 1661. In 1669 he was chosen to serve in parliament for Castle Rising in Norfolk, and re-elected for the same place in 1688. He was a strong advocate for the Revolution, and became so passionate an abhorrer of the nonjurors that he disclaimed all manner of conversation and intercourse with persons of that description. His obstinacy and pride procured him many enemies, and among them the duke of Buckingham; who intended to have exposed him under the name of Bilboa in the "Rehearsal," but afterwards altered his resolution. He was so extremely positive and so sure of being in the right

upon every subject, that Shadwell the poet, though a man of the same principles, could not help ridiculing him in his comedy of the "Sullen Lovers," under the character of Sir Positive At-all. In the same play there is a lady Vaine, a courtesan, which the wits then understood to be the mistress of Sir Robert whom he afterwards married. Sir Robert Howard died in 1698. He was the author of a great number of good works, among which we may enumerate his "History of the Reigns of Edward and Richard II., with reflections and characters of their chief ministers and favourites; also a comparison of these princes with Edward I. and III.," "The History of Religion," "The Fourth Book of Virgil, translated," and "Statius's Achilleid translated."

HOWARD, HENRY, earl of Surry. This nobleman, who was eminent both as a poet and soldier, was born probably about the year 1520, and educated in Windsor Castle with young Fitzroy earl of Richmond, natural son to King Henry VIII. Wood says, from tradition, that he was some time a student at Cardinal College, Oxford. In his youth he became enamoured of the fair Geraldine, whom his sonnets have immortalized. In 1532 Howard, with his companion Richmond, was at Paris, where they continued some time. The latter died in 1536, after which Henry Howard made a tour to Italy, and at Florence, like a true *enamorado*, published a challenge against all comers, whether Christians, Jews, Saracens, Turks, or Cannibals, in defence of the beauty of his fair Geraldine, and was victorious in the tournament instituted by the grand duke on the occasion. The duke, we are told, was so pleased with his gallant exploits that he wished to have retained him at his court, but he rejected the invitation, being determined to maintain the superlative beauty of the fair Geraldine in all the principal cities in Italy. This romantic resolution was however frustrated by the command of his sovereign, Henry VIII., to return to England.

In 1540 he signalized himself in a tournament at Westminster, against Sir John Dudley, Sir Thomas Seymour, and others. In 1542 he marched under the command of his father against the Scots, and in the same year was confined in Windsor Castle for eating flesh in Lent contrary to the king's proclamation. In 1544, on the expedition to Boulogne in France, he was appointed field-marshal of the English army, and after the taking of that town in 1546 made captain-general of the king's forces in France. He was at this time knight of the Garter. In the same year, attempting to intercept a convoy, he was defeated by the French, and soon after superseded in his command by the earl of Hertford.

Surry, after his return to England, conscious of his former services and irritable under his disgrace, passed some unwise reflections on the king and council. This was his first step towards destruction. He had married Frances the daughter of John earl of Oxford, and after her death is said to have paid his addresses to the princess Mary. For this the Seymours, rivals of the Norfolk family, and now in favour with the king, accused him of aspiring to the crown; adding that he already presumed to quarter part of the royal arms with his own: but, whatever might be the pretence, the cause of his ruin was the jealousy and power of his enemies. In short, the destruction of the Howards being determined, Surry and his father, the duke of Norfolk, were committed



to the Tower in December 1546, and on the 13th of January following Surry was tried at Guildhall by a common jury, and beheaded on Tower Hill on the 19th day of the same month, nine days before the death of the king; who thus, that the measure of his crimes might be full, finished his life with the murder of his best subject.

With respect to the character of this unfortunate nobleman we cannot do better than quote the words of Walpole, who commences his anecdotes of Surry with these words:—"We now emerge from the twilight of learning to an almost classic author, that ornament of a boisterous, yet not unpolished court, the earl of Surry, celebrated by Drayton, Dryden, Fenton, Pope, illustrated by his own muse, and lamented for his unhappy death: a man (as Sir Walter Raleigh says) no less valiant than learned, and of excellent hopes." Leland calls him the conscript enrolled heir of Sir Thomas Wyatt, the elder in his learning and other excellent qualities; and the author of "The Art of English Poetry" says that the earl of Surry and Sir Thomas Wyatt may be justly called the reformers of our poetry and style.

HOWARD, CHARLES, an able statesman and experienced seaman, who was the son of Lord William Howard, baron of Effingham, and born in 1536. He served under his father, who was lord high admiral of England till the accession of Queen Elizabeth. In January 1573 he succeeded his father in his title and estate, after which he successively became chamberlain of the household and knight of the Garter, and in 1585 was made lord high admiral, at the time when the Spaniards were sending their Armada to conquer this kingdom. When he received intelligence of the approach of the Spanish fleet, and saw the great consequence it was to get out the few ships that were ready at Plymouth, he not only gave orders in every thing himself, but worked with his own hands, and the first night left the port with several ships. The next morning, though he had only thirty sail, and those the smallest of the fleet, he attacked the Spanish navy; but first despatched his brother-in-law, Sir Edward Hobby, to the queen to desire her to make the proper disposition of her land forces for the security of the coast, and to hasten as many ships as possible to his assistance. His valour was displayed in his repeated attacks of a superior enemy. The queen expressed her sense of his merit in the most honourable terms, and granted him a pension for life. In 1596 he commanded in chief at sea, as Essex did by land, the forces sent against Spain, when his prudence and moderation were among the principal causes of the success the English met with in that great and glorious enterprise; so that upon his return next year he was advanced to the dignity of earl of Nottingham. The next eminent service in which his lordship was engaged was in 1599, when the Spaniards seemed to meditate a new invasion. Her majesty drew together a powerful fleet and army, and gave the earl the sole and supreme command of both the fleet and army, with the title of lord lieutenant general of all England, an office unknown in after-times. When age and infirmity had unfitted him for action, he resigned his office, and spent the remaining part of his life in ease and retirement, till the time of his decease, which happened in 1624, in the eighty-seventh year of his age.

HOWARD, THOMAS, duke of Norfolk, an eminent statesman and warrior, who lived in the

reign of Henry VIII. He was born about 1473, and was grandson of the first duke of the Howard family, who lost his life at the battle of Bosworth, fighting for Richard III. His father, who was also in arms on that occasion, was restored by Henry VII. to his title and estates, which he had forfeited. The son was made a knight of the Garter soon after the accession of Henry VIII., and he obtained early distinction by his talents both as a naval and military commander. In 1513 he became high-admiral of England, and the same year he commanded with his father at the battle of Flodden, in which James IV., king of Scotland, was defeated and slain. For their services on this occasion the father was made duke of Norfolk and the son earl of Surry; the latter was sent to Ireland as lord-lieutenant in 1521, where he suppressed a dangerous insurrection under O'Neal. His father dying in 1524 he succeeded to the dukedom, and he afterwards became a leading member of the king's council, and was considered as the head of the Roman Catholic party, though he acted with so much prudence as to retain the favour of his capricious sovereign till near the close of his long reign. In 1536 he was employed against the Catholic insurgents in the north of England, and in 1542 against the Scots. In 1544 he went to France with the king in a hostile expedition and commanded at the siege of Montreuil. All his services, however, could not secure him from the suspicious jealousy of Henry, who on slight grounds had condemned him to suffer the death of a traitor on the 29th of January, 1547. The king's death the preceding night procured him a respite; but he was detained a prisoner in the Tower during the reign of Edward VI. He was released and reinstated in his rank and property on the accession of Queen Mary, and he sat as high-steward on the trial of the duke of Northumberland. He died in August 1554.

HOWE, RICHARD, EARL OF.—This distinguished naval commander, whose victories have spread a splendid halo over our modern naval affairs, was born in 1725. He was educated at Eton. His strong predilection for the sea induced his father to place him at the age of fourteen in quality of a midshipman on board the *Severn*, in which ship he sailed with Anson for the Pacific, and continued going through the usual gradations of the service under that admiral till 1745, when, though only twenty years of age, he obtained the command of the *Baltimore* sloop of war. In this vessel he behaved with such gallantry in an action with two French ships laden with supplies for the service of the pretender, whom he beat off with considerable loss, that his immediate promotion to the rank of post-captain was the consequence. In 1758 and the following year, while in the *Magnanime*, under Admiral Sir E. Hawke, he distinguished himself by his exertions against the Isle of Aix, St. Maloes, Cherbourg, &c. He was afterwards present at the unfortunate affair of St. Cas, where he exposed his own person with great coolness, and by his courage and conduct succeeded in bringing off many of the wounded, who must otherwise have perished. The same year he took a prominent part in the fight with *Conflans*, and did much towards the victory of the day. His elder brother having been killed in America, in 1758 he succeeded to the family title and estates, but continued to follow his profession. In 1760 he was raised to the rank of colonel of marines, and three years after-

wards he obtained a seat at the board of admiralty, which situation he resigned in 1765, when he was made treasurer of the navy. In 1770 he sailed as commander-in-chief to the Mediterranean with the rank of rear-admiral of the blue, from which step he proceeded in due gradation to those of rear-admiral of the white, and vice-admiral of the blue.

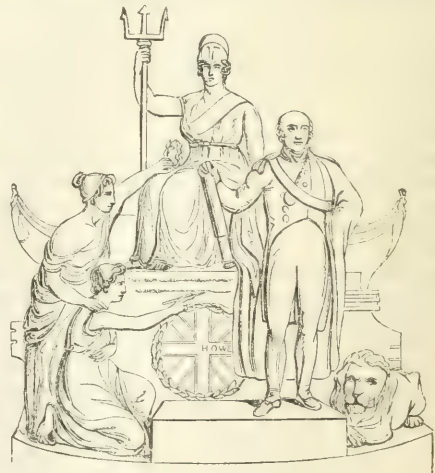
In 1782 Lord Howe was raised to the dignity of a viscount of Great Britain, having been previously advanced to the rank of admiral of the blue. He was then appointed to command the fleet fitted out for the relief of Gibraltar, and he fulfilled the important objects of this expedition. That fortress was effectually relieved, the hostile fleet baffled, and dared in vain to battle, and different squadrons detached to their important destinations, while the ardent hopes of his country's foes were disappointed. Peace was concluded shortly after Lord Howe's return from performing this important service, and in January 1783 he was nominated first lord of the admiralty. That office, in the succeeding April, he resigned to Lord Keppel, but was re-appointed on the 30th of December in the same year. On the 24th of September, 1787, he was advanced to the rank of admiral of the white, and in July 1788 he finally quitted his station at the admiralty. In the following August he was created an earl of Great Britain.

But the greatest glory of Lord Howe's life was reserved almost to its close. On the breaking out of the revolutionary war in 1793, he accepted the command of the western squadron. Three powerful armaments were prepared for the campaign of 1794; one under Lord Hood commanded the Mediterranean, reduced the island of Corsica, and protected the coasts of Spain and Italy; a second under Sir John Jervis, afterwards Lord St. Vincent, with a military force headed by Sir Charles Grey, reduced Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, and St. Domingo; but the most illustrious monument of British naval glory was raised by Earl Howe. During the preceding part of the war, France, conscious of her maritime inferiority, had confined her exertions to cruizers and small squadrons for harassing our trade; but in the month of May the French were induced to depart from this system, and being very anxious for the safety of a convoy daily expected from America, with an immense supply of corn and flour, naval stores, &c., the Brest fleet, amounting to twenty-seven sail of the line, ventured to sea under the command of Rear-admiral Villaret. Lord Howe, expecting the same convoy, went to sea with twenty ships of the line, and on the 28th of May descried the enemy to windward. After various previous manœuvres which had been interrupted by a thick fog, the admiral found an opportunity of bringing the French to battle on June 1st.

The action partially commenced two days before, but on the morning of this eventful day Lord Howe gave orders for steering the Royal Charlotte alongside the French admiral, which was effected at nine o'clock in the morning; and while some of the English commanders penetrated the line of battle and engaged to leeward, others occupied such stations as allowed them to combat with their antagonists to windward. So close and severe was the contest, that the fate of the day depended but little either on the exertion of nautical knowledge, or the exhibition of that scientific skill which subjects the management of artillery to the rules of tactics; all was hard fighting. Such was the tremendous fire, and so decisive the advan-

tage on the part of the British, that in about fifty minutes after the action had commenced in the centre, Admiral Villaret-Joyeuse determined to relinquish the contest, for he now perceived several of his ships dismasted, and one of seventy-four guns about to sink. He at the same time discovered that six were captured. Great slaughter had also taken place on board his own ship. His captain and a large portion of his crew had been killed, while the national commissioner, with most of his officers, was wounded. He accordingly crowded all the canvass he could set, and was immediately followed by most of the ships in the van that were not completely crippled; two or three of these, although dismantled, managed to get away soon after under temporary sail, for the enemy had, as usual, chiefly aimed at the rigging, and the victors were by this time disabled from pursuing the vanquished; the Queen Charlotte, in particular, was nearly unmanageable, having lost her fore-topmast in action; this was soon after followed by the main-topmast, which fell over the side; while the Brunswick, with the loss of her mizen-mast, and the Queen, also disabled, drifted to leeward, and were exposed to considerable danger from the retreating fleet. Two eighty and five seventy-four gun ships, however, still remained in possession of the British. The victorious ships arrived safe in harbour with their prizes, and the crews, officers, and admiral, were received with every testimony of national gratitude. On the 26th of the same month their majesties, with three of the princesses, arrived at Portsmouth, and proceeded the next morning in barges to visit Lord Howe's ship, the Queen Charlotte, at Spithead. His majesty held a naval levée on board, and presented the victorious admiral with a sword enriched with diamonds, and a gold chain with the naval medal suspended from it. The thanks of both houses of parliament, the freedom of the city of London, and the universal acclamations of the nation, followed the acknowledgments of the sovereign.

In the course of the following year he was appointed general of marines on the death of Admiral Forbes, and finally resigned the command of the western squadron in April 1797. On the 2nd of June



in the same year he was invested with the insignia of the Garter. The last public act of a life employed against the foreign enemies of his country, was ex-



erted to compose its internal dissensions. It was the lot of Earl Howe to contribute to the restoration of the fleet, which he had conducted to glory on the sea, to loyalty in the harbour. His experience suggested the measures to be pursued by government on the alarming mutinies which in 1797 distressed and terrified the nation; while his personal exertions powerfully promoted the dispersion of that spirit which had for a time changed the very nature of British seamen, and greatly helped to recal them to their former career of duty and obedience. This gallant officer, who gained the first of the four great naval victories which have raised the reputation of the British navy beyond all precedent and all comparison, died at his house in Grafton Street, London, of the gout in his stomach, August 5, 1799. A splendid monument has since been erected to the memory of Earl Howe in St. Paul's cathedral, which is delineated in the previous column.

HOWE, JOSIAH, a learned English divine, who was a native of Crendon in Buckinghamshire. He received his education at Oxford, and obtained a fellowship at Trinity College in that university in 1637. Seven years afterwards he delivered a sermon there before Charles I. The ruin of the royal cause proved as fatal to his pecuniary resources as to those of many of his brethren, and he was ejected by the parliamentary sequestrators from his fellowship; but, surviving the restoration of monarchy, once more became possessed of his preferment, and died in the enjoyment of it in 1701. Several short poems of his are extant, especially those prefixed to the works of Beaumont and Fletcher.

HOWE, JOHN, a learned English nonconformist divine, born in 1640. He became minister of Great Torrington in Devonshire, and was appointed household chaplain to Cromwell, but seems to have been free from the fanaticism then in fashion, as he offended Cromwell greatly by preaching against the notion of particular faith, which the ministers of his court were great advocates for. When Oliver died, he continued chaplain to Richard, and when Richard was deposed he returned to Torrington, where he continued till the act of uniformity took place. He afterwards settled at Utrecht until the declaration for liberty of conscience was published by King James II., under shelter of which he returned to London, where he died in 1705.

HOWEL, JAMES, an author of considerable talent, who was born in Carmarthenshire in 1596, and educated at Jesus College, Oxford. After having spent some time on the continent, he returned to England and was elected M. P. for Richmond in Yorkshire. Three years after this he went to Denmark as secretary to the English ambassador. In 1640 he obtained the post of clerk of the council, but the rupture between the king and the parliament prevented him long retaining this appointment, and he was in consequence of his attachment to the royal cause arrested and thrown into the Fleet Prison, where he remained till after the death of the king. On the restoration of Charles II. he was appointed royal historiographer to the king, being the first who ever held that office in this country. His principal works are his "Londinopolis, or Perustration of the City of London," and his "Donoda's Grove."

HOWEL, LAWRENCE, a nonjuring divine, who was educated at Jesus College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1688. After having been a schoolmaster

at Epping in Essex, he received ordination among the nonjurors. He was a man of considerable learning, as appears from the works which he published, amongst which we may particularly enumerate "Synopsis Canonum SS. Apostolorum," "Synopsis Canonum Ecclesiæ Latinæ," 1710, and a "History of the Bible," with engravings by Stuart, published in 1716. But Mr. Howel is chiefly memorable on account of his having had the imprudence to print in 1716 a pamphlet, entitled "The Case of Schism in the Church of England." On account of the sentiments contained in this work he was tried at the Old Bailey, and being convicted of sedition, he was sentenced to be degraded from his clerical office, to pay a fine of 500*l.*, and to be twice whipped. The latter part of the sentence was remitted by the king in consideration of the clerical character of the culprit, but the remainder of his doom was rigidly executed, as he was stripped of his gown in open court, and, being unable to pay the fine, he was detained in Newgate till his death, which took place July 19, 1720.

HUARTE, JUAN, the only Spanish philosopher who is much distinguished beyond the limits of his own country. Nothing is known of his life, except that from the title-page of his works it appears that he was born at San Juan del Pie del Puerto, in Navarre. Some have therefore called him a Frenchman, but as Ferdinand the Catholic had taken possession of Navarre, and driven out King Jean d'Albert, Huarte may have been the son of Spaniards who had settled there. He is known to have been living about 1580, and to have been dead in 1590. In the preface to his work he says that no one ought to write before the age of thirty-one, and every prudent man will lay down his pen when fifty years old. His work is entitled "Examen de Ingenios para las Ciencias," &c., or an examination of such geniuses as are born fit for acquiring the sciences, "wherein, by marvelous and useful secrets drawn from true philosophy, both natural and divine, are shown the gifts and different abilities found in man, and for what kind of study the genius of every man is adapted, in such a manner that whoever shall read this book attentively will discover the properties of his own genius and be able to make choice of that science in which he will make the greatest improvement." This work has been translated into our own language by Carew and Bellamy, under the title of the "Tryal of Wits." The work is full of practical wisdom, and continues to be in great esteem with the Spaniards; and Don Vicente de los Rios, the author of the "Vida de Miguel de Cervantes," calls Huarte *nuestro sabio Filosofo*.

HUBER, FRANCIS, a naturalist, who was born in 1750 at Geneva. Having lost his way in a winter night, he was so blinded with snow and pinched with cold as to be deprived irrecoverably of his sight, which was previously weak, notwithstanding which the lady whom he loved gave him her hand; and her aid, with that of a young man named Burnens, who was employed in his service as reader and amanuensis, enabled him to make such great progress in his studies. In 1796 appeared, in the form of letters, his "Nouvelles Observations sur les Abeilles." In his "Memoire sur l'Influence de l'Air et de Diverses Substances Gazeuses dans la Germination de Différentes Plantes," he relates the observations which he made in company with Senebier. Huber was also

intimately connected with Charles Bonstetten. His assistant Burnens having become one of the magistrates of the district, Huber instructed his own son in the natural sciences. This son afterwards made some observations on ants, which have been printed under the title "*Essai sur l'Histoire et les Mœurs des Fourmis Indigènes.*" Huber was also the name of several other authors of celebrity, among whom we may enumerate Mary Huber, a female writer who was born in 1694 at Geneva, and died in 1759 at Lyons. She was a deistical writer, and her principal work, entitled "*Lettres sur la Religion de l'Homme,*" was translated into English and German.—John James Huber, born in 1668, and died in 1738, a painter, whom Fussli, in his "*History of Swiss Painters,*" calls the Swiss Tintoretto.—Michael Huber, who was born in 1727 in Bavaria, and died in 1804, was professor of the French language in Leipsic, and translated several German works into French, which did much towards making the two nations better acquainted with each other; and Theresa Huber, who was born in 1764 at Gottingen. She was the daughter of the celebrated philologist Heyne, and married Louis Ferdinand Huber. She is a popular German author, and wrote several novels during her husband's life, which were published under his name. She also edited for some time the well-known "*Morgenblatt.*"

HUBERT, SAINT, a saint of the Roman Catholic church, the patron of huntsmen. The legend says that he was the son of Bertrand duke of Guienne, at the court of Pepin d'Heristal, and a keen hunter, and that being once engaged in the chase on Good Friday, in the forest of Ardennes, a stag appeared to him having a shining crucifix between its antlers, and he heard a warning voice. He was converted, entered the church, and became a zealous disciple of Bishop Lambert, whom he succeeded as bishop of Maestricht and Liege. He worked many miracles, and is said to have died in 727 or 730. His body was placed in the Benedictine convent of Andain, in the Ardennes, which received the name St. Hubert's of Ardennes. It is celebrated for St. Hubert's key, given him by St. Peter, which is said to cure the hydrophobia, &c.

HUBNER, JOHN, a German scholar, who rendered important services in geography. He was born in 1668, and taught history and geography at the university of Leipsic. His "*Short Questions from Ancient and Modern Geography*" went through thirty editions during his life, and was translated into several languages. He invented the plan of colouring maps methodically. He published many works, among others "*Das Reale Staats-, Zeitungs- und Conversations Lexicon.*" His son revised, continued, and edited anew several of his works; for instance, the "*Museum Geographicum,*"—an enumeration of the best maps. He died in 1731.

HUDESFORD, WILLIAM, a learned English scholar, who was born early in the eighteenth century. He was made keeper of the Ashmolean museum, which he held till his death in 1772. He published "*Martini Listeri Historia, sive Synopsis Conchyliorum, et Tabulæ Anatomica,*" edit. alt. Oxon. 1770, and the "*Lives of those Eminent Antiquaries, Leland, Hearne, and Wood.*"

HUDESFORD, GEORGE, a burlesque English poet, who flourished in the latter part of the last century, some of whose works attracted a good deal of notice, and displayed much originality of manner.

We may enumerate two of which the titles will serve as specimens of the rest:—"Topsy-Turvy; Anecdotes and Observations Illustrative of the Leading Characters of the Present Government of France;" "Poems, including Salmagundi, Topsy-Turvy, Bubble and Squeak, and Crambe Repetita."

HUDSON, HENRY.—This distinguished English naval discoverer sailed from London in the year 1607 in a small vessel, for the purpose of discovering a north-east passage to China and Japan, with a crew of only ten men and a boy besides himself, and, proceeding beyond the eightieth degree of latitude, returned to England in September. In a second voyage, the next year, he landed at Nova Zembla, but could proceed no farther eastward. In 1609 he undertook a third voyage under the patronage of the Dutch East India Company. Being unsuccessful in his attempts to find a north-east passage, he sailed for Davis's Straits, but struck the continent of America in 44° N. lat., and, holding a southerly course, discovered the mouth of the river Hudson, which he ascended about fifty leagues in a boat. His last voyage was undertaken in 1610. He sailed in a bark named the *Discovery*, and came within sight of Greenland, June 4. Proceeding westward he reached in latitude 60° the strait bearing his name. Through this he advanced along the coast of Labrador, to which he gave the name of Nova Britannia, until it issued into the vast bay, which is also called after him. He resolved to winter in the most southern part of it, and the crew drew up the ship in a small creek, and endeavoured to sustain the severity of that dismal climate, in which attempt they endured extreme privations. Hudson, however, fitted up his shallop for further discoveries, but not being able to establish any communication with the natives, or to re-victual his ship, with tears in his eyes he distributed his little remaining bread to his men and prepared to return. Having a dissatisfied and mutinous crew, he imprudently uttered some threats of setting some of them on shore, which menaces induced a body of them to enter his cabin at night, when they tied his arms behind him, and put him in his own shallop at the west end of the straits, with his son, John Hudson, and seven of the most infirm of the crew. They then turned them adrift, when it is supposed that they all perished, as they were never more heard of. A small part of the crew, after enduring incredible hardships, arrived at Plymouth in September 1611.

HUDSON, JOHN.—This learned scholar was born in 1662, and educated at Oxford. He distinguished himself as editor of several of the Greek and Roman classics, whose works he illustrated with his own notes, and those of preceding critics. His editions are esteemed for their correctness and elegance, particularly Thucydides' "*Geographiæ Veteris Scriptorum Græci Minores,*" and "*Josephi Opera;*" the last was a posthumous publication. Dr. Hudson, who, though in holy orders, never held any church preferment, died at St. Mary Hall, November 27, 1719. He enjoyed high reputation as a classical scholar, both at home and abroad, and held an extensive correspondence with several learned foreigners.

HUDSON, THOMAS.—This clever English portrait painter is best known as the predecessor and teacher of Sir Joshua Reynolds. He was born in 1701, and studied portrait-painting under Richard-



son, whose daughter he married, and settled in London, where he speedily acquired great reputation in his profession. He died in 1779.

HUDSON, WILLIAM, a clever English botanist, who was born in 1730. He was educated for the medical profession, but early in life became a disciple of Linnæus. In 1762 Mr. Hudson published "*Flora Anglica*." He subsequently engaged in a correspondence with Linnæus, Haller, and other naturalists, and extended his researches to insects, shells, and various subjects connected with British zoology. In 1761 he was chosen F. R. S., and he was for many years botanical demonstrator to the apothecaries' company. In 1778 he published a new and much improved edition of his "*Flora*," in two volumes. He had projected the publication of a "*Fauna Britannica*," on the plan of his other work, and had collected materials for the purpose, but the destruction of his house by fire, in 1783, prevented the execution of his undertaking. His death took place May 23, 1793.

HUERTA, VINCENT DE LA, a Spanish poet, who was born in 1730. His original writings are but little esteemed, but his "*Teatro Espanol*" forms a fine collection of the dramatists of his own country. He died in 1786.

HUET, PETER DANIEL, a celebrated critic and classical scholar of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, who was a native of Caen in Normandy. He was born in 1630, and was educated in the Jesuits' college at Caen. After gaining a general knowledge of literature he went to Paris, where he indulged his passion for study by reading all the books he could procure and cultivating the acquaintance of the most eminent scholars of his time. In 1652 he accompanied Bochart on a visit to the court of Christina, queen of Sweden, of which journey he wrote an amusing narrative in Latin verse. In 1661 he published a treatise on translation, in the form of a Latin dialogue, entitled "*De Interpretatione*," and in 1664 a collection of Greek and Latin poems. An edition of Origen's "*Commentaries on the Scriptures*" followed in 1667; a tract, by him, on the origin of romances, was prefixed to the "*Zayde*" of Madame Lafayette. He was subsequently appointed preceptor to the dauphin, in conjunction with Bossuet. While he filled this office he wrote his "*Defence of Christianity*," published in 1679, which displays vast erudition. At this time also he undertook, at the earnest recommendation of the duke de Montausier, governor to the dauphin, the plan of publishing all the Latin classics, with the ample illustrations which have made what are called the Delphin editions so well known and generally esteemed throughout Europe. The plan was executed under the direction of Huet in less than twenty years, to the extent of sixty-two volumes, Lucan being the only ancient Roman author of importance who was omitted, the freedom of his political principles rendering his works objectionable to the French despot Louis XIV. Various Jesuits and other learned persons were engaged by Huet as editors of the different classics; one alone, namely, the "*Astronomicon*" of Manlius, was edited by himself. After the completion of his tutorship, having taken holy orders, he was made abbot of Aulnai, and subsequently nominated bishop of Soissons, which see he exchanged for that of Avranches. But after holding the episcopal office some time, he became so tired of

the troublesome duties attached to it that he abdicated the bishopric, contenting himself with the abbacy of Fontenai. He died in January 1721. Besides the works already mentioned, he wrote "*Histoire du Commerce et de la Navigation des Anciens*;" "*Origines de Caen*;" and memoirs of his own life in Latin, besides other pieces of less importance.

HUFELAND, CHRISTIAN WILLIAM, a celebrated Prussian counsellor of state, born at Langersalza in 1762. His father was physician to the duke of Weimar. The son at first practised physic at Weimar, in 1793 was made professor at Jena, and in 1801 physician in ordinary to the king of Prussia, director of the medico-chirurgical college, and first physician of the hospital called Charité in Berlin. He was distinguished for his profound and extensive learning and ingenious application of theory to practice, and was well acquainted with the spirit of the ancient and modern systems. The inoculation for the small-pox, as well as the general treatment of this disease, was improved by his observations on the subject. He also wrote on the uncertainty of the appearances of death, and the danger of burying alive persons apparently dead.

HUGH CAPET, son of Hugh the Great, a powerful duke in France. The last Carolingians had been stripped of almost all their possessions, and at the same time of their power, by their restless vassals. One only still remained—Charles, duke of Lower Lorraine. He was passed over in the election of king, and Hugh, renowned for his boldness and sagacity, possessed himself in 987 of the throne, to which he had no claim but by fraud and force. The duke of Lorraine endeavoured, indeed, to enforce his claim by arms, but he was taken prisoner by Hugh, and died in 992. Thus Hugh founded the third race of French kings, in three principal lines: the Capets, who filled the throne from 987 to 1328, the line of Valois to 1589, and that of Bourbon till Louis XVI. in 1723, occupied the throne 800 years, and in 1814, after the abdication of Napoleon, returned to it in the person of Louis XVIII. In 1830 the elder line was deposed, and the line of Orleans called to the throne. The family estates of Hugh were converted into royal domains, except that the duchy of Burgundy passed over to his brothers, Otho and Henry, and to their successors. Hugh endeavoured to confirm his power by courage and prudence, without taking vengeance on his earlier enemies. He died in 996.

HUGO, GUSTAVUS, a learned professor of law in the university of Gottingen, particularly distinguished for his knowledge of Roman law and the history of law. He was born at Lorrach, in Baden, in November 1764, and received the first rudiments of his instruction at Montbéliard and Carlsruhe. He then studied at Gottingen from 1782 to 1785, where he paid particular attention to philosophy and history, and gained a prize. He was then appointed instructor to the prince of Dessau, from 1786 to 1788, and was appointed in the latter year extraordinary professor of law at Gottingen, and in 1792 ordinary professor. In the first year of his professorship he translated Gibbon's "*View of the Civil Law*" (the 44th chapter of the "*History of the Decline of the Roman Empire*") with notes; and afterwards Ulpian's "*Fragments*," &c., upon which he lectured, and a new edition of which established his reputation. Contrary to the custom prevalent at that time, he

lectured upon the modern Roman law not according to the succession of titles. He also divided the history of the law into periods, and treated the philosophy of positive law in his course of lectures on civil law. Haubold and Savigny also laboured in the same cause, and to them the Roman law is indebted for the present improved method of studying it. Hugo's writings are distinguished for research and learning, and generally relate to the afore-mentioned subjects.

HUGHES, JOHN, a miscellaneous writer, who was born at Marlborough in 1677. He received a good classical education, and in 1717 received a lucrative post under government. His "Siege of Damascus" was a very successful tragedy, and he published many papers in the "Spectator." Mr. Hughes died in 1720.

HUGHES, GRIFFITH, an English clergyman, who was many years resident at Barbadoes, of which island he published a good account in 1760. The book was principally intended to illustrate the natural history of Barbadoes, and it furnishes very interesting details of its climate, soil, and varied productions.

HULL, THOMAS, an actor and dramatic writer, who was born in 1728. The work by which he is most advantageously known is entitled "Richard Plantagenet," containing the legendary history of an illegitimate son of Richard the Third, who, after the ruin of the white rose party, found an asylum at Eastwell park, Kent, where he worked many years in the capacity of a bricklayer, and where the remains of his habitation are yet to be seen. He also published two volumes of "Metrical Tales," "Letters from a Gentleman to a Young Lady," and "Select Letters between the Duchess of Somerset, Shenstone the Poet, and others." Mr. Hull died in 1808.

HUMBOLDT, FREDERICK HENRY ALEXANDER VON.—This learned naturalist and traveller was born at Berlin on the 14th of September, 1769. He commenced his studies at Gottingen, and when in his twenty-first year made a tour of Germany, Holland, and England.

Shortly after his return, appeared "Observations on the Basalts of the Rhine." In 1791 we find Humboldt studying under the celebrated Werner; and early in the spring of 1799, Baron Humboldt, accompanied by M. Bonpland, embarked for South America, at which place they arrived in the month of July. At San Fernando di Apura they began a tedious navigation in canoes, of about five hundred miles, and made an astronomical survey of the coast by means of time-keepers, Jupiter's satellites, and lunar distances. They sailed down the Rio Apura, which joins the Orinoco in seven degrees of latitude; ascended that river again as far as the mouth of the Rio Guariare; passed the celebrated water-falls of Atures and Maypure, where the cavern of Atarnipo encloses the mummies of a nation destroyed in the wars of the Carribees and Maravites. From the mouth of the Rio Guariare they ascended the little rivers of the Atahapo, Tuamini, and Semi.

They then penetrated by land from the mission of Javita to the sources of the Guginia (Rio Negro). A dozen Indians carried the canoes through thickets of flowering shrubs to the Cano Pimichin, through which they came to the Rio Negro; down this they sailed as far as the fortress of San Carlos, and the frontiers of Grand Para, the chief district of Brazil. The misunderstandings between Spain and Portugal

prevented the travellers from going beyond St. Gabriel de las Cochuellas; but this obstacle was less regretted as M. Condamine and Maldonado had already astronomically determined the mouth of the Rio Negro. On the other hand, the arm of the Orinoco, called Cassiquiari, and which forms a communication between it and the river of the Amazons, had still to be determined. For this purpose Humboldt and Bonpland proceeded from the Spanish fort of San Carlos by the Rio Negro and the Cassiquiari, back to the Orinoco, and on it as far as the mission of Esmeraldas, near the volcano of Duida, or to the source of the river. But the Guaicas Indians, a white, dwarfish, yet warlike race, and the copper-coloured Guajiribes, savage cannibals, who inhabit the country to the west, rendered it impossible for them to penetrate to the source of the Orinoco. From Esmeraldas they sailed three hundred and forty-five French miles down the river Orinoco to its mouth, to St. Thomas, in New Guayana or Angostura. The travellers passed the cataracts for the second time, to the south side of which neither Peter Gumilla nor Caulin had penetrated.

After enduring great hardships they returned on the Orinoco to Barcelona and Cumana, through the missions of the Carribean Indians, a gigantic race of men. They remained some months on the coast, and then went through the southern parts of San Domingo and Jamaica to Cuba. They spent three months at the Havannah, the geographical situation of which place M. Von Humboldt for the first time precisely determined.

They were just preparing to set out for Vera Cruz, to go by way of Mexico and Acapulco to the Philippine islands, and thence, if possible, by way of Bombay, Bassora, and Aleppo, to Constantinople, when false accounts of Captain Baudin's voyage induced them to alter their plan. It was stated in American papers that this navigator would proceed from France to Buenos Ayres, and, after doubling Cape Horn, sail along the coast of Chili and Peru. On his departure from Paris in 1768 M. Humboldt had promised Captain Baudin, that if the French expedition took place before he returned from his travels, he would join it. For this purpose M. Von Humboldt sent his manuscripts and collections of 1799 and 1800 direct to Europe, where they arrived safely, with the exception of a third part of his collections, which were lost by shipwreck. He then hired a vessel in the harbour of Betabano, to proceed to Carthagen, and thence through the isthmus of Panama to the southern ocean.

He left Betabano in March 1801, sailed along the southern part of the island of Cuba, and determined astronomically several points of the group of islands called the King's Garden, and the landing-place of the harbour of Trinidad. They spent some time in the Rio Sinu, which no botanist had ever before visited. The violence of the surf at St. Martha made the landing at Carthagen very difficult; and they came to an anchor close to the coast: by this delay Baron Von Humboldt had an opportunity of observing the eclipse of the moon on the 25th of March, 1801. As the season would no longer permit them to sail from Panama to Guayaquil, they gave up the plan of crossing the isthmus. The desire of visiting Mutis, the celebrated American naturalist, induced the travellers to spend some weeks in the forests of Surbaco, which are adorned with many magnificent



flowers; and then to sail down the river Magdalena, of which Humboldt made a chart, while Bonpland studied the luxuriant vegetation of the place.

From Honda, where they landed, they travelled over dreadful roads, through forests of oaks, and thickets of melastoma and cinchona, to Santa Fe de Bogota, the capital of New Grenada. The splendid collections of M. Mutis, the great cataract of Saquendama, the natural bridge of Icononzo, formed by two rocks torn asunder by an earthquake, and supporting a third in the air,—all these curiosities detained our travellers till September 1801: notwithstanding the unfavourable rainy season they went to Quito; they descended into the valley of Magdalena, passed by the Andes of Quindiu, where the snow-crowned summits of the Solina rise amidst groups of arborescent passion flowers. They arrived bare-footed, and quite wet through, in the valley of the Cauca, stayed some time at Carthage and Buga, and traversed the province of Choco. In the latter beautiful climate the thermometer was always from seventeen to nineteen degrees of Reaumer. They ascended with difficulty to the crater of the volcano of Purace, the mouth of which is always full of boiling water, and in the midst of the snow emits exhalations of sulphuretted hydrogen. Avoiding the pestilential valley of Patia, the travellers passed over the steep Cordilleras of Almaguer to Pasto, and then traversed through Guachnalc, the elevated plateau of the province de los Pastos.

After a very fatiguing journey of four months they at length arrived in the southern hemisphere, in the cities of Ibarra and Quito. It was on the 6th of January, 1802, that they reached the latter city, which is distinguished for the amiable manners and intellectual acquirements of its inhabitants. They continued their geological and botanical researches for nearly nine months in the kingdom of Quito, so remarkable for its colossal mountains, its volcanoes, vegetation, and ancient monuments; but, above all, for the manners of its former inhabitants. They twice descended into the crater of Pichincha, where they made experiments on the air, its elasticity, electricity, magnetism, and moisture, and on the degree of temperature at which water boiled. On the 23rd of June, 1802, they were upon Chimborazo, 19,500 feet above the level of the Pacific, being 3485 feet higher than Condamine ascended in 1745. The blood issued from their eyes, lips, and gums, and they were benumbed with cold. A ravine prevented them from reaching the summit of Chimborazo, which was more than 2000 feet higher.

As letters from Europe disappointed their hopes of joining Captain Baudin, they repaired from Quito to the river of the Amazons, and Trina, in expectation of observing the transit of Mercury over the sun. They visited the ruins of Lactacuga, Hambato, and Riobamba, a country which suffered materially from the dreadful earthquake of the 7th of February, 1797, which swallowed up in an instant above forty thousand persons. From Loxa they arrived in Peru, by way of Ayavaca and Gounca-bamba, having crossed the high Andes to reach the river of the Amazons. They viewed the magnificent remains of the causeway of Yega, which passes over the porphyry ridge of the Andes, from 1290 to 1800 toises' elevation, and yet the road is provided with inns and public fountains. In the village of Chamaya, they embarked on a raft, and proceeded down

the river of that name into the river of the Amazons, and determined, astronomically, the place of their confluence. In 1803 they visited the southern part of the kingdom; they first directed their attention to Hunhuetoca, and then went through Quertano, Salamanca, and the fertile plains of Yrapualo, to Guanaxato, the mines of which are infinitely more considerable than those of Potosi ever were. From Valladolid, notwithstanding the constant autumnal rains, they descended towards the coasts of the Pacific Ocean into the plains of Jorullo, where, in the year 1759 in one of greatest known catastrophes that the globe ever experienced, a volcano rose from the ground in a single night, to the height of 1494 feet, surrounded with more than two thousand small openings, from which smoke still issues.

In August 1804 Messrs. Humboldt and Bonpland returned to France, and they shortly afterwards commenced their magnificent work on the New World, a publication which possesses but one drawback to its general value, namely, the enormous expense at which it has been produced.

As a specimen of the style of this distinguished traveller we may take his remarks on the hieroglyphical writing of the American nations. He says, "When we examine the history of those nations to which the use of letters is unknown, we find in both hemispheres that men have attempted to paint the objects which struck their imagination, to represent things that were complex by putting a part for the whole, and so to compose such pictures as would serve to perpetuate the memory of remarkable events. The Delaware Indian in scouring the forests carves some lines on the bark of a tree to mark the number of the enemy he has killed. Even conventional signs are introduced, and a single stroke marks whether the scalp has been cut from the head of a man or a woman. Such representations, however, are not to be confounded with hieroglyphics, which are essentially different from the mere representation of an event, or of objects in a state of action with one another.

"The first missionaries who visited America compared the Azteck paintings with the hieroglyphical writing of the Egyptians. Kircher, Warburton, and other learned men, have contested the propriety of this comparison, not having been careful to distinguish the paintings of a mixed kind, in which real hieroglyphics, sometimes curiological, sometimes tropical, are added to the natural representation of an action.

"According to the ideas which the ancients have transmitted to us of the hieroglyphical inscriptions of the Egyptians, it is very probable that these inscriptions might have been read in the same manner as Chinese books. The collections which we improperly call Mexican manuscripts contain a great number of paintings which may be interpreted like the sculptures on the Trajan column; but we find only a very small number of characters susceptible of being read. The Azteck people had real simple hieroglyphical characters for water, earth, air, wind, day, night, speech, motion; they had the same for numbers, and for the days and months of the solar year. These signs, added to the painting of an event, marked in a very ingenious manner whether the action passed during the day or the night; what was the age of the persons they wished to represent, &c. We even find among the Mexicans the vestiges of that kind of hieroglyphic called phonetic, which indicates relations not directly with things, but with spoken language.

Among semi-barbarous nations the names of individuals, of cities and mountains, have generally some allusion to objects that strike the senses, such as certain plants and animals, fire, air, earth. This circumstance gave the Azteck people the means of writing the names of cities, &c.—Axajacatl, is face of water; Khinhaminu, arrow which pierces the sky. Therefore, to represent the kings of the above names, the painter united the hieroglyphics of water and sky to the figure of a head and an arrow. Again, there are three cities, the names of which signify five flowers, house of the eagles, and place of mirror. To express these, they painted a flower placed on five points, a house from which issued the head of an eagle, and a mirror of obsidian. Such hieroglyphics spoke at the same time to the eye and to the ear. On the whole, the Mexican paintings have a great resemblance, not so much to the hieroglyphical writings of the Egyptians, as to the rolls of papyrus found in the swathings of the mummies, which are also paintings of a mixed kind, and unite symbolical characters with the representation of an action. Indeed, it is not only on the papyri and swathings of the mummies, but also on the obelisks, that we find traces of this union of painting with hieroglyphical writing."

*Hume David*

HUME, DAVID.—This eminent historian was born at Edinburgh in 1711, and having lost his father at a very early age, his education devolved on his other parent, who was fortunately a woman of very extraordinary attainments. Young Hume was destined for the law, to which he soon showed a decided aversion. The writings of Locke and Berkeley had directed the attention of the generality of learned men towards metaphysics; and Mr. Hume having diligently applied himself to studies of this kind, published in 1739 the two first volumes of his "Treatise of Human Nature," and the third the following year. He had the mortification, however, to find the work



generally decried, and to perceive that the taste for systematic writing was then on the decline. He therefore divided one treatise into separate essays and dissertations, which he afterwards published at different times with alterations and improvements.

In 1742 Mr. Hume published two small volumes, consisting of essays, moral, political, and literary. These were better received than his former publication, but contributed little to his reputation as an author, and still less to his profit; and his small patrimony being now almost spent, he accepted an invitation from the marquis of Annandale to reside with him in England. With this nobleman he staid a twelvemonth, during which time his small fortune was considerably increased. He then received an invitation from General St. Clair to attend him as secretary in a military expedition, which was at first meant against Canada, but ended in an incursion upon the coast of France. Next year he attended the general in the same station in his military embassy to the courts of Vienna and Turin: he then wore the uniform of an officer, and was introduced at those courts as aid-de-camp to the general. These two years were almost the only interruptions which his studies received during the course of his life: his appointments, however, had made him, in his own opinion, "independent, for he was now master of near 1000*l*."

In 1752 Hume published his "Political Discourses," and the same year his "Inquiry concerning the Principles of Morals." Of the former he says, "that it was the only work of his which was successful on the first publication, being well received abroad and at home," and he pronounces the latter to be, "in his own opinion, of all his writings, historical, philosophical, or literary, incomparably the best; although it came unnoticed and unobserved into the world."

In 1754 he published the first volume of "A Portion of English History, from the Accession of James I. to the Revolution." He strongly promised himself success from this work, thinking himself the first English historian that was free from bias in his principles: but he says, "that he was herein miserably disappointed, and that, instead of pleasing all parties, he had made himself obnoxious to all." He was, as he relates, "so discouraged with this, that had not the war at that time been breaking out between France and England, he had certainly retired to some provincial town of the former kingdom, changed his name, and never more have returned to his native country." The "cheerful and sanguine temper" of which he formerly boasted, had now forsaken him, and the philosopher had become a mere irritable author. He recovered himself, however, so far as to publish in 1756 the second volume of the same work, and this was better received. "It not only rose itself," he says, "but helped to buoy up its unfortunate brother." Between these publications came out, along with some other small pieces, his "Natural History of Religion," which, though but indifferently received, was in the end the cause of some consolation to him; because, as he expresses himself, "Dr. Hurd wrote a pamphlet against it, with all the illiberal petulance, arrogance, and scurrility, which distinguish the Warburtonian school;" so well aware was he that, to an author, attack of any kind is much more favourable than neglect. Dr. Hurd, however, was only the ostensible author; he has since declared expressly that it proceeded from Warburton himself. In 1759 he published his "History of the House of Tudor," and in 1761 the more early part of the English History. The clamour against the former of these was almost equal to that against



the history of the two first Stuarts; and the latter was attended with but tolerable success: but he was now, he tells us, grown callous against the impressions of public censure. He had, indeed, what he might think good reason to be so; for the price of the copyright given by the booksellers for his history, exceptionable as it was deemed, had made him not only independent, but opulent. Being now about fifty, he retired to Scotland, determined never more to set his foot out of it; and carried with him "the satisfaction of never having preferred a request to one great man, or even making advances of friendship to any of them." But, while meditating to spend the rest of his life in a philosophical manner, he received in 1763 an invitation from the earl of Hertford to attend him on his embassy to Paris; which at length he accepted, and was left there *chargé d'affaires* in the summer of 1765. In Paris, where his peculiar philosophical opinions were then the mode, he met with the most flattering and unbounded attentions. He was panegyrized by the literati, courted by the ladies, and complimented by grandees, and even princes of the blood.

In the beginning of 1766 Mr. Hume quitted Paris, and in the summer of that year went to Edinburgh with the same view as before, of burying himself in a philosophical retreat; but in 1767 he received from Mr. Conway a new invitation, which like the former he did not think it expedient to decline. He returned to Edinburgh in 1769, "very opulent," he says, "for he possessed a revenue of 1000*l.* a year, healthy, and though somewhat stricken in years, with the prospect of enjoying long his ease."

Of Mr. Hume's last illness we have the following account from his own pen. He says, "In spring 1775 I was struck with a disorder in my bowels, which at first gave me no alarm, but has since, as I apprehend it, become mortal and incurable. I now reckon upon a speedy dissolution. I have suffered very little pain from my disorder, and what is more strange, have, notwithstanding the great decline of my person, never suffered a moment's abatement in my spirits; insomuch that were I to name the period of my life which I should most choose to pass over again, I might be tempted to point to this latter period. I possess the same ardour as ever in study, and the same gaiety in company. I consider besides, that a man of sixty-five by dying cuts off only a few years of infirmities; and though I see many symptoms of my literary reputation breaking out at last with additional lustre, I know that I could have but few years to enjoy it. It is difficult to be more detached from life than I am at present."

"To conclude historically with my own character, I am, or rather was (for that is the style I must now use in speaking of myself, which emboldens me the more to speak my sentiments), I was I say, a man of mild dispositions, of command of temper, of an open, social, and cheerful humour, capable of attachment, but little susceptible of enmity, and of great moderation in all my passions. Even my love of literary fame, my ruling passion, never soured my temper, notwithstanding my frequent disappointments. My company was not unacceptable to the young and careless, as well as to the studious and literary; and, as I took a particular pleasure in the company of modest women, I had no reason to be displeased with the reception I met with from them. In a word, though most men anywise eminent have

found reason to complain of calumny, I never was touched or even attacked by her baleful tooth; and though I wantonly exposed myself to the rage of both civil and religious factions, they seemed to be disarmed in my behalf of their wonted fury. My friends never had occasion to vindicate any one circumstance of my character and conduct; not but that the zealots, we may well suppose, would have been glad to invent and propagate any story to my disadvantage, but they could never find any which they thought would wear the face of probability. I cannot say there is no vanity in making this funeral oration of myself, but I hope it is not a misplaced one; and this is a matter of fact which is easily cleared and ascertained."

Mr. Hume's fears concerning the dangerous character of his disorder proved but too true. He died on the 25th of August 1776, and was interred in the Calton burying-ground, Edinburgh, where a monument is erected to his memory.

HUMPHREY, LAWRENCE, a distinguished English reformer, who was born in 1527. He was educated at Cambridge, and after obtaining a fellowship was ejected by Queen Mary. In the following reign, however, he returned, and succeeded in obtaining the restoration of his preferment. In the course of the next twenty years he passed from the divinity chair and the headship of his college, through the deanery of Gloucester, to that of Winchester, which latter appointment he received in 1580. He was an excellent linguist as well as a good general scholar, besides being well versed in all the polemical controversies of the period, to which he contributed his share, in the shape of a variety of tracts, written against the doctrines of the Romish church. Of these the principal is entitled "De Religionis Conservatione et Reformatione, et de Primatu Regum." Among his other works are, "Epistola de Græcis Literis et Homerî Lectione et Imitatione 1558," "De Ratione Interpretandi Auctores;" and a "History of the Life and Death of Bishop Jewel." Dr. Humphrey died in 1590.

HUMPHRY, OZIAS, a celebrated portraitpainter, who was born in 1743. He first settled as a miniature painter at Bath, and afterwards, by the advice of Sir Joshua Reynolds, removed to London, where he soon acquired a high degree of celebrity. Mr. Humphry ultimately became a royal academician, and in 1780 went to India, where he painted portraits of all the principal native princes. He died in 1810.

HUNTER, ANNE.—This distinguished literary lady was the widow of Dr. John Hunter. She excelled as a lyric poetess, as is shown by her celebrated "Queen Mary's Lament," "The Death-song of Alknomook, the Indian Warrior," and especially the beautiful words to some of Haydn's canzonetts. These, as well as her other productions, were, some time previous to her decease, collected and published under her own superintendence. Mrs. Hunter died in January 1821.

HUNTER, HENRY, a Scottish Presbyterian divine, who was born in Perthshire in 1741. He was educated at the university of Edinburgh. When he left Edinburgh he accepted the office of tutor to Lord Dundonald's sons at Culross Abbey. In 1764 he was licensed to preach, and, having passed the several examinations with great applause, he was ordained in 1766. On a visit to London in 1769 he preached in most of the Scotch meeting-houses, and soon after his re-

turn he received an invitation to become pastor of the Scotch church in Swallow Street, which he declined; but in 1771 he removed to London, and undertook the pastoral office in the Scotch church at London Wall.

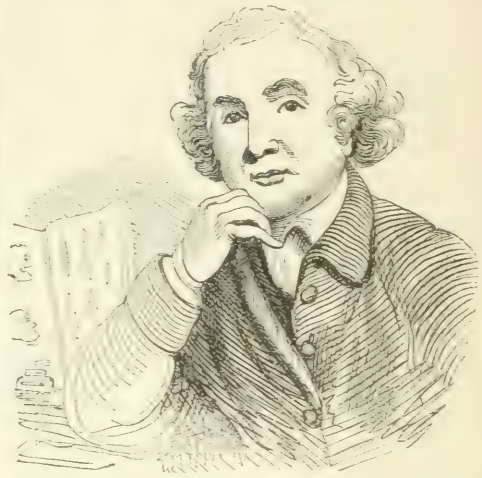
Mr. Hunter appeared first as an author in 1783, by the commencement of his "Sacred Biography," which was ultimately extended to seven volumes octavo. While this work was in the course of publication he engaged in the translation of Lavater's "Essays on Physiognomy," and in order to render his work as complete as possible, went to Switzerland for the purpose of procuring information from Lavater himself. He attained, in some measure, his object, though the author did not receive him with the cordiality which he expected, supposing that the English version might injure the sale of the French translation. The first number of this work was published in 1789, and it was finished in a style worthy the improved state of the arts. From this period Dr. Hunter spent much of his time in translating different works from the French language. See the article **HOLLOWAY**.

In 1790 he was elected secretary to the corresponding board of the Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland. He was likewise chaplain to the Scotch Corporation; and both these institutions were much benefited by his zealous exertions in their behalf. In 1795, he published two volumes of sermons, and in 1798 "Eight Lectures on the Evidences of Christianity," being the completion of a plan begun by Mr. Fell. The whole contains a popular and useful elucidation of the proofs in favour of the Christian religion, arising from its internal evidence, its beneficial influence, and the superior value of the information which it conveys with respect to futurity. During the latter years of his life, Dr. Hunter's constitution suffered the severest shocks from the loss of three children, which, with other causes, contributed to render him unable to withstand the attacks of disease, and he died in October 1802 at Bristol, where he had spent some time in the hope of benefiting his health by the mineral waters.

**HUNTER, JOHN**, younger brother of William Hunter, and highly celebrated as a practitioner and writer on surgery, anatomy, and physiology. He was born in July 1728. His education was neglected, and he was at first apprenticed to a cabinet-maker; but, hearing of the success of his elder brother in London, he offered his services to him as an anatomical assistant, and was invited by him to London, where he arrived in September 1748. He improved so speedily, that in the winter of 1749 he was able to undertake the instruction of dissecting pupils. In 1755 he was admitted to a partnership in the lectures delivered by his brother, in which situation he most assiduously devoted himself to the study of practical anatomy, not only of the human body, but also of brute animals, for which he procured from the Tower, and from the keepers of other menageries, subjects for dissection. He also kept several foreign and uncommon animals in his house for the purpose of studying their habits and organization.

His first publication, a treatise "On the Natural History of the Teeth," appeared in 1771. In the winter of 1773 he commenced a course of lectures on the theory and principles of surgery, in which

he developed some of those peculiar doctrines which he afterwards explained more fully in his published works. His perfect acquaintance with anatomy rendered him a bold and skilful operator, and enabled him to make improvements in the modes of treating certain surgical cases, but his fame chiefly rests on his researches concerning comparative anatomy. In 1781 he was chosen a member of the Royal Society



of Göttingen, and in 1783, of the Royal Society of Medicine and Academy of Surgery at Paris. In 1786 he published his celebrated work "On the Venereal Disease," and about the same time appeared a quarto volume, entitled "Observations on Various Parts of the Animal Economy," consisting of physiological essays, most of which had been inserted in the "Philosophical Transactions." His "Treatise on Inflammation, and Gun-shot Wounds," was one of the last of his literary labours. On the death of Mr. Adair he was appointed inspector-general of hospitals and surgeon-general to the army. He died on the 16th of October, 1793. His "Treatise on the Blood" was published in 1794, with an account of his life, by Sir Everard Home. Parliament has since purchased the museum of this distinguished anatomist for 15,000*l.*, and transferred it to the Royal College of Surgeons for public use, and while we now write arrangements are making for its exhibition in the way best fitted to enhance its utility in a professional point of view.

**HUNTER, DR. WILLIAM**, a celebrated anatomist and physician, who was born in May 1718, at Kilbride, in the county of Lanark in Scotland. He was the seventh of ten children of John and Agnes Hunter, who resided on a small estate in that parish called Long Calderwood, which had been long in the possession of his family. His great grandfather, by his father's side, was a younger son of Hunter, of Hunterston, chief of the family of that name. At the age of fourteen his father sent him to the college of Glasgow, where he passed five years. His father had designed him for the church, but the idea of subscribing to articles of faith was so repugnant to the peculiar mode of thinking he had already adopted, that he felt an insuperable aversion to his theological pursuits. In this state of mind he became acquainted with Dr. Cullen, who was then just established in practice at Hamilton under the patron-



age of the duke of Hamilton, who prevailed on him to lay aside all thoughts of the church, and to devote himself to the profession of physic. His father's consent having been previously obtained, Mr. Hunter in 1737 went to reside with Dr. Cullen. In the family of this excellent friend and preceptor he passed nearly three years; and these, as he often acknowledged in after-life, were the happiest years of his life. It was then agreed that he should prosecute his medical studies at Edinburgh and London, and afterwards return to settle at Hamilton in partnership with Dr. Cullen. He accordingly set out for Edinburgh in November 1740, and continued there till the following spring, attending the lectures of the medical professors.

Mr. Hunter arrived in London in the summer of 1741, and resided for some time with Dr. Smellie. He brought with him a letter of recommendation to his countryman Dr. James Douglas, who was then employed on a great anatomical work on the bones, which he did not live to complete. Mr. Hunter afterwards entered himself as a surgeon's pupil at St. George's Hospital under Mr. Wilkie, and as a dissecting pupil under Dr. Nichols, who at that time taught anatomy with considerable reputation. He likewise attended a course of lectures on experimental philosophy by Desaguliers.

In 1743 he communicated to the Royal Society an essay on the "Structure and Diseases of Articulating Cartilages." This paper, on a subject which till then had not been sufficiently investigated, affords a striking testimony of the rapid progress he had made in his anatomical inquiries. As he had in contemplation the teaching of anatomy, his attention was directed principally to this object; and it deserves to be mentioned that he did not precipitately engage in this attempt, but passed several years in acquiring such a degree of knowledge and such a collection of preparations as might ensure him success.

In 1747 he was admitted a member of the Corporation of Surgeons, and in the spring of the following year, soon after the close of his lectures, he set out in company with his pupil, Mr. James Douglas, on a tour through Holland to Paris. His lectures suffered no interruption by this journey, as he returned to England soon enough to prepare for his wintercourse, which began about the usual time.

In 1750 he seems to have entirely relinquished his views in surgery; as in that year he obtained the degree of doctor of physic from the university of Glasgow, and began to practise as a physician. In the summer of 1751 he revisited his native country, for which he always retained a cordial affection. His mother was still living at Long Calderwood, which was now become his property by the death of his brother James. Dr. Cullen, for whom he always entertained a great regard, was then established at Glasgow, and had acquired considerable reputation both as a practitioner and teacher; so that the two friends had the pleasure of being able to congratulate each other on their mutual prosperity. During this visit he showed his attachment to his little paternal inheritance by giving many instructions for repairing and improving it, and for purchasing any adjoining lands that might be offered for sale.

In 1755, on the resignation of Dr. Layard, one of the physicians of the British lying-in hospital, we

find the governors of that institution voting their "thanks to Dr. Hunter for the services he had done the hospital, and for his continuing in it as one of the physicians:" so that he appears to have been established in this office without the usual form of an election. The year following he was admitted a licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians. Soon afterwards he was elected a member of the Medical Society; and to the "Observations and Inquiries," published by that society, he at different periods contributed several valuable papers.

In 1762 Dr. Hunter warmly engaged in controversy, supported his claim to different anatomical discoveries, in a work entitled "Medical Commentaries," the style of which is correct and spirited. As an excuse for the tardiness with which he brought forth this work, he observes in his introduction, that it required a good deal of time, and he had little to spare; that the subject was unpleasant, and therefore he was very seldom in the humour to take it up. In this publication he confined himself chiefly to a dispute with the then professor of anatomy at Edinburgh, respecting injections of the testicle, the ducts of the lachrymal gland, the origin and use of the lymphatic vessels, and absorption by veins.

In 1764 Dr. Hunter had the honour to be appointed physician extraordinary to her majesty. In 1767 Dr. Hunter was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and in the year following communicated to that learned body observations on the bones which had been found near the river Ohio in America. This was not the only subject of natural history on which Dr. Hunter employed his pen; for, in a subsequent volume of the "Philosophical Transactions," we find him offering his remarks on some bones found in the rock of Gibraltar, and which he proves to have belonged to a quadruped. In the same work he published an account of the *nyl-ghau*, an Indian animal not described before. In 1768 Dr. Hunter became a fellow of the Society of Antiquaries; and the same year, at the institution of a Royal Academy of Arts, he was appointed by his majesty to the office of professor of anatomy. This appointment opened a new field for his abilities, and he engaged in it, as he did in every other pursuit of his life, with unabating zeal. He now adapted his anatomical knowledge to the objects of painting and sculpture, and the novelty and justness of his observations proved at once the readiness and extent of his genius. In January 1781 he was unanimously elected to succeed Dr. John Fothergill as president of the Medical Society. As his name and talents were known and respected in every part of Europe, so the honours conferred on him were not limited to his own country. In 1780 the Royal Medical Society at Paris elected him one of their foreign associates, and in 1782 he received a similar mark of distinction from the Royal Academy of Sciences in that city.

The most splendid of Dr. Hunter's medical publications was the "Anatomy of the Human Gravid Uterus." The appearance of this work, which had been begun as early as the year 1751, was retarded till the year 1775, only by the author's desire of sending it into the world with fewer imperfections. This great work was dedicated to the king. In his preface to it we find the author very candidly acknowledging that in most of the dissections he had been assisted by his brother, Mr. John Hunter, "whose

accuracy (he adds) in anatomical researches is so well known, that to omit this opportunity of thanking him for that assistance would be in some measure to disregard the future reputation of the work itself." He likewise confesses his obligations to the ingenious artists who made the drawings and engravings; "but particularly to Mr. Strange, not only for having by his hand secured a sort of immortality to two of the plates, but for having given his advice and assistance in every part with a steady and disinterested friendship. An anatomical description of the gravid uterus was a work which Dr. Hunter had long in contemplation to give the public. He had likewise been employed in collecting and arranging materials for a history of the various concretions that are formed in the human body. Amongst Dr. Hunter's papers were found two introductory lectures, in which he traces the history of anatomy from the earliest to the present times, with the general progress of science and the arts. He considers the great utility of anatomy in the practice of physic and surgery; gives the ancient divisions of the different substances composing the human body, which for a long time prevailed in anatomy; points out the most advantageous mode of cultivating this branch of natural knowledge, and concludes with explaining the particular plan of his own lectures.

The same year in which the "Tables of the Gravid Uterus" made their appearance, Dr. Hunter communicated to the Royal Society an "Essay on the Origin of the Venereal Disease." In this paper he attempted to prove, that this dreadful malady was not brought from America to Europe by the crew of Columbus, as had been commonly supposed, although it made its first appearance about that period. In the year 1777 Dr. Hunter joined with Mr. Watson in presenting to the Royal Society a short account of the late Dr. Maty's illness, and of the appearances on dissection; and the year following he published his "Reflections on the Section of the Symphysis Pubis."

We must now go back a little in the order of time to describe the origin and progress of Dr. Hunter's museum, without some account of which the history of his life would be very incomplete. When he began to practise midwifery he was desirous of acquiring a fortune sufficient to place him in easy and independent circumstances. Before many years had elapsed he found himself in possession of a sum adequate to his wishes in this respect; and this he set apart as a resource of which he might avail himself whenever age or infirmities should oblige him to retire from business. After he had obtained this competency, as his wealth continued to accumulate, he formed the laudable design of engaging in some plan of public utility, and at first had it in contemplation to found an anatomical school in the metropolis. For this purpose, about the year 1765, during the administration of Mr. Grenville, he presented a memorial to that minister, in which he requested the grant of a piece of ground in the King's Mews for the site of an anatomical theatre. Dr. Hunter undertook to expend 7000*l.* on the building, and to endow a professorship of anatomy in perpetuity. This plan, however, did not meet with the reception it deserved. In a conversation on this subject soon afterwards with the earl of Shelburne, his lordship expressed a wish that the plan might be carried into

execution by subscription, and requested to have his name set down for a thousand guineas. Dr. Hunter's delicacy would not allow him to adopt this proposal. He chose rather to execute it at his own expense, and accordingly purchased a spot of ground in Great Windmill Street, where he erected a spacious house, to which he removed from Jermyn Street in 1770. In this building, besides a convenient amphitheatre and other apartments for his lectures and dissections, there was one magnificent room fitted up as a museum. Of the magnitude and value of his anatomical collection some idea may be formed, when we consider the number of years he employed in the making of anatomical preparations and in the dissection of morbid bodies, added to the eagerness with which he procured additions from the collections of Sandys, Hewson, Falconer, Blackall, and others, that were at different times offered for sale in this metropolis. His specimens of rare diseases were also frequently increased by presents from his medical friends and pupils. Speaking of an acquisition in this way, in one of his publications, he says, "I look upon every thing of this kind which is given to me as a present to the public, and consider myself as thereby called upon to serve the public with more diligence."

Before his removal to Windmill Street, he had confined his collection chiefly to specimens of human and comparative anatomy and of diseases; but now he extended his views to fossils, and likewise to the promotion of polite literature and erudition. In a short space of time he became possessed of "the most magnificent treasure of Greek and Latin books that has been accumulated by any person now living since the days of Mead." A cabinet of ancient medals contributed likewise much to the richness of his museum. A description of part of the coins in this collection, struck by the Greek free cities, was published by the doctor's learned friend Mr. Combe. In a classical dedication of this elegant volume to Queen Charlotte, Dr. Hunter acknowledges his obligations to her majesty. In the preface some account is given of the progress of the collection, which had been brought together with singular taste, and at the expense of upwards of 20,000*l.* In 1781 the museum received a valuable addition of shells, corals, and other curious subjects of natural history, which had been collected by Dr. Fothergill, who gave directions by his will that his collection should be appraised after his death, and that Dr. Hunter should have the refusal of it at 500*l.* under the valuation. This was accordingly done, and Dr. Hunter purchased it for the sum of 1200*l.* By his will the use of his museum, under the direction of trustees, devolved to his nephew Matthew Baillie, and in case of his death to Mr. Cruikshank, for the term of thirty years, at the end of which period the whole collection was bequeathed to the university of Glasgow, but Dr. Baillie removed it to its destination some years before the completion of that term. The sum of 8000*l.* sterling was left as a fund for the support and augmentation of the collection.

Dr. Hunter, at the head of his profession, honoured with the esteem of his sovereign, and in possession of every thing that his reputation and wealth could confer, seemed now to have attained the summit of his wishes. But these sources of gratification were embittered by frequent attacks of the gout, which harassed him during the latter part of his life, not-



withstanding his very abstemious manner of living. On Saturday, the 15th of March, 1783, after having for several days experienced a return of a wandering gout, he complained of great head-ache and nausea. In this state he went to bed, and for several days felt more pain than usual both in his stomach and limbs. On the Thursday following he found himself so much recovered that he determined to give the introductory lecture to the operations of surgery, but towards the conclusion of it his strength was so exhausted that he fainted and was obliged to be carried to bed. The following night and day his symptoms were such as indicated danger; and on Saturday morning Mr. Combe, who made him an early visit, was alarmed on being told by Dr. Hunter himself, that during the night he had certainly had a paralytic stroke. As neither his speech nor his pulse were affected, and he was able to raise himself in bed, Mr. Combe encouraged him to hope that he was mistaken. But the event proved the doctor's idea of his complaint to be but too well founded, as he died on the 30th of March, 1783.

As a teacher of anatomy Dr. Hunter was long and deservedly celebrated. He was a good orator, and having a clear and accurate conception of what he taught, he knew how to place in distinct and intelligible points of view the most abstruse subjects of anatomy and physiology. Among other methods of explaining and illustrating his doctrines, he used frequently to introduce some apposite story or case that had occurred to him in his practice; and few men had acquired a more interesting fund of anecdotes of this kind, or related them in a more agreeable manner.

**HUNTINGDON, HENRY**, an eminent English historian, who was born towards the end of the eleventh or beginning of the twelfth century. He was educated by Albinus of Anjou, a learned canon of the church of Lincoln, and in his youth discovered a great taste for poetry by writing eight books of epigrams, as well as many amatory verses, with three long didactic poems, one of herbs, another of spices, and a third of precious stones. In his more advanced years he applied to the study of history, and at the request of Alexander bishop of Lincoln, who was his great friend and patron, he composed a general "History of England, from the Earliest Accounts to the Death of King Stephen, 1154," in eight books, published by Sir Henry Savile. In the dedication of this work to Bishop Alexander, he states that in the ancient part of his history he had followed the venerable Bede, adding a few things from some other writers—that he had compiled the sequel from several chronicles he had found in different libraries, and from what he had heard and seen. Towards the conclusion he very honestly acknowledges that it was only an abridgment, and that to compose a complete history of England many more books were necessary than he could procure. The time of his death is unknown.

**HUNTINGDON, SELINA, COUNTESS OF**.—This pious lady was the second daughter of Washington, Earl Ferrers. She was born in 1707, and married in June 1728 to Theophilus earl of Huntingdon. Becoming a widow, she acquired a taste for the principles of the Calvinistic Methodists, and patronised the celebrated George Whitefield, whom she constituted her chaplain. Her rank and fortune giving her great influence, she was long considered

as the head of a sect of religionists; and, after the death of Whitefield, his followers were designated as the people of Lady Huntingdon. She founded schools and colleges for preachers, supported them with her purse, and expended annually large sums in private charity. She died on the 17th of June, 1791.

**HUNTINGTON, WILLIAM**, a religious enthusiast, who attained some notoriety towards the end of the eighteenth century. He was the son of a farmer's labourer in Kent, and the early part of his life was passed in menial service and other humble occupations. After indulging in vice and dissipation for several years, according to his own account, he was converted, and became a preacher among the Calvinistic Methodists. He soon engaged in religious controversies, published a vast number of tracts, and was regarded as the head of a peculiar sect. He died in August 1813, at the age of sixty-nine. His publications are very numerous, and some of them contain curious details relative to his personal history and religious experience. The titles of two may be mentioned as specimens—"The Arminian Skeleton, or the Arminians Dissected and Anatomized," and "The Bank of Faith." After having lost his first wife by death, he married the wealthy widow of Sir James Saunderson, a London alderman, and passed the latter part of his life in affluence.

**HUNTINGTON, ROBERT**.—This learned ecclesiastic was born at Deerhurst in Gloucestershire, in 1636, and was educated at Merton College, Oxford. Having received his degree of master of arts, he applied himself with great assiduity to the study of divinity and the oriental languages. In 1670 he was appointed chaplain to the factory of Aleppo. This appointment he held for eleven years, during which time he peculiarly dedicated himself to the discovery and collection of ancient MSS., in which pursuit he was patronised by the bishops Marsh and Fell, and other learned persons in England. He travelled with this object not only through the districts adjoining Aleppo, but to Mount Sinai, various parts of Palestine, and in 1677 made a voyage to Cyprus, to examine the library of the archbishop of Justiniana Nova, but without success. In two journeys which he took in 1680 and 1681 to Egypt he was more fortunate, being enabled to rescue many curious copies of the gospel and other MSS. from oblivion. He returned to England in 1682, and immediately retired to his fellowship at Merton College, and the next year received the degrees of bachelor and doctor of divinity, and was appointed master of Trinity College, Dublin. Upon the descent of James II. in Ireland, after the Revolution, he retired for safety to England, but returned when the danger was over, and in 1691 resigned the mastership of Trinity College, resolved not to live out of his native country. In the mean time he sold his fine collection of MSS., about 600 in number, to the curators of the Bodleian library, for £900. In 1692 he was offered the Irish bishopric of Kildare, which he refused, and in 1701 accepted that of Raphoe, but survived his consecration only twelve days.

**HUNTINGTON, SAMUEL**, an American lawyer, who was born in Connecticut in 1732. His father was a farmer, whose situation did not allow him to give his son any other than the limited education which the common schools of the province afforded. Young Huntington, however, made up

for this deficiency by his own industry, and employed all the time which he could spare from the occupations of the farm in improving his mind. At the age of twenty-two he resolved upon studying the law, and having borrowed the necessary books, soon acquired knowledge sufficient to be admitted to the bar and commence the practice of his profession, which he did in his native town. He shortly afterwards removed to Norwich. Here he had not long resided before his business became very extensive, and in 1764 he was elected a representative of the town in the general assembly, and the following year appointed king's attorney, an office which he filled until 1774, when he was raised to the bench of the superior court. In 1775 he was chosen a member of the council of Connecticut, and in the same year, having always shown himself a decided opponent of all encroachments on the rights of the people, was sent as a delegate to the general congress of the colonies. He took his seat in that assembly on the 16th of January, 1776, and in the ensuing month of July signed the declaration of independence. In September 1779 he was chosen to succeed John Jay as president of the congress. He was re-elected to the same dignity in 1780, and occupied it until the following year, when his health obliged him to retire from the house. On his return to Connecticut he resumed his judicial functions and his seat in the council of that state. In 1783 he again went to congress, and was soon afterwards appointed chief justice of the supreme court of Connecticut. In 1786 he was chosen the successor of Mr. Griswold in the chief magistracy of the state, and was annually re-elected to the same station until his death, which took place on the 5th of January, 1796, in the sixty-fourth year of his age.

**HUPAZOLI, FRANCIS**, one of the few individuals who have lived in three centuries. He was born in 1587 at Casal, in Sardinia, and died in 1702. At first he was a clergyman, and afterwards became a merchant at Scio, and in his eighty-second year he was appointed Venetian consul at Smyrna. He had five wives, who bore him twenty-four children, besides which he is known to have had several illegitimate children. By his fifth wife, whom he married at the age of ninety-eight years, he had four children. His drink was water; he never smoked, and ate but very little at night, went to bed and rose early, then heard mass, walked and laboured the whole day to the last. He wrote down every thing remarkable which he had witnessed. At the age of 100 his gray hair is said to have again become black. When 109 years old, he lost his teeth, and lived on soup. Four years after he had two large new teeth, and began again to eat meat. During the latter part of his life he was afflicted with the stone, and frequent colds, which continued until his death.

**HURD, RICHARD**, an eminent English prelate and philological writer, who was born in 1720, at Congreve in Staffordshire, and went to Emanuel College, Cambridge, in which he obtained a fellowship in 1742. In 1750 he published a "Commentary on the Epistle of Horace to Augustus." A satirical attack on Doctor Jortin, in defence of Warburton, in an essay on the "Delicacy of Friendship," he afterwards endeavoured to suppress. In 1757 he published "Remarks on David Hume's Essay on the Natural History of Religion." His "Dialogues, Moral and Political," with "Letters on Chivalry and Ro-

mance," appeared at different times from 1758 to 1764, and were republished collectively in 1765, in three volumes. In 1767 he was made archdeacon of Gloucester, and in 1768 commenced a series of sermons on the prophecies, preached at the lecture founded by his friend Warburton, at Lincoln's Inn. These discourses were published under the title of an "Introduction to the Study of the Prophecies concerning the Christian Church, in twelve Lectures." In 1775 Doctor Hurd was raised to the bishopric of Lichfield and Coventry, and not long after was made preceptor to the late king and his brother the duke of York. He was translated to the see of Worcester in 1781, and at the same time was bestowed on him the confidential situation of clerk of the closet. The king afterwards desired to elevate Doctor Hurd to the primacy, but he modestly declined the offer. In 1788 he published an edition of the works of Bishop Warburton, in which he omitted some of the productions of his deceased friend. Doctor Parr supplied the editorial deficiencies of Bishop Hurd's collection, by "Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian." In 1795 the right reverend editor himself published a kind of supplement to the works of Warburton, in the form of a biographical preface, and he subsequently also published the correspondence of Warburton, which was his last literary undertaking. He died in May 1808.

**HURDIS, JAMES**, a writer of some eminence, who was born at Bishopstone in Sussex in 1763, and was educated at Oxford. He made his first appearance before the public as a poet, in a work entitled "The Village Curate," which was followed by a number of other works of considerable merit.

**HUSKISSON, WILLIAM, THE RIGHT HONOURABLE**.—This distinguished English statesman was born on the 11th of March, 1770. He was the son of a gentleman of moderate fortune, who resided in Staffordshire, and on the death of his mother he was placed under the care of his uncle Doctor Gem, then physician to the English embassy in France. Doctor Gem paid great attention to the education of his young relative. Franklin, Jefferson, and most of the encyclopædists, were his intimate friends. The period was one of intense political excitement. All these circumstances, co-operating with a natural predisposition of mind, naturally gave young Huskisson a bias in favour of finance and political economy, at that time the fashionable studies of the day, and the principles he then imbibed, matured and confirmed by long practical study, adhered to him through life.

The speech which he delivered at the Parisian "Societe" in 1789 is worthy of notice, merely as a proof of his early ripeness of intellect, and as it was the means of procuring for him first the acquaintance, and afterwards the friendship, of the marquis of Stafford, at that time our minister at Paris. In 1790 Mr. Huskisson became his lordship's private secretary. After the execution of the king of France, the English ambassador was recalled, and his secretary accompanied him home. Government found it necessary about this time to create an office for hearing and discussing the claims of emigrants. Mr. Huskisson was suggested as a person well qualified to discharge its duties, and accepted the offer made to him in consequence. It was at this period that he first became acquainted with Canning. In 1795 he was promoted to the office of under-secretary of state



in the department of war and colonies, and in 1796 he was first brought into parliament. Natural diffidence, and a just estimate of his own powers, withheld him from starting as a debater. He therefore applied himself sedulously to the business of his own department, laboured to complete his knowledge of finance, and the various bearings of our commercial interests, and silently mastered the forms of the house and the mode of conducting debates.

In 1801 he, as well as Canning, resigned his situation, on the retirement of Pitt. In 1802 he was candidate for Dover, but, being defeated, he did not come into parliament till 1804. On the formation of Mr. Pitt's second administration he was appointed one of the secretaries of the treasury, and continued to hold the office for a considerable period.

In April 1807 he resumed, under the duke of Portland, the office of secretary of the treasury, which he retained till the formation of Mr. Perceval's administration. Subsequent to that event he continued out of office till the autumn of 1814, and even then he held a subordinate post, in which he continued till 1823, when, under Canning, he was appointed president of the board of trade, and treasurer of the navy. He did not however become active in the cabinet till the following autumn. After the death of Lord Liverpool he retained his situation under Canning, and afterwards under Lord Goderich and the duke of Wellington, until his difference with the latter in 1828. He continued active in the discharge of his parliamentary duties till his melancholy death, which took place on the 15th of September, 1830. Being present at the celebration of the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester railway, he was accidentally thrown down by one of the steam-carriages, which passed over him and inflicted such severe injuries that he died shortly after. A marble tablet has since been erected to his memory on the spot where the accident took place.

**HUSS, JOHN.**—This celebrated reformer was born in 1373 at Hussinecz near Prachatiz, in Bohemia, whence he acquired the name of Huss, or John of Hussinecz. In 1389 he was sent by his feudal lord and some other patrons to the university of Prague, where he was distinguished for his talents and industry. Having become the servitor of a professor, to whose library he thereby had access, he had an opportunity of acquiring a degree of theological information which for that age was remarkable. In 1396 he took the degree of master of arts, and in 1398 delivered public theological and philosophical lectures. In 1402 the office of Bohemian preacher in the Bethlehem chapel at Prague, which was established by a private foundation, was conferred on him; and here he began to acquire influence over the people, with whom, as well as with the students, his sermons were very popular; and being soon after made confessor to Queen Sophia, he thus gained access to the court. About this period he became acquainted with the writings of Wickliffe, and his knowledge of the Scriptures soon made him feel the justice of that bold reformer's attack on the abuses of the church, and he now became himself the boldest advocate of a reform which should restore to the corrupt church the simplicity and purity of scriptural Christianity.

His boldness did not long remain unobserved; and as in the frequent disputes of the Germans with the Bohemian academicians he took part with the

latter, he had soon to contend with powerful enemies. This made a national division of that which hitherto had been only a contest between the philosophical schools of the Realists to which Huss belonged, and of the Nominalists, to which most of the Germans had attached themselves. About 5000 foreign professors and students left Prague, and either created or gave a new impulse to the universities of Leipsic, Erfurth, Ingolstadt, Rostock, and Cracow, a loss which Prague and Huss himself, who was now a rector, sensibly felt. Yet he could not be attacked in Bohemia; the great schism had exposed the weakness of the priesthood, Bohemia did not recognise Benedict XIII. nor Gregory XII. after 1409; the nobility and people were excited against the arbitrary decrees of the pope, by some bold spirits, who served as the precursors of Huss's doctrines, and thus became accustomed to judge freely; the government of Wenceslaus favoured the anti-papal spirit of many among the people, from political grounds, and from an inclination favourable to Huss, who was generally esteemed. He ventured, therefore, to censure publicly the corrupt morals of the priests and the laity, and to preach against the sale of papal indulgences in Bohemia; he said nothing new when he declared masses for the dead, image-worship, monastic life, auricular confession, fasts, &c., to be inventions of spiritual despotism and superstition, and the withholding of the cup at the Lord's Supper unscriptural.

The new pope, Alexander V., finally summoned him to Rome, and as he did not appear, the archbishop of Prague, Sbynko, commenced the immediate persecution of this preacher of truth. About 200 volumes of copies of Wickliffe's writings were burnt in 1410 in the archbishop's palace, and the Bohemian preaching at the Bethlehem chapel prohibited. But Huss did not obey either this prohibition or the new summons of John XXIII., but appealed, as his envoys at Rome were imprisoned, to a general council. When the pope caused a crusade against Ladislaus of Naples to be preached in Bohemia, Huss opposed it in the warmest manner, and his friend Jerome expressed himself on the subject in violent language, which the pope ascribed to Huss, who was in consequence excommunicated, and Prague laid under an interdict as long as Huss should remain in it. Huss therefore, distrustful of the protection of the weak king of Bohemia, went to the feudal lord of his birth-place Hussinecz, whose name was Nicholas. Here and in many places in the circle of Bechin, he preached with much success; here he also wrote his memorable books "On the Six Errors," and "On the Church," in which he attacks transubstantiation, the belief in the pope and the saints, the efficacy of the absolution of a vicious priest, unconditional obedience to early rulers, and simony, which was then extremely prevalent, and makes the holy Scriptures the only rule of matters of religion.

The approbation with which these doctrines were received, both among the nobility and people, increased the party of Huss in a great degree; and as nothing was nearer to his heart than the diffusion of truth, he readily complied with the summons of the council of Constance to defend his opinions before the clergy of all nations. Wenceslaus gave him the count Chlum and two other Bohemians of rank for his escort. The emperor Sigismund, by letters of safe conduct, became responsible for his personal safety

and John XXIII., after his arrival at Constance, made promises to the same effect. Notwithstanding this, he was thrown into prison, after a private examination before some of the cardinals, and, in spite of the reiterated remonstrances of the Bohemian and Moravian nobles, was kept in confinement, and though sick, was not permitted an advocate. At a public examination, which took place on the 5th of June, 1415, the fathers of the council interrupted him in his defence by loud and vehement vociferation. In a trial on the 7th and 8th of June, he defended himself at length in the presence of the emperor; but his grounds of defence were not regarded, and an unconditional recantation of heresies which he had not taught, as well as those which he had, was demanded of him. Huss, however, remained firm in his belief, and the last examination ended in a sentence of death, which had long since been determined on. Huss on this occasion reminded the emperor of his promise of safe conduct, at which Sigismund could not refrain from showing his shame by a blush; yet the hatred against a man who had ventured to speak the truth was too great to allow any hopes of safety. He was, without being convicted of any error, that same day burnt alive, and his ashes were thrown into the Rhine. On his way to the pile he was observed to smile at a place where some of his writings had been burnt, and afterwards expired in the midst of joyful prayers. Even his enemies speak with admiration of his unblemished virtue and his firmness in the hour of death. The gentle and pious mind of Huss would not have approved of the terrible revenge which his Bohemian adherents took upon the emperor, the empire, and the clergy, for his murder, which produced one of the most bloody and terrible wars that ever desolated the continent of Europe.

HUTCHESON, FRANCIS, LL. D., an author of some celebrity, who was born in the north of Ireland in 1694, and in 1710 was entered a student in the university of Glasgow. After spending six years at Glasgow he returned to his native country, where he was licensed to preach among the dissenters, but afterwards set up a private academy in Dublin. He had not been long settled in that city before his merits made him generally known, and persons of all ranks cultivated his acquaintance. In 1725 the first edition of his celebrated "Inquiry into the Ideas of Beauty and Virtue" appeared without his name, but it soon became known who the author really was, and it secured him still further notice from the learned and eminent, among whom were Lord Granville, then lord-lieutenant of Ireland, Archbishop King, and the primate Boulter. In 1728 he published his "Treatise on the Passions," which has often been reprinted, and is admired even by those who dispute the soundness of its philosophy. About the same time he also wrote many philosophical papers, which were published in the collection called "Hibernicus's Letters," together with some answers to objections to his system in the public journals. After keeping a private academy in Dublin for some years with great reputation, he was in 1729 called to the chair of philosophy at Glasgow, where he spent the remainder of his life in a manner highly honourable to himself, and useful to the university of which he was a member. He died in 1747, in his fifty-third year, and left behind him a "System of Moral Philosophy" which was published by his son.

HUTCHINS, JOHN, a learned English antiquary, who was born in 1698. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1744 obtained the rectory of Wareham. Mr. Hutchins was for many years engaged in the preparation of a "History of Dorsetshire," a work of considerable merit.

HUTCHINSON, JOHN, a philosophical writer, who was born in 1674. He originally filled the office of steward to the duke of Somerset, but subsequently left the service of the duke to indulge more freely in his studies. His grace, who was then master of the horse to George I., made him his riding surveyor. In 1724 he published the first part of "Moses's Principia," in which he ridiculed Dr. Woodward's "Natural History of the Earth," and denied the doctrine of gravitation established in Newton's "Principia." In 1727 he published a second part of "Moses's Principia," containing the principles of the scripture philosophy. From this time to his death he published a volume every year or two, which, with the MSS. he left behind, were published in 1748, in twelve volumes octavo. He died in August 1737. Singular as his notions are, they are not without some defenders, who have obtained the appellation of Hutchinsonsians.

HUTTON, CHARLES.—This eminent mathematician was born in 1737, and his parents were in very humble circumstances. About the age of eighteen,



having long before lost his father, he commenced the employment of a teacher of mathematics at the village of Jesmond, near Newcastle. During the short period of his residence at this place he became for a time a close and zealous follower of the Methodists, and at length ventured to write sermons and even to preach among them. This turn of mind left him on his removal to Newcastle, to which, in consequence of his success and of the great proficiency of many of his pupils, he was soon invited. Here, although he required for his instructions about double the terms that had previously been charged in that quarter of the kingdom, his pupils soon became numerous; among them he had the honour to reckon Lord Eldon, the late lord chancellor.

Notwithstanding the multiplicity of his avocations, he found time for investigation and composition, and made himself known to the world as an author. His first avowed separate publication was a small treatise



on "Arithmetic and Book-keeping," for the use of schools. It made its appearance in the year 1764, and has since gone through numerous editions. In printing the first edition, to supply the want of proper mathematical types in so distant a provincial town as Newcastle, Dr. Hutton was obliged with his own hand to cut with a penknife on the reversed end of old types many of the algebraical characters that were used in the vulgar fractions and other parts of the work.

Soon after this he began to employ his leisure in the composition of a much more elaborate and recondite work, viz., "A Treatise on Mensuration, in Theory and Practice." At the time when Dr. Hutton commenced this undertaking, the books on mensuration that were generally adopted in seminaries of education were those of Hawney and Robertson. Of these, the first contained some attempts at theory, but exhibited in so inelegant and inaccurate a manner as to render the volume altogether useless. Robertson's work was neat and correct, but limited in its nature, being confined altogether to the exhibition of practical rules and examples. There had been, it is true, from the time of Wallis and Huygens, and especially since the invention of the fluxional analysis, a variety of disquisitions and investigations relative to rectifications, quadratures, cubatures, &c., inserted in the works of eminent mathematicians, and in the Transactions of different societies and academies, both at home and abroad; but there needed some masterly hand to seize and collect these scattered fragments, to reduce them to method and order, to correct what was erroneous, curtail what was too protracted, expand and elucidate what was incomplete and obscure, and develop with perspicuity the practical results and applications. All this is attempted with complete success in this treatise on mensuration, which was first published in periodical numbers, and then altogether in a quarto volume, in the year 1770.

About this period the professorship of mathematics in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich having become vacant, the marquis Townsend, at that time master-general of the ordnance, formed the laudable determination of giving the appointment to the individual who, by a public examination, should prove himself best qualified to discharge the duties of a mathematical professor. Dr. Hutton was persuaded by his friend Colonel Edward Williams, of the Royal Artillery, to become a candidate for the situation. His natural diffidence, which was at all times as remarkable as his talents, caused him at first to shrink from all desire to obtain a professional chair which had previously been occupied by one so deservedly eminent as Thomas Simpson; but his friends at length overcame his scruples, and he travelled from Newcastle to Woolwich, a distance of 300 miles, to propose himself as a candidate. The gentlemen appointed to conduct the examination were, Dr. Maskelyne, then astronomer royal, Bishop Horsley, the learned editor of Newton's works, and Colonel Henry Watson, translator of Euler's "Treatise on the Construction of Ships," and afterwards chief engineer in Bengal. To all these gentlemen Dr. Hutton was entirely unknown except by character. At the time appointed the competitors attended the board of examiners, by whom they were separately examined, to prevent any one from taking advantage of the examination of the others. Indeed, nothing could be fairer nor appa-

rently more impartial on the part of the examiners, nor could any examination be better conducted to answer completely the good and wise intentions of the master-general. Every candidate was closely questioned in the several branches of the mathematical sciences, concerning their principles and properties, the knowledge and choice of books and authors, both ancient and modern, the various and best modes of teaching those sciences, with every other requisite that seemed necessary in the qualification for such an office. This examination occupied the whole day till late in the evening, and at its conclusion the examiners delivered to every candidate a large collection of very difficult problems in the more abstruse parts of the mathematical and philosophical sciences, requesting their attendance again at the end of a week, with such solutions to those problems as they might be able to make out.

They met again accordingly; and though all his competitors were in a manner at home among their friends, and in the midst of their books, to assist them in making out solutions to their problems, advantages of which Dr. Hutton was debarred by his peculiar situation, yet his knowledge and talents triumphed over all difficulties. In conclusion the board of examiners drew up an unanimous report of their proceedings to the master-general and board-officers, stating that though most of the candidates were sufficiently well qualified for the discharge of the duties of the office which was the object of their competition, yet that there was one among them, a Mr. Charles Hutton, whom they found it their duty in a more particular manner to recommend to his lordship's notice, on account of the very able manner in which he had answered all their questions, and on account of his very extensive reading and acquirements.

Shortly after Dr. Hutton's removal to Woolwich he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and about the year 1779 he received the degree of LL. D. from the university of Edinburgh; his friends Dr. Matthew Stewart and Mr. Dugald Stewart being at that time joint professors of mathematics there. In January 1779 he was appointed foreign secretary to the Royal Society, an office which he held till the end of the year 1783.

In the year 1784 appeared the first edition of "The Compendious Measurer." This is a popular abridgment of the doctor's treatise of mensuration, in which all the demonstrations are omitted, but a great portion of the rules, examples, and applications, retained. The work has been very generally adopted in English schools, and has gone through several editions. A far more copious and elaborate performance was laid before the world in the succeeding year. It was entitled "Mathematical Tables; containing common, hyperbolic, and logistic logarithms; also sines, tangents, secants, and versed-sines, both natural and logarithmic; together with several other tables, useful in mathematical calculations. To which is prefixed a large and original history of the discoveries and writings relating to those subjects with the complete description and use of the tables." This work, which is comprised in a thick volume royal octavo, was occasioned by the extreme incorrectness of the tables of logarithms by Sherwin and Gardiner. On examining those tables, the doctor found many thousand errors, which he most carefully corrected. In publishing them afresh he introduced

many additions and improvements, and arranged the large tables, as well as the smaller ones of proportional parts, much more commodiously than they had ever before been: he also inserted in the volume some tables that were completely new. Farther, he introduced several striking improvements in the description and use of the whole, in the computations by logarithms, and in the resolution of plane and spherical triangles, especially the latter. But the most interesting portion of this able volume, is the extensive and erudite introduction which Dr. Hutton prefixed to the tables. It contains a sufficiently copious, and extremely fair and impartial historical account of early trigonometrical writings and tables, both natural and logarithmic. The inventions and improvements in logarithms are adequately traced; inventions are assigned to their proper authors; the peculiarities of Napier, Briggs, Kepler, Gregory, Mercator, Newton, &c., are properly discriminated, and their respective claims distributed with admirable impartiality, by means of immense labour and extensive reading.

In the succeeding year, 1786, Dr. Hutton published a quarto volume of "Tracts, Mathematical and Philosophical."

In 1787 Dr. Hutton commenced his "Mathematical and Philosophical Dictionary," which made its appearance in 1796, in two large quarto volumes. This was a work of great labour, and has been regarded by the British public as of considerable value. From the nature of such an undertaking, it must evidently contain much that is not original: it, however, contains much also that is perfectly new. Many of the articles are delivered with remarkable perspicuity; and considerable patience, impartiality, and research, are evinced in several of the historical disquisitions. Of this, the comprehensive history of algebra is an interesting specimen. The biographical sketches of the most eminent mathematicians and philosophers are often given with much spirit, and always with fidelity. On the whole, this is a work which the student of mathematics and natural philosophy may consult with pleasure, and frequently with considerable advantage.

In 1798 appeared the first edition of Dr. Hutton's "Course of Mathematics," in two octavo volumes, for the use of the cadets in the Royal Military Academy. This has gone through several editions. In 1811 a third volume of this Course was published; it was written by the doctor, in conjunction with Dr. Gregory. From 1803 to 1809 Dr. Hutton was employed, in conjunction with Drs. Pearson and Shaw, in laying before the world an "Abridgment of the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, from the Commencement in 1665 to the End of the Last Century." This important work, for his share in the execution of which Dr. Hutton is said to have received no less a sum than 6000*l.*, is comprehended in eighteen thick volumes in quarto. It was published in monthly parts, of which four constituted a volume.

In July 1807 Dr. Hutton, having suffered much from a pulmonary complaint during the preceding winter and spring, resigned his professorship at Woolwich, after having most honourably filled it for upwards of thirty-four years. On his retirement the Board of Ordnance assigned him a pension of 500*l.* per annum, in testimony of regard for his long and faithful services; and, as he had previously ac-

quired a very handsome fortune by the profits upon his literary exertions, he fixed his abode in London, but he still continued his literary labours, and five years afterwards published "Tracts on Mathematical and Philosophical Subjects; comprising, among numerous important articles, the theory of bridges, with several plans of recent improvement; also, the results of numerous experiments on the force of gunpowder, with applications to the modern practice of artillery." These volumes contain, with improvements and corrections, several of the detached papers and essays of which mention has already been made; they also include the "History of the Writings and Investigations in Trigonometry and Logarithms," as published in the "Introduction" to the Doctor's "Mathematical Tables," and the "History of the Discoveries and Inventions in Algebra," which was first published under the word Algebra, in the Doctor's "Mathematical and Philosophical Dictionary." But several of these Tracts are altogether new, and contain a methodical and perspicuous account of Dr. Hutton's valuable experiments on gunnery.

In 1819 and 1820 Dr. Hutton had some correspondence with that eminent philosopher Laplace, in reference to a point which had wounded Dr. Hutton's feelings; viz., the extraordinary omission of the doctor's name, when speaking of the determination of the mean density of the earth. Dr. Hutton's letter to Laplace remaining unanswered for several months, it was published in the "Philosophical Magazine" for February 1820, as well as in the "Journal de Physique, &c." for April 1820. In the "Connaissance des Temps" for 1823, published in November 1820, Marquis Laplace did ample justice to our English philosopher, describing the nature and difficulty of the computation relative to the earth's density; and adding, "all this was executed in the most satisfactory manner by Dr. Hutton, an illustrious mathematician, to whom the abstruse sciences are indebted for numerous other important researches."

In October 1822 the doctor, by some unavoidable exposure to the effects of a chilling atmosphere, caught a severe cold. This ended in a pulmonary complaint, which soon made rapid encroachments upon his constitution. His physical strength visibly declined; and many of his actions, and not a little of his conversation, evinced that he anticipated approaching dissolution. He retained, however, the entire possession of his faculties till very near his death, and was enabled daily to go down stairs. "On Friday, the 24th of January, 1823, only three days before the termination of his life," says his friend and successor, Dr. Olinthus Gregory, "I visited him at his own request, in consequence of a communication which he had received from the Bridge House Committee, relative to the proposed new bridge in the place of London Bridge. He could then see to read writing of the usual size without the aid of spectacles, and very well heard all that I said on my aiming at a rather slow and distinct enunciation. His respiration was difficult, as it had been for some time; but on the whole, I thought him better than when I had seen him a week before. Our chief conversation was on the subject of his letter from the city: he expatiated with his usual perspicuity and accuracy upon the theory of arcuation, the relative advantages and disadvantages of different curves selected for the intrados, the most judicious construction of centering,



&c.; he then passed to the history of the erection of Blackfriars' Bridge, sketched briefly the principles developed on that occasion by Mr. Simpson, his celebrated predecessor at Woolwich, and alluded to the scientific qualifications of Mr. Mylne, the architect of that edifice. The effort, however, greatly exhausted him, and compelled me to relinquish my intention of conversing with him on another topic. He entreated me to revisit him on that day week, and I most cheerfully assented, hoping that the interview would have its peculiar interest. But on the succeeding day, Saturday, he became worse; on Sunday still worse; sunk into a comatose state as evening advanced, and at four o'clock on the morning of Monday, January the 27th, 1823, expired."

*Chas Hutton*

**HUTTON, WILLIAM.**—This self-educated writer furnishes another striking example of the advantages of well-regulated industry, and indeed like his namesake, whose successful progress has been exhibited in the previous article, it will be seen that he owed more to perseverance than to early advantages. William Hutton was born at Derby in 1723. From the age of seven to fourteen he worked at a silk-mill, and was afterwards apprenticed to a stocking-weaver. On the expiration of his time he laboured as a journeyman, and also taught himself bookbinding, by which he added to his humble income.

In 1750 he visited Birmingham in search of a shop, and he ultimately agreed with a poor woman for the lesser half of her small shop, for which he was to pay one shilling a week rent. Walking back to Nottingham, he met Mr. Rudsall, a dissenting minister of Gainsborough, with whom his sister had once lived as a servant. Rudsall was travelling to Stamford, and offered to pay Hutton's expenses and give him eighteen-pence a day if he would accompany him. So advantageous an offer was not to be rejected, and William set off with the minister on a dreadful wet day. "He asked why I did not bring my great coat? Shame forbade an answer, or I could have said I had none. The water completely soaked through my clothes, but, not being able to penetrate the skin, it filled my boots. Arriving at the inn, every traveller I found was wet; and every one procured a change of apparel but me; I was left out because the house could produce no more. I was obliged to sit the whole evening in my drenched garments, and to put them on nearly as wet on my return the next morning." This uncomfortable trip, however, led to other advantages besides the eighteen-pences. Rudsall told Hutton's sister that he had a quantity of books to sell. She replied that William had no money to buy. "We will not differ about that," said her old master, "let him come to Gainsborough, he shall have the books at his own price." Hutton joyfully walked over to Gainsborough on the 15th of May. "The books," he says, "were about 200 pounds weight. Mr. Rudsall gave me his corn-chest for their deposit: and, for payment, drew the following note, which I signed:—

"I promise to pay to Ambrose Rudsall, one pound seven shillings, when I am able." Mr. Rudsall observed, "You never need pay this note, if you only say you are not able."

Mr. Hutton has written his own memoirs, from

which the previous passage is taken and we must let him tell his own tale of a species of poor law oppression, which had nearly been fatal to him and his infant establishment. "In this first opening of prosperity an unfortunate circumstance occurred, which gave me great uneasiness as it threatened totally to eclipse the small prospect before me. The overseers, fearful I should become chargeable to the parish, examined me with regard to my settlement; and, with the voice of authority, ordered me to procure a certificate or they would remove me from the town. Terrified, I wrote to my father, who returned for answer, 'that All Saints, in Derby never granted certificates.' I was hunted by ill-nature two years. I repeatedly offered to pay the levies (rates), which was refused. A succeeding overseer, a draper, of whom I had purchased two suits of clothes, value 10*l.*, consented to take them. The scruple exhibited a short sight, a narrow principle, and the exultation of power over the defenceless." The old laws of settlement, under which Hutton was persecuted, were greatly changed some years ago; but till within a very recent period great tyranny, of a similar nature in principle, though not so bad in degree, was practised. In the following year, 1751, Hutton was encouraged to take a better shop, with a dwelling-house attached; and ultimately continued his prosperous career till he acquired a large fortune.

In 1791 Mr. Hutton's house in Birmingham and villa near that town were burnt by the rioters, for which he obtained but inadequate remuneration from the county. He died September 20, 1815, at the advanced age of ninety-two. The works of this acute and ingenious man are, "The History of Birmingham," "Journey to London," "History of the Court of Requests, and of the Hundred Court of Birmingham," a lively and ingenious work; "History of Blackport," "History of the Battle of Bosworth Field," "History of Derby," "Description of the Roman Wall," "Remarks upon North Wales," "Tour to Scarborough," "Poems," "A Trip to Cotham," and his own "Memoirs."

**HUTTON, JAMES.**—This eminent geologist was born at Edinburgh in 1726. He was educated in his native city, and afterwards visited Leyden, where he took the degree of M. D. In 1754 he returned to Scotland, and fixed his residence in Berwickshire. About 1768 he went to reside in Edinburgh, giving his undivided attention to scientific pursuits. This gave him the advantage of enjoying with less interruption the society of his literary friends, among whom were Dr. Black, Mr. Russel, and Professor Adam Ferguson. Dr. Hutton's first publication was given to the world in 1777, entitled "Considerations on the Nature, Quality, and Distinctions of Coal and Culm." It proves that culm is the small or refuse of the infusible or stone-coal, but very different in its properties from the small of the fusible coal. A sketch of his great work, his "Theory of the Earth," the formation of which had been the object of many years of previous study, was communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh soon after its original institution.

In 1792 Mr. Hutton published "Dissertations on Different Subjects in Natural Philosophy," in which his theory for explaining the phenomena of the material world seems to coincide very closely with that of Boscovich, though there is no reason to suppose that the former was suggested by the latter.

But Dr. Hutton did not confine himself merely to physical speculations; he directed his attention also to the study of metaphysics, the result of which was the publication of a work entitled "An Investigation of the Principles of Knowledge, and of the Progress of Reason from Sense to Science and Philosophy." The metaphysical opinions advanced in this work coincide for the most part with those of Dr. Berkeley, and abound in sceptical boldness and philosophical infidelity. In 1794 appeared his "Dissertation upon the Philosophy of Light, Heat, and Fire."

In 1796 his "Theory of the Earth" was republished in two volumes 8vo. from the "Edinburgh Philosophical Transactions," with large additions and a new mineralogical system. In 1792 Dr. Hutton's health began to decline, and in the summer of 1793 he was seized with a severe illness, which, after some intervals of convalescence, terminated at last in his death, March 26, 1797.

**HUXHAM, JOHN.**—This learned physician is best known for his "Treatise on Fevers," and "Observations on Epidemic Diseases." He was born in Devonshire early in the last century, and died in 1768.

**HUYGENS, CHRISTIAN**, a celebrated Dutch astronomer, who was born at the Hague in 1629. He was from his earliest youth distinguished for his great love of learning, especially the science of mathematics. In 1649 he went to Holstein and Denmark, and shortly after visited this country, when he was made a member of the Royal Society, and on his visiting France, M. Colbert being informed of his merit, settled a considerable pension upon him to induce him to fix his residence at Paris; to which Mr. Huygens consented, and staid there from the year 1666 to 1681, when he was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences. He was the first who discovered Saturn's ring, and a third satellite belonging to that planet which had escaped the observation of previous astronomers. He brought telescopes to a much greater degree of perfection than they were then supposed to be susceptible of, made many other useful discoveries, and died at the Hague in 1695. He was the author of several excellent works. The principal of these are contained in two collections; the first of which was printed at Leyden in 1682, in quarto, under the title of "Opera Varia," and the second at Amsterdam in 1728, in two volumes quarto, entitled "Opera Reliqua."

**HUYSUM, JOHN VAN**, the most distinguished flower and fruit painter of modern times. He was born at Amsterdam in 1682, and surpassed his predecessors in softness and freshness, in delicacy and vivacity of colour, in fineness of pencilling, in the disposition of light, and in exquisite finish. His father, Justus Huysum, a picture dealer and a painter of moderate merit, at first employed him in all branches of painting; but young Huysum at a maturer age felt a decided inclination for the representation of the productions of the vegetable kingdom. He therefore separated from his father, and married about 1705. In landscape painting he followed the style of Nicholas Piemont, a much esteemed painter in Holland. But he reached the highest perfection in flower and fruit pieces: where he knew how to penetrate the secrets of nature, to seize the transitory blossom in its most perfect state, and to represent it with enchanting truth and variety of colours. He was the first who had the idea of painting flowers on a white ground. He was so jealous of rivalry that he per-

mitted no one to see him at work, nor would he take any pupils except his brother Michael and the daughter of a friend. His flowers have more truth and beauty than his fruits; the drops of dew and insects which he painted on them are like real life. Unhappy domestic circumstances, particularly the levity and prodigality of his wife, and the bad conduct of his son, rendered him melancholy; yet his works show no traces of this turn of mind. He died at Amsterdam in 1749, without leaving a fortune to his three sons, though his pictures sold for 1000 to 1400 florins.

**HYDE, EDWARD**, earl of Clarendon. (See CLARENDON.)

**HYDE, THOMAS**, a celebrated orientalist, was born in 1636 and went at an early age to King's College, Cambridge. There he was recommended to Walton, as capable of assisting him in his great Polyglot Bible. Such were his attainments at that time as to enable him to make a Latin translation of the "Constantinople Pentateuch." In 1658 he went to Oxford, where he was admitted a student of Queen's College, and soon after appointed Hebrew reader to that society. In 1697 he was appointed regius professor of Hebrew, and canon of Christ Church, Oxford. He died in 1703. His "Veterum Persarum et Medorum Historia" is a valuable work.

**HYDE DE NEUVILLE, PAUL, COUNT OF.**—During the revolution and the imperial government this nobleman was distinguished for his secret machinations against the existing authorities in France. After the restoration he sat on the extreme right in the chamber of deputies. He was born at Charité sur Loire, where his father, who left him a considerable fortune, was a button manufacturer, and at the commencement of the revolution he went to Paris, without, however, acquiring any political importance till 1797. He then joined the party known under the name of Clichy, the object of which was to overthrow the liberal institutions and to restore the old government. This they endeavoured to effect by keeping the nation in agitation, and exciting prejudices against the advocates of freedom by confounding them with the monsters of the reign of terror, and reiterating in their public speeches that the character, cultivation, and the manners of the nation were totally incompatible with free institutions. Through the weakness of the directory the project was already so far successful, by the aid of a number of venal pens, that hopes were entertained of lighting again the torch of civil war, which had been hardly extinguished by rivers of blood in the western departments. When the whole was frustrated by the unexpected return of Napoleon from Egypt, Hyde de Neuville played his part so warily that for a long time no suspicion fell on him, although he had undertaken several journeys to England in the service of the royalist party. About the end of 1799 he formed connexions with the insurgents in the western departments, particularly with George Cadoudal, Dandigné, and Bourmont, and likewise presented to the British ministry the plan of a counter revolution, when the project was overthrown by the 18th Brumaire.

The scheme, nevertheless, was not entirely abandoned, and M. Hyde had the assurance to propose to the first consul the restoration of the Bourbons. As this attempt failed, with the aid of some congenial spirits in Paris he formed a counter police, the



object of which was to watch all the steps of the government in order to take advantage of any opportunity that might present itself. This was soon discovered, and the arrest of M. Hyde was ordered, but he succeeded in escaping to England. His papers, which contained important disclosures, fell into the hands of the government, and were published in May 1800 under the title of "Correspondance Anglaise," in which he is designated under the name of Paul Berri. He was subsequently accused, in a report of Fouché, the minister of the police, of having been engaged in the plot of the infernal machine, but in a memorial published in 1801 he repelled this charge. He soon after repaired to Lyons, where he lived in great secrecy till 1805, when, through the intercession of his friends, the prayers of his wife, and especially through the influence of the empress Josephine, he received permission from Napoleon to arrange his affairs in France, and then remove to Spain. He remained in that country but a short time, but repaired with his family to the United States, where he purchased an estate in New York, in the neighbourhood of General Moreau.

M. Hyde returned to France after the fall of Napoleon in 1814, followed Louis XVIII. to Ghent, and after the second restoration was elected member of the chamber of deputies, where he took his place among the ultra-royalists, and was distinguished for his violence in urging the severest measures, by which means he not unfrequently embarrassed the ministers themselves. His zeal was particularly manifested against retaining the imperial officers, whose places he wished should be supplied by pure royalists, against the laws of amnesty, against the tribunals of justice, not occupied with men of his views, &c. The Parisians, therefore, called him and his partisans *Les Hideux*.

After the dissolution of the chamber of 1815 he was made count by Louis XVIII., and sent as a minister plenipotentiary to the United States of North America, and received the grand cross of the legion of honour. In 1822 he returned from the United States, was chosen a member of the chamber of deputies for the department of the Nièvre in 1823, and soon after sent as ambassador to Lisbon. On occasion of the disturbances raised by Prince Miguel in that country he supported the cause of the legitimate monarch, in return for which King John VI. appointed him count of Bemposta. But the British influence being predominant there, he left Lisbon in 1824, returned to Paris, and resumed his seat in the chamber, where he incurred the displeasure of the government and lost his diplomatic prospects by his opposition to Villèle and his close connexion with Chateaubriand.

HYDER, ALLY KHAN, an Asiatic prince, who rose by his talents to sovereign power, and was a formidable enemy to the English in Hindoostan, in the latter part of the last century. He was born at Dinavelli in the Mysore, and after some military service under his father, a petty chief of the country, he joined his brother in an alliance with France, and introduced European discipline among his troops. He became general-in-chief of the forces of Cinoas, who then reigned at Seringapatam as a vassal of the Great Mogul; and having quarrelled with the grand vizier of his master he marched against the capital, and obliged Cinoas not only to deliver the vizier into his power, but also to appoint him regent. He sub-

sequently assumed the sovereignty himself, and having deposed the royal family, he founded the Mohammedan kingdom of Mysore in 1760. He so greatly extended his dominions that in 1766 they contained 70,000 square miles, and afforded an immense revenue. His reign was passed in wars with the English and with the Mahrattas, the former of which powers excited his peculiar jealousy. A treaty which he made with the East India Company in 1769 was violated in 1780, and he was opposed with success in the field by our own general, Sir Eyre Coote. The Mahrattas joining in a league against him, he carried on a disadvantageous war, during the continuance of which he died, in 1782.

IBBETSON, JAMES, a theological writer best known by his sermons, and a work entitled "A Short History of the General Convocation of the Province of Canterbury." He died in 1781. His son James Ibbetson published several interesting dissertations on Saxon history and antiquities.

IGNATIUS, LOYOLA, the founder of the well-known order of the Jesuits, was born at the castle of Loyola in Biscay, in 1491, and became in the first instance page to Ferdinand V. king of Spain, and then an officer in his army. In this last capacity he signalized himself by his valour, and was wounded in both legs at the siege of Pampeluna in 1521. To this circumstance the Jesuits owe their origin; for, while he was under cure of his wound, a "Life of the Saints" was put into his hands, which determined him to forsake the military for the ecclesiastical profession. His first devout exercise was to dedicate himself to the blessed virgin as her knight: he then went a pilgrimage to the Holy Land; and on his return to Europe he continued his theological studies in the universities of Spain, though he was then thirty-three years of age. After this he went to Paris, and in France laid the foundation of his new order, the institutes of which he presented to Pope Paul III., who made many objections to them, but at last confirmed the institution in 1540. The founder died in 1555, and left his disciples two celebrated books; the one entitled "Spiritual Exercises," and the other "The Constitutions or Rules of the Order."

IGNATIUS, St. surnamed THEOPHRASTUS, one of the apostolical fathers of the church, was born in Syria, and said to have been educated under the apostle and evangelist St. John, and intimately acquainted with some other of the apostles, especially St. Peter and St. Paul. Being fully instructed in the doctrines of Christianity, he was for his eminent piety ordained by St. John, and confirmed bishop of Antioch, by those two apostles who first planted Christianity in that city, where the disciples also were first called Christians. Antioch was then not only the metropolis of Syria, but a city the most renowned of any in the east, and the ancient seat of the Roman emperors, as well as of the viceroys and governors. In this important seat he continued to sit somewhat above forty years, both an honour and safeguard of the Christian religion, till the year 107, when Trajan the emperor, flushed with a victory which he had lately obtained over the Scythians and Daci, about the ninth year of his reign, came to Antioch to make preparations for a war against the Parthians and Armenians. He entered the city with the pomp and solemnities of a triumph, and his first enquiry was about the concerns of religion. Christianity had by this time made such a progress

that the Romans grew jealous of its professors. This prince therefore had already commenced a persecution against the Christians in other parts of the empire, which he now resolved to carry on here. However, as he was naturally of a mild disposition, though he ordered the laws to be put in force against them if convicted, yet he forbade them to be sought after.

In this state of affairs Ignatius, thinking it more prudent to go himself than stay to be sent for, of his own accord presented himself to the emperor; and, it is said, there passed a long discourse between them, wherein the emperor expressing his surprise how he dared to transgress the laws, the bishop took the opportunity to assert his own innocence and to explain and vindicate his faith with freedom. The issue of this was that he was committed to prison, and this sentence passed upon him, that being incurably overrun with superstition, he should be carried bound by soldiers to Rome, and there thrown as a prey to wild beasts.

He was first conducted to Seleucia, a port of Syria, at about sixteen miles distance, the place where Paul and Barnabas set sail for Cyprus. Arriving at Smyrna he went to visit Polycarp, bishop of that place, and was himself visited by the clergy of the Asian churches round the country. In return for that kindness he wrote letters to several churches, as the Ephesians, Magnesians, and Trallians, besides the Romans, for their instruction and establishment in the faith. One of these was addressed to the Christians at Rome, to acquaint them with his present state and passionate desire not to be hindered in the course of martyrdom which he was now hastening to accomplish.

His guard, a little impatient of their stay, set sail with him for Troas, a city of Lesser Phrygia, not far from the ruins of Troy; thither also several churches sent their messengers to pay their respects to him; and hence too he despatched two epistles, one to the church of Philadelphia, and the other to that of Smyrna; and together with this last, as Eusebius relates, he wrote privately to Polycarp, recommending to him the care and inspection of the church of Antioch.

From Troas they sailed to Neapolis, a maritime town in Macedonia; thence to Philippi, a Roman colony, where they were entertained with all imaginable kindness and courtesy, and conducted forwards on their journey, passing on foot through Macedonia and Epirus, till they came to Epidaurium, a city of Dalmatia; where again taking shipping, they sailed through the Adriatic, and arrived at Rhegium, a seaport town in Italy; directing their course thence through the Tyrrhenian Sea to Puteoli, whence Ignatius desired to proceed by land, ambitious to trace the same way by which St. Paul went to Rome. But this wish was not complied with; and after a stay of twenty-four hours, a prosperous wind quickly carried them to the Roman port, the great harbour and station for their navy, built near Ostia, at the mouth of the Tyber, about sixteen miles from Rome; whither the martyr longed to come, as much desirous to be at the end of his race as his keepers, weary of their voyage, were to be at the end of their journey.

The Christians at Rome, daily expecting his arrival, were come out to meet and entertain him, and accordingly received him with a mixture of joy and sorrow. Among other expressions of his ardour for suffering he said that the wild beasts had feared and refused

to touch some that had been thrown to them, which he hoped would not happen to him. Being conducted to Rome, he was presented to the præfect, and the emperor's letters probably delivered concerning him. The interval before his martyrdom was spent in prayers for the peace and prosperity of the church. That his punishment might be the more pompous and public, one of their solemn festivals, the time of their Saturnalia, and that part of it when they celebrated their Sigillaria, was pitched on for his execution; at which time it was their custom to entertain the people with the conflicts of gladiators, and the hunting and fighting with wild beasts. Accordingly he was brought out into the amphitheatre, and the lions destroyed him, leaving nothing but a few of his bones. These remains were gathered up by two deacons who had been the companions of his journey, and being transported to Antioch were interred in the cemetery, whence by the command of the emperor Theodosius they were removed with great pomp and solemnity to the Tycheon, a temple within the city, dedicated to the public genius of it, but afterwards consecrated to the memory of the martyr.

INCHBALD, ELIZABETH.—This lady, who ranked high both as an actress and dramatic writer, was born in 1756. Having lost her father in her infancy, she came to London at sixteen years of age without a friend or companion. On her arrival in the metropolis she sought a distant relation who lived in the Strand; but, on reaching the house, was to her great mortification informed that she had retired from business, and was settled in North Wales. It was near ten o'clock at night, and her distress at this disappointment moved the compassion of the people of whom she had made her enquiries, who kindly offered to accommodate her with a lodging. This civility, however, awakened her suspicions: she had read in "Clarissa Harlowe" of various modes of seduction practised in London, and feared that similar intentions were meditating against her. A short time after her arrival, therefore, observing that she had awakened their curiosity, our young heroine seized her hand-box, and, without uttering a single word, rushed out of the house, and left them to their conjectures that she was either a maniac or an impostor.

Miss Simpson (says the writer of a notice of her life in the "Monthly Mirror") ran she knew not whither; but, being much fatigued and alarmed, knocked at a house where she saw "lodgings to let," and was just on the point of being admitted as a milliner's apprentice, when, to her great surprise and confusion, she saw at her elbow the tradesman from whose house she had just escaped, and who, impelled by curiosity, had followed her. Confounded by this detection she attempted another escape, but the door was locked, and she was detained as an impostor. Sincerity was all that she had now left, and with a flood of tears she candidly confessed her real situation; but even now her truth was doubted, and after a threat of being sent to the watch-house the poor adventurer was dismissed, and left again to wander through the streets of London.

She now walked where chance directed, exposed to all those insults which unprotected females must expect to encounter. At two o'clock in the morning she found herself at Holborn Bridge, and seeing the stage set off for York, which she understood was full, she entered the inn, pretended that she was a



disappointed passenger, and solicited a lodging. Here she remained for the night, and the next day was told that the York stage would set off again in the evening. This intelligence having been delivered with an air of suspicion which was extremely mortifying, she immediately took out all the money she had to the last half-crown, and absolutely paid for a journey she did not intend to take. The landlady, now satisfied, invited her to breakfast, but this she declined, saying she was in haste to visit a relation. Thus she escaped the expense of a breakfast, and on returning to the inn stated that her relation wished her to remain in town a few days longer. By this means she secured her apartment, and while she daily took a walk to purchase what she could afford, it was supposed by the people of the inn that she was feasting with her friend; but alas! at this time she feasted not, but was in the utmost distress; so much so that during the last two days of her residence at the inn she subsisted on two halfpenny rolls, and the water which the bottle in her bed-room contained!

During one of her daily rambles in the metropolis Miss Simpson attracted the notice of a performer at Drury Lane, who, with some difficulty learning her situation, recommended to her the stage as the most probable means of support, and offered to instruct her. A few meetings having convinced her that his designs were not honourable, she prudently declined his company, but determined to follow his advice. Accordingly she applied to Mr. King of Drury Lane, the manager of the Bristol theatre, and having communicated her intention with much stammering, which was increased by her anxiety, the comedian listened to the fair candidate with natural astonishment. She rehearsed a part before him, and many whimsical jests have been related respecting this interview. It seems, however, that Mr. King did not discourage the young lady, though he declined to give her an engagement. She next applied to Mr. Inchbald for advice. This gentleman, with whom she had hitherto been unacquainted, but whom she had frequently seen at Bury St. Edmunds, introduced her to another performer, who had purchased a share of a country theatre, and who, struck with her beauty, gave her an immediate engagement without trial. He became also her instructor, and in him she imagined she had found a friend; but she soon discovered the nature of his friendship. Indignant at the dishonourable proposals which he dared to make to her, she hastened to Mr. Inchbald, whose kindness had inspired her with confidence, and informed him of every circumstance. Afflicted by her sorrow, this gentleman endeavoured to soothe it, and recommended marriage as her only protection. "But who would marry me?" cried she. "I would," replied Mr. Inchbald with warmth, "if you would have me." "Yes, Sir, and would for ever be grateful." "And for ever love me?" rejoined he. The lady hesitated; but not doubting her love, in a few days they were married, and thus unexpectedly she became both a wife and an actress.

Mr. Inchbald first introduced his wife on the stage at Edinburgh, where she continued four years, and performed the principal characters when she was but eighteen years of age; from which it may be inferred that her previous unsuccessful attempts had proceeded principally from natural impediments and private prejudices. For one who could with only tolerable success appear at so early a period as a prin-

cipal actress, must have possessed a considerable degree of intellect and no common insight into the human character. At length Mrs. Yates, who had been long in possession of the public favour in London, visited Edinburgh, and became the formidable rival of Mrs. Inchbald, whom she is said to have treated with great incivility; in consequence of which she and her husband quitted Edinburgh and passed two years at York. Mrs. Inchbald's health being now much impaired, a tour to the south of France was recommended, and after staying abroad about a year she returned with her husband, with whom she lived in the most perfect harmony. Two years afterwards Mr. Inchbald died, when she returned to London, and continued to act for four years at Covent Garden theatre. She next visited Dublin, and performed under Mr. Dalby's management for some time.

On quitting the Dublin theatre, Mrs. Inchbald returned once more to Covent Garden, where she continued to act for some years, but suddenly relinquished it and remained in London in great poverty and obscurity. It was at this juncture that Mrs. Inchbald first began to devote her attention to dramatic composition. Having written a comedy, she read part of it to the late Mr. Harris of Covent Garden theatre, who, disapproving the piece, sent it anonymously to Mr. Colman, the manager of the Haymarket; and in his hands it remained unnoticed for several years. Notwithstanding this manifest discouragement in the outset of her literary career, she continued to persevere, and, availing herself of the rage for balloons which prevailed in the year 1784, she sent him a farce, entitled "The Mogul Tale." This piece was read, approved, and accepted. Its success with the public induced Mrs. Inchbald to remind Colman of the neglected comedy; on which he immediately replied, "I'll go home this moment and read it." He did so; and conceiving that it would answer his purpose, gave it the name of "I'll tell you what," and brought it out with deserved success in 1785. The prospects of Mrs. Inchbald now began to assume a brighter aspect. She changed her humble lodgings for others more suitable to her circumstances; for it was one great excellence in the conduct of this amiable woman, that she ever accommodated her mode of living to her means, preserving always, even in her humblest fortunes, a high sense of moral dignity and independence. The comedy of "I'll tell you what" was soon followed by others of a similar character, that of genteel comedy, Mrs. Inchbald having never attempted either tragedy or tragicomedy.

In 1789 Mrs. Inchbald retired altogether from the stage, and from that period until the year 1805 she was very actively employed in dramatic writing. In 1806 she undertook to edit a new edition of "The British Theatre, with Biographical and Critical Remarks." This work, which consists of upwards of a hundred plays, acted at the Theatres Royal, was published in twenty-five volumes, between the years 1806 and 1809. These were followed by "A Collection of Farces" on the same plan, and "The Modern Theatre," in ten volumes.

Nor did Mrs. Inchbald confine herself exclusively to dramatic composition; she was equally successful as a novel writer. The pleasing tale, entitled "Nature and Art," Mrs. Inchbald has not thought proper to designate a novel: it must, however, be con-

sidered as belonging to that class of writing. The story is interesting, the characters are accurately drawn, and the morality unexceptionable. The satire is just, the language is sprightly, but not fantastic, and the reflections are serious without being affected. The "Simple Story," a novel, in four volumes, by Mrs. Inchbald, is characterized by the same simplicity and spirit, both as to style and manner, as the former; but the characters are more various, the passions more interesting, and the plot is more intricate and surprising. This, beyond doubt, is the *chef d'œuvre* of all Mrs. Inchbald's productions; it was also the favourite work of the authoress, which is not surprising since we are informed that the leading incidents of her own life have furnished the basis of some part of the story, though diversified by numerous peculiarities, and concealed with much ingenuity. Of Mrs. Inchbald's private character it is hardly possible to speak in too encomiastic terms. During the whole period of her theatrical engagements she maintained an unblemished reputation. She was kind and benevolent in the extreme, and ever ready to minister to the necessities and comforts of her fellow-creatures. Mrs. Inchbald died at a boarding-house at Kensington, on the 1st of August, 1821.

**INES DE CASTRO.**—Pedro, son of Alphonso IV., king of Portugal, after the death of his wife Constantia in 1344, secretly married his mistress, Ines de Castro, who was descended from the royal line of Castile, from which Pedro was also descended on his mother's side. As he steadily rejected all propositions for a new marriage his secret was suspected, and the envious rivals of the beautiful Ines were fearful that her brothers and family would gain a complete ascendancy over the future king. The old king was easily blinded by the intrigues of his artful counsellors, Diego Lopez Pacheco, Pedro Coêlho, and Alvarez Gonsalvez. They persuaded him that this marriage would be prejudicial to the interests of his young grandson Ferdinand (the son of Pedro by his deceased wife). Alphonso asked his son if he was married to Ines. Pedro dared not confess the truth to his father, much less would he comply with the command of the king to renounce his mistress and unite himself to another. Alphonso again consulted his favourites, and it was resolved to put the unhappy Ines to death. The queen Beatrice, mother of the Infant, obtained intelligence of this cruel design and gave her son notice of it. But Pedro neglected not only this information, but even the warning of the archbishop of Braga as a rumour intended merely to terrify him. The first time that Pedro left Ines, to be absent several days on a hunting expedition, the king hastened to Coimbra, where she was living in the convent of St. Clara with her children. The arrival of Alphonso filled the unhappy lady with terror; but suppressing her feelings she appeared before the king, threw herself with her children at his feet, and begged for mercy with tears. Alphonso, softened by this sight, had not the heart to perpetrate the intended crime; but after he had retired his evil counsellors succeeded in obliterating the impression which had been made on him, and obtained from him permission to commit the murder which had been resolved on. It was executed that very hour; Ines expired under the daggers of her enemies. She was buried in the convent where she was murdered in 1355.

Pedro, frantic with grief and rage, took arms against his father, but the queen and the archbishop of Braga succeeded in reconciling the father and son. Pedro obtained many privileges; in return for which he promised on oath not to take vengeance on the murderers. Two years after King Alphonso died; the three assassins had already left the kingdom by his advice and taken refuge in Castile, where Peter the Cruel then reigned, whose tyranny had driven some noble Castilians into Portugal. Pedro agreed to exchange these fugitives for the murderers of Ines. Having delivered them to their master, he received in return the persons of Pedro Coêlho and Alvarez Gonsalvez; the third, Pacheco, escaped to Arragon. The two were then tortured in the presence of the king in order to make them disclose their accomplices; their hearts were torn out, their bodies burnt, and their ashes scattered to the winds. Two years after he assembled the chief men of the kingdom at Cataneda, and solemnly declared on oath that after the death of his wife Constantia he had obtained the consent of the pope to his union with Ines de Castro, and that he had been married to her in the presence of the archbishop of Guarda and of an officer of his court, Stephen Lobato. He then went to Coimbra. The archbishop and Lobato confirmed the assertions of the king, and the papal document to which the king referred was publicly exhibited. The king caused the body of his beloved Ines to be disinterred, and placed on a throne adorned with the diadem and royal robes, and required all the nobility of the kingdom to approach and kiss the hem of her garment, rendering her when dead that homage which she had not received while living. The body was then carried in a funeral car to Alcobaca. The king, the bishops, the nobles, and knights of the kingdom, followed the carriage on foot, and the whole distance from Coimbra to Alcobaca was lined on both sides by many thousands of people bearing burning torches. In Alcobaca a splendid monument of white marble was erected, on which was placed her statue with a royal crown on her head. The history of the unhappy Ines has furnished many poets of different nations with materials for tragedies—Lamothe, Count Von Soden, &c.; but the Portuguese muse has immortalized her through the lips of Camoens, in whose celebrated "Lusiade" the history of her love is one of the finest episodes.

**INFANTADO, DUKE OF**, a Spanish grandee of the first class, who was born in 1773, and was educated in France under the eye of his mother, a princess of Salm-Salm. In the war of 1793 he raised a regiment in Catalonia at his own expense. The prince of the Asturias formed an intimate union with him because the duke showed an aversion to Godoy the king's favourite. Godoy therefore obtained an order in 1806 for the duke to leave Madrid. He became in consequence still more intimately connected with the prince, who appointed him in case of the death of the king captain-general of New Castile. This appointment involved him in the affair of the Escorial; the attorney-general of the king demanded sentence of death against the duke and Escociquiz, but the popular favour towards him, and the intercession of the French ambassador Beauharnais, prevented the sentence. In 1808 the duke accompanied Ferdinand VII. to Bayonne, and on the 7th of July, 1808, he signed the constitution prepared by Napoleon at Bayonne for Spain, and became colonel in the guards



of King Joseph; but he soon after resigned his post and summoned the nation to arm against the French, and was consequently denounced as a traitor by Napoleon in 1808. In 1809 he commanded a Spanish division, but was twice defeated by Sebastiani; and notwithstanding his courage he lost the confidence of the supreme junta, who deprived him of his command. He then retired to Seville; and in 1811 the cortes appointed him president of the council of Spain and the Indies, and ambassador extraordinary to England. In June 1812 he returned to Cadiz. From hence he went to Madrid after the French had been driven from that capital in 1813, but was obliged to withdraw from that city by the command of the junta as one of the chiefs of the Servile party. Ferdinand VII. however recalled the duke, made him president of the council of Castile, and treated him with distinguished favour. On the establishment of the constitution in 1820 he resigned his place and retired to his estate near Madrid, but was banished to Majorca. In 1823 he was appointed president of the regency which was established by the French at Madrid during the war. In August he went with Victor Saez to Puerto Santa Maria to resign the government into the hands of the king, who made him a member of the council of state. The duke formed a plan for the organization of the regiments of guards, and obtained for the king in 1824 the sum of 100,000 florins for his journey to Aranjuez. In October 1825 he succeeded Zea as first minister, and changed Zea's deliberative junta into a council of state; but the machine of state, which the apostolic party checked in its course, could not be put effectually in motion. The duke contributed 500,000 francs, the amount of his income for one year, to the necessities of the state, and shortly after retired from public life.

INGEMANN, BERNHARD SEVERIN, a learned Danish poet, who was born in 1780. The works of his countryman Æblenschlager had great influence upon his productions. His patriotic odes, particularly that to the "Danebrog," (the Danish Flag), show great poetical spirit; but his epic, the "Black Knights," an allegoric poem in nine cantos, like Spenser's "Fairy Queen," often suffers from the length to which the allegory is protracted, though it contains real beauties. "Masaniello" and "Blanca" are Ingemann's most celebrated tragedies. He has also written much in prose.

INGENHOUS, JOHN, a clever naturalist, born at Breda in 1730. He practised physic in his native city, and afterwards went to London, where he was well received by Pringle, the president of the Royal Society. The empress Maria Theresa, having lost two children by the small-pox, ordered her ambassador at London to send her an English physician to vaccinate the others. Pringle recommended Ingenhous, who received honours and presents at Vienna, for the easy operation which was not then much practised. He then travelled, and finally settled near London, where he died in 1799. He was the author of several treatises on subjects of natural history, which he enriched by several important discoveries.

INGLIS, SIR JAMES, a Scottish poet, who flourished towards the middle of the sixteenth century. According to Mackenzie, he was descended from an ancient family in Fifeshire, where he was born in the reign of James IV. He was educated at St. Andrew's, went to Paris, and returned in the minority of James

V., into whose favour he ingratiated himself by his poetry, having written several tragedies and comedies besides some poetical works. He joined the French faction against the English, and in some skirmishes preceding the fatal battle of Pinkie so distinguished himself that he was knighted on the field. After the loss of that day he retired into Fife, amusing himself with his favourite studies; and in 1548 published at St. Andrew's his "Complaint of Scotland." This is a well written work for the time, and shows abundance of learning. He appears from it to have read much both in Greek and Latin, to have been well skilled in mathematics and philosophy, and to have been a great lover of his country. He died at Culross in 1554.

INGLIS, SIR HUGH.—This distinguished commercial labourer in the east was born in 1744, and educated in the High School, Edinburgh. He early in life went to Italy, and on his return, to North America, where his cousin, Mr. James Russell, a merchant of much eminence, received him into his counting-house. In each of these expeditions he was left entirely to his own discretion, without the controul which, in the army, navy, mercantile, marine, or East India Company's service, is maintained by the subordination of ranks. His conduct stood the trial. An opportunity now occurred in 1762 of sending him as a midshipman in one of the East India Company's vessels. The ship in which he embarked was detained in India; he accordingly quitted it, went up the country, and proceeded to Dacca. When the mutiny of Lord Clive's officers took place in 1766, he volunteered his services *pro tempore*, and actually set out for the army. At another period, during the war with Cossim Ali Khan, Dacca was attacked: on this occasion also he volunteered, and distinguished himself in the defence.

Dacca at this time contained some considerable men, with whom Mr. Inglis became intimately united. The name of Rennell, one of that number, requires no eulogy. Some of the maps in the "Bengal Atlas" are dedicated to these friends; one to Hugh Inglis, another to John Cartier, and another to Francis Russell. In this situation, and in this connection, was laid the foundation of Mr. Inglis's intimacy with Mr. Cartier, which had continued for some years, when in 1769 Mr. Cartier succeeded to the government of Bengal, and Mr. Inglis acted as a private secretary to his friend. Mr. Cartier's government is most honourably distinguished in the parliamentary enquiries of that period. Mr. Cartier left India in 1774, and was succeeded by Mr. Hastings. Mr. Inglis remained to close Mr. Cartier's concerns, and followed him to England in 1775. His wishes had always been moderate, and though during the latter part of his residence in India he had possessed opportunities from which large gains might have been derived, he preferred the untainted reputation, the unbroken constitution, and the small fortune with which he left India, to the hazard of character or of health, which larger and quicker gains, or a longer stay in the country, would have involved.

On his first return to England, Mr. Inglis, with his friend Mr. Francis Russell, took a house in Devonshire and resided there for seven years. At the end of that period, in the year 1784, when his practical experience of the commerce of the east (acquired in his own particular and earlier pursuits), and his knowledge of the political relations of India, a know-

ledge obtained under the wise and moderate government of Mr. Cartier, had been consolidated by the reflections of his leisure; and when he had added to these advantages, a large and comprehensive view of the interests of England, he sought and gained a seat in the court of directors of the East India Company. In that court he continued to sit with undeviating zeal and unwearied application for nearly thirty years. He thrice filled the office of chairman, and thrice that of deputy chairman; offices, the due execution of which, particularly at the period when Sir Hugh last filled them, required more personal labour, and more varied talent, than almost any one of the public offices of England.

Sir Hugh felt that the interests of the company essentially required them to protect all the learning and literature connected with their eastern empire. With this view he promoted the establishment of the library at the East India House; and with this view also he endeavoured, though without success, to engage the Rev. Joseph Townsend, the traveller in Spain, who was known to him by his works only, to make a survey and sketch of the physical and political surface of our Indian continent. He encouraged the transmission to England of every information on the sciences, the arts, the antiquities, or the statistics of the east. In a conversation with Sir Harford Jones in the year 1797, when that distinguished diplomatist returned from Bagdad, Sir Hugh requested to be furnished with such memoranda on the present state of the ruins of Babylon as would enable the court of directors to require their future resident to collect and transmit to England specimens of the inscription-bricks, stones, &c. It is a singular coincidence, that Sir Harford Jones, being himself sent out as resident, received and executed the paragraph of the dispatch thus drafted by himself. The bricks were accordingly sent home; and a large stone, covered on five sides by an inscription in the arrow-headed character, was also presented by Sir Harford Jones to Sir Hugh Inglis, by whom it was deposited in the Museum at the East India House. From this stone, a plate was, by the directions of the East India Company, engraved and dedicated to Sir Hugh Inglis, and copies circulated through the different universities of Europe.

Sir Hugh objected to the expence, but not to the system of the college at Fort William: but he objected both to the system and to the expence of the college at Haleybury, which he regarded as directed in a great measure to objects less attainable in England than in India, and as composed of pupils at an age too tender for the influence of the principle of honour, which controuls young men at college, and too old for the influence of corporal punishment, which controuls boys at school. Another motive operated still more strongly on his mind: he felt that the pecuniary burden of the college was heavy upon many parents; that it necessarily narrowed the class of persons from whom the civil servants were to be selected, and confined it to those who might not feel an expenditure of 100*l.* per annum as too large for the education of one boy. He was perfectly aware however of the expediency, or rather of the obligation and the necessity, of educating the future administrators of India so as to be competent for the high duties hereafter assigned them.

On the great question of Christianity in India Sir Hugh's opinions were never violent; and latterly, by an approximation mutually made, differed little,

if at all, from those of the missionaries. He felt, when this question was agitated in 1807 and 1808, as all thinking men must feel, that if Christianity be true every other religion must be false; and therefore he never admitted a latitudinarian indifference or an infidel hostility to the progress of the Gospel; but he saw danger in any direct attempt under the sanction of government to convert the natives of India, while he calculated low the chances of success in respect to the immediate object. He was of opinion that the number of converts thus made would be very few and their characters indifferent, while the irritation arising from the attempt would be great. Without deciding on the correctness of this opinion, it is sufficient to say that Sir Hugh lived to witness with pleasure the extension of the system of schools to British India. From the indirect effects of education in the promotion of the Gospel he anticipated a success far wider and more permanent than from any direct attempts at conversion.

The last public measure of Indian policy in which Sir Hugh took a leading part, was the renewal of the charter of the company. When the period approached in which legislative intervention became necessary, it was essential to the maintenance of the interests of the East India Company, identified as they had long been with those of the nation, that they should be represented by a man of eminent experience, moderation, and firmness. These qualities were combined in Sir Hugh Inglis, and rendered him equally acceptable to the government with whom he conducted the negotiation, to the constituent body in whose name he acted, and even to those who urged the admittance of the rival claims.

In 1797 Sir Hugh Inglis was appointed colonel of the second regiment of the Royal East India Volunteers. In 1801 he was created a baronet of the United Kingdom. At the general election in 1802 he was chosen member of parliament for Ashburton, and sat to the close of that parliament. In 1813 he finally quitted the East India direction. When he had once resolved to withdraw from public life he resolved to withdraw altogether and not to retain a longing, lingering connection with the scenes of former times, still less to interfere in questions of patronage. He fixed himself in Bedfordshire; and, in the enjoyment of his farm, his garden, and his books, appears to have enjoyed uninterrupted happiness. He survived his retirement seven years, dying August 21st, 1820.

INGRAM, ROBERT, a theological writer who was born at Beverly in Yorkshire, in 1727. He was educated at Cambridge, and held several valuable benefices in the church of England. He published several works, amongst which we may particularly enumerate his "View of the Great Events of the Seventh Plague," 1785; "An Account of the Ten Tribes of Israel, being in America, originally written by Manasseh Ben Israel, with Observations," 1792; and "A Complete and Uniform Explanation of the Prophecy of the Seven Vials of Wrath." Mr. Ingram died in 1804.

INGULPHUS, abbot of Croyland, and author of the history of that abbey, was born in London early in the eleventh century. He received the first part of his education at Westminster; and when he visited his father, who belonged to the court of Edward the Confessor, he was so fortunate as to engage the attention of Queen Edgitha. That amiable and



learned princess took a pleasure in examining the young scholar on his progress in grammar, and in disputing with him in logic; nor did she ever dismiss him without some present as a mark of her approbation. From Westminster he went to Oxford, where he applied to the study of rhetoric and of the Aristotelian philosophy, in which he made greater proficiency than any of his contemporaries. When he was about twenty-one years of age he was introduced to William duke of Normandy, and made himself so agreeable to that prince that he appointed him his secretary, and carried him with him into his own dominions. In a little time he became the prime favourite of his prince, and the dispenser of all preferments; in which difficult station he confessed he "did not behave with a proper degree of modesty and prudence." This excited the envy and hatred of many of the courtiers, to avoid the effects of which he obtained leave from the duke to go on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. With a party of thirty horsemen he joined Sigfrid duke of Mentz, who with many German nobles, bishops, clergy, and others, was preparing for a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. When they were all united they formed a company of no fewer than 7000 pilgrims. In their way they spent some time at Constantinople, performing their devotions in the several churches. In their passage through Lycia they were attacked by a tribe of Arabs, who killed and wounded many of them, and plundered them of a prodigious quantity of money. Those who escaped from this disaster at length reached Jerusalem, and visited all the holy places. They intended to have bathed in Jordan, but, being prevented by the roving Arabs, they embarked on board a Genoese fleet at Joppa, and landed at Brundisium, from whence they travelled through Apulia to Rome. Having gone through a long course of devotions in this city, at the several places distinguished for their sanctity, they separated, and every one made the best of his way into his own country. When Ingulph and his company reached Normandy, they were reduced to twenty half-starved beings, without money, clothes, or horses.

Ingulph was now so much disgusted with the world, that he resolved to forsake it, and became a monk in the abbey of Fontenelle in Normandy; in which, after some years, he was advanced to the office of prior. When his old master was preparing for his expedition into England in 1066, he was sent by his abbot with 100 merks in money, and twelve young men mounted and armed, as a contingent from their abbey. Ingulph, having found a favourable opportunity, presented his men and money to the prince, who received him very graciously. In consequence of this he raised him to the government of the rich abbey of Croyland in Lincolnshire, in which he spent the last thirty-four years of his life, governing that society with great prudence, and protecting their possessions from the rapacity of the neighbouring barons by the favour of his royal master. The lovers of English history and antiquities are much indebted to this learned abbot for his excellent history of the abbey of Croyland from its foundation in 664 to 1091. Ingulph died of the gout, at his abbey, in 1109.

INNOCENT, the name of thirteen popes, of which we can only notice the most distinguished. Innocent I. was a native of Albano, and succeeded Anastasius I. as bishop of Rome in 402. He was in great favour with

the emperor Honorius, and induced him to take severe measures against the Donatists. He supported St. Chrysostom and renounced the communion with the eastern churches on account of their treatment of that eminent man. In 409 he was sent to obtain terms of peace from Alaric, but without success, in consequence of the opposition of the pretorian præfect Jovius. Rome was taken and pillaged in 410, while Innocent was still in Ravenna. He condemned the Pelagians as heretics in a letter to the African churches, but excited their opposition by his arrogant tone. He died in 417, or according to some in 416. His decrees and letters prove his zeal for the establishment of the supremacy of Rome; but part of them are considered by many critics as spurious.

Innocent II., a Roman of noble birth, who was elected pope in 1130 by a part of the cardinals, whilst the others elected Peter of Leon, who took the name of Anacletus. Innocent fled to France, where, by the mediation of Peter of Clairvaux, he was acknowledged by the council of Étampes, by Louis VI., and soon after by Henry II. of England; also by the German king Lothaire, who conducted him in 1133 to Rome, where he occupied the Lateran, whilst Anacletus occupied the castle of Crescentius, the church of St. Peter, and a large part of the city. Innocent was soon obliged to retire to Pisa, and, though the emperor reinstated him in 1137, Anacletus maintained himself until his death in 1138. Having prevailed against another anti-pope, he held the second œcumenical council in the Lateran, where nearly 1000 bishops condemned Arnold of Brescia and his heresy, declared all the decrees of Anacletus null, and excommunicated Roger of Sicily, who had supported the latter. But Roger waged war against the pope, made him prisoner, and obliged Innocent to acknowledge him as king, absolve him from excommunication, and invest him and his heirs with Apulia, Calabria, and Capua. Towards the end of his pontificate he put France under an interdict, and had to struggle with constant disturbances in Rome and Tivoli. He died in 1143.

Innocent III., Lothaire, count of Segni, born at Anagni in 1161, studied in Rome, Padua, and Bologna. On the death of Celestine III. in 1198, Cardinal John of Salerno declined the pontificate which had been offered to him, and proposed Lothaire, who was unanimously elected at the age of thirty-seven. The death of the emperor Henry VI. in 1197 had thrown the imperial affairs in Italy into the greatest confusion. Innocent, in the vigour of manhood, endowed by nature with all the talents of a ruler, possessed of an erudition uncommon at that time, and favoured by circumstances, was better qualified than any of his predecessors to elevate the papal power, which he considered as the source of all secular power. By his clemency and prudence he gained over the inhabitants of Rome, obliged the imperial præfect to take the oath of allegiance to him, and directed his attention to every quarter where he believed, or pretended to believe, that a papal claim of property or of feudal rights existed. From the imperial senechal, Duke Marquard of Romagna, he required homage for the Mark of Ancona, and on his refusal to comply, took possession of the Mark with the assistance of the inhabitants, who were dissatisfied with the imperial government, and excommunicated Marquard, obliged the Duke Conrad of Spoleto to resign that duchy, and would also have taken

Ravenna if the archbishop had not prevented him. He concluded treaties with many cities of Tuscany for the mutual protection of their liberties and those of the church. Thus he soon obtained possession of the ecclesiastical states in their widest extent. He conferred Naples on the widowed empress Constantia and her minor son, afterwards the emperor Frederic II., after having abolished all the privileges conceded by Adrian IV. in 1156,—assumed the guardianship of the young prince after the decease of the empress, and frustrated all the machinations of Marquard to deprive him of his inheritance.

In Germany Innocent favoured the election of Otto IV. against Philip of Suabia, crowned him in 1209 at Roine, but soon became involved in disputes with him on account of his violations of the promises which he had made to the church. He excommunicated Philip Augustus, king of France, laid the kingdom under an interdict in 1200 because Philip had repudiated his wife, Ingelburge, and obliged the king to submit. He was still more decided in his treatment of John, king of England, who refused to confirm the election of Stephen Langton as archbishop of Canterbury. Innocent laid the kingdom under an interdict, and in 1212 formally deposed him, and instigated the king of France to attack England. John was finally obliged to submit, resigned his territories to Rome, and received them as a papal fief from Innocent, from whom he was unable to obtain absolution until he had paid large sums of money. Almost all Christendom was now subject to the pope; two crusades were undertaken at his order, and his influence extended even to Constantinople. Innocent was one of the greatest of popes and rulers; he acted in accordance with the principles laid down in his writings; he enforced purity of morals in the clergy, and was himself irreproachable in private life; yet the cruel persecution of the Albigenses in the south of France, which he encouraged, though without approving of all its rigours, and the inquisitorial tribunals established by him in 1198, from which the inquisition itself originated, are stains on his pontificate, but partially effaced by a consideration of the spirit of the times and the disordered state of the Christian world. It may be said of his rule, as of that of Gregory VII., whom he most resembles, that in those times the power of the pope was salutary, as a bond of union for Europe, in which the still firmer bond of a common civilization and knowledge did not as at present exist. His attacks on the secular power are to be considered as a struggle between the ecclesiastical and secular powers, which was natural and necessary in the developement of European civilization. If he had not subdued the monarchs they would have crushed the papal power. In 1215 he held a council of more than 1300 archbishops, bishops, prelates, and ambassadors of European princes, by which transubstantiation in the Lord's supper and auricular confession were established as dogmas, Frederic II. was acknowledged as German emperor, and the Franciscan and Dominican orders were confirmed. Innocent died soon after, on the 16th of July, 1216.

Innocent XI. was born at Como in 1611, and served in his youth as a soldier in Germany and Poland, took orders at a later period, and rose, through many important posts, until he was elected pope in 1676, on the death of Clement X. He was eminent for his probity and austerity; he zealously opposed nepotism and simony, restrained luxury and excess, and even

prohibited women from learning music. Though hostile to the Jesuits, whose doctrine of probabilities he publicly disapproved, and attacked their opinions in the decree *Super quibusdam axiomat. moralibus*; yet he was obliged to condemn Molinus and the Quietists. He determined to abolish the privileged quarters (the ground for a considerable distance around the palaces of certain ambassadors in Rome, which was considered as foreign territory, in which criminals were out of reach of the authorities); but Louis XIV., the vainest of monarchs, would not yield to so just a claim, occupied Avignon and imprisoned the papal nuncio in France; in consequence of which the authority, and particularly the acknowledgment of the infallibility of the pope, received a severe blow by the *IV. Propositiones Cleri Gallicani*, in 1682. These disputes were highly favourable to the English revolution, as it induced the pope to unite with the allies against James II., in order to lower the influence of Louis XIV. His conduct in this respect has led many Catholics to assert that he sacrificed the Catholic religion to his personal resentment; and it was pointedly said, that "to put an end to the troubles of Europe it was only necessary for James II. to become a Protestant and the pope a Catholic." Bayle, however, judiciously observes, that the extreme predominance of any great Catholic sovereign is injurious to the interests of the papacy, and mentions the similar conduct of Sixtus V., another able pope, in relation to Philip II. of Spain and Queen Elizabeth of England. Innocent died in August 1689, leaving behind him the character of an able and economical pontiff, and of an honest and moral man. Had he not died, an open rupture with France might have ensued.

IRELAND, JOHN, a print collector and author of some celebrity in the last century. The "Memoirs of Henderon the Actor," and the "Illustrations of Hogarth," are the only literary works of consequence which bear his name. He died in 1808.

IRELAND, SAMUEL, a miscellaneous writer, who published a variety of "Picturesque Tours," and other works. He is best known for the "Shakspeare Forgery." This was the production of a large quantity of manuscripts, pretended to be in the handwriting of Shakspeare, and consisting of poems, letters, and one entire play. These were exhibited at his house in Norfolk Street for the inspection of the public, and for some time divided their opinions. Connoisseurs, however, in ancient writings, and particularly in the genius and history of Shakspeare, ultimately detected the fraud, although it did for a time impose on many eminent men in the literary world. After complete detection it appeared that Mr. Ireland had been himself the dupe of his own son; but his obstinacy in maintaining the authenticity of these papers long after he ought to have given them up, injured his character, and it is thought hastened his death, which took place in July 1800. The MSS. of Shakspeare were published under the title of "Miscellaneous Papers and Legal Instruments, under the Hand and Seal of William Shakspeare, including the Tragedy of King Lear, &c.," at the price of four guineas to subscribers.

The son we have thus alluded to was a clever and intelligent, but misguided man, whose literary fraud was perpetrated in early youth, and who afterwards lived to repent of his error. He died lately.

IRENÆUS, ST., a bishop of Lyons, was born in Greece about the year 120. He was the disciple of



Pappias and St. Polycarp, by whom it was said he was sent into Gaul in 157. He stopped at Lyons, where he performed the office of a priest; and in 178 was sent to Rome, where he disputed with Valentinus and his two disciples Florinus and Blastus. At his return to Lyons he succeeded Photinus, bishop of that city; and suffered martyrdom in 202, during the reign of Severus. He wrote many works in Greek, of which there only remains a barbarous Latin version of his five books against heretics, some Greek fragments in different authors, and Pope Victor's letter mentioned by Eusebius. The best editions of his works are those of Erasmus in 1526; of Grabe in 1702; and of Father Massuet in 1710. St. Irenæus's style is close, clear, and strong, but plain and simple. Dodwell has composed six curious dissertations on the works of St. Irenæus.

He ought not to be confounded with St. Irenæus the deacon, who in 275 suffered martyrdom in Tuscany, under the reign of Aurelian; nor with St. Irenæus who suffered martyrdom on the 25th of March, 304, during the persecution of Dioclesian and Maximianus.

IRENE, empress of the east, celebrated for her wit and beauty, but detestable for her cruelty, having sacrificed her own son to the ambition of reigning alone. She died in 803.

IRETON, HENRY, a distinguished leader in the parliamentary army, and a near relative of Cromwell, who highly estimated his talents. He was descended from a good family, and was brought up to the law, but when the civil contests commenced he joined the parliamentary army. He commanded the left wing at the battle of Naseby, which was defeated by the furious onset of Prince Rupert, and he himself wounded and made prisoner. Ireton soon recovered his liberty, and took a great share in all the transactions which threw the parliament into the power of the army. It was from his suggestion that Cromwell called together a secret council of officers to deliberate upon the disposal of the king's person and the settlement of the government. He had also a principal hand in framing the ordinance for the king's trial, and sat himself as one of the judges.

Ireton accompanied Cromwell to Ireland in 1649, and was left by him in that island as lord-deputy. He reduced the natives to obedience with great vigour and ability, but not without a degree of severity which amounted to cruelty, never giving quarter to any prisoner who appeared to have been concerned in the Irish massacre. Having crowned his military career with the capture of Limerick, he was seized with a pestilential disease, and died in that city in November 1651, sincerely lamented by the republicans, who revered him, says Grainger, "as a soldier, a statesman, and a saint." An attempt was subsequently made to degrade his memory by the licentious monarch who was afterwards called to the throne, by suspending the body of the patriot to the gibbet, but this uncalled-for severity recoiled on its author.

IRVINE, WILLIAM, was born in Ireland, and educated for the profession of medicine. During the war between France and England, which commenced in 1754 and ended in 1763, he served for a time as a surgeon on board of a British ship of war, and soon after the conclusion of peace removed to America, and continued the practice of his profession in Carlisle, Pennsylvania. He was a member of the convention which met at Philadelphia on the 15th of July,

1774, and recommended the meeting of a general congress. In January 1776 he was authorized to raise and command a regiment of the Pennsylvania line, which in a few months afterwards was fully equipped. In the following June he was taken prisoner in the unsuccessful attempt made by General Thompson to surprise the vanguard of the British army then stationed at the village of Trois Rivières in Canada, and was carried to Quebec, where he remained in durance until April 1778, when he was exchanged. Immediately after his release he was promoted to the command of the second Pennsylvania brigade, and in 1781 he was entrusted with the defence of the north-western frontier, which was threatened by the British and Indians. The charge was one that required not only courage and firmness, but great prudence and judgment, and was executed by General Irvine in a manner which fully justified the choice of him made by General Washington. After the war he was elected a member of congress under the confederation, and he was also a member of the convention which framed the constitution of Pennsylvania. When the "whiskey insurrection" broke out in that state in 1794, two sets of commissioners, the one representing the United States and the other the commonwealth, were first despatched to the insurgents, in order to induce them to return to their duty, and amongst the latter was General Irvine. This measure, however, proving ineffectual, force was resorted to, and General Irvine was placed at the head of the Pennsylvania militia, and contributed greatly to the successful result of the affair. About this time he removed with his family from Carlisle to Philadelphia, where he became intendant of military stores and president of the Pennsylvania society of Cincinnati. He continued to reside in that city, universally respected for his public and private virtues, until the summer of 1804, when he died of an inflammatory disorder in the sixty-third year of his age.

IRVING, EDWARD.—This very eloquent and popular preacher was a native of Scotland, and appears to have been early distinguished for his oratorical powers. He first excited public attention in the metropolis when preaching at the Caledonian Chapel, Hatton Garden, and a splendid Gothic edifice was afterwards erected by his exertions in the neighbourhood of Brunswick Square. This he afterwards abandoned in consequence of some peculiar tenets which he promulgated. He died early in 1835, having published a variety of theological works, of which the principal were his "Orations" and "Dissertations on Daniel and the Revelations."

ISÆUS, a Greek orator, born at Colchis in Syria, was the disciple of Lysias, and the master of Demosthenes, and taught eloquence at Athens about 344 years B. C. Sixty-four orations are attributed to him, but he composed no more than fifty, of which only ten are now remaining. He took Lysias for his model, and so well imitated his style and elegance that we might easily confound the one with the other were it not for the figures which Isæus first introduced into frequent use. He was also the first who applied poetical eloquence to politics, in which he was followed by his disciple Demosthenes.

ISOCRATES, one of the greatest orators of Greece, was born at Athens 436 years B. C. He was the son of Theodorus, who had enriched himself by making musical instruments, and gave his son a liberal education. Isocrates was the disciple of Pro-

dicus, Gorgias, and other great orators. He endeavoured at first to declaim in public, but without success; he therefore contented himself with instructing his scholars and making private orations. He always showed great love for his country; and being informed of the loss of the battle of Cheronea, he abstained from eating for four days, and died in consequence, aged ninety-eight. There are still extant twenty-one of his discourses or orations, which are excellent performances, and have been translated from the Greek into Latin by Wolfius. Isocrates particularly excelled in the justness of his thoughts and the elegance of his expressions. There are also nine letters attributed to him.

IVAN, or IWAN, the name of several persons distinguished in Russian history. The principal of these was Ivan the Terrible, who ruled the destinies of an extensive kingdom. On the death of his father Ivan was only three years of age. Helena his mother, a woman unfit for the toils of government, impure in her conduct, and without judgment, assumed the office of regent, which she shared with a paramour whose elevation to such a height caused universal disgust, particularly among the princes of the blood and the nobility. Under such unpropitious auspices as these the young Ivan, the inheritor of a consolidated empire, grew up to manhood. His disposition, naturally fierce, headstrong, and vindictive, was most insidiously cultivated into ferocity by the artful counsellors that surrounded him. His earliest amusements were the torture of wild animals, the ignoble feat of riding over old men and women, flinging stones from ambuscades upon the passers by, and precipitating dogs and cats from the summit of his palace. Such entertainments as these, the sport of boyhood, gave unfortunately too correct a prognostic of the fatal career that lay before him. By a curious retribution the first exercise of this terrible temper, in its application to humanity, fell upon the Schuisky, who certainly of all mankind best merited its infliction. When Ivan was in his thirteenth year he accompanied a hunting party at which Prince Gluisky, —another factious lord,—and the president of the council, were present. Gluisky, himself a violent and remorseless man, envied the ascendancy of Schuisky, and prompted the young prince to address him in words of great heat and insult. Schuisky, astonished at the youth's boldness, replied in anger. This was sufficient provocation. Ivan gave way to his rage, and on a concerted signal Schuisky was dragged out into the public streets and worried to death by dogs in the open daylight. The wretch expired a life of guilt by the most horrible agonies. Thus freed from one tyranny Ivan was destined for another, which however accepted him as its nominal head, urging him onward to acts of blood which were but too congenial to his taste. The Gluisky, having got rid of their formidable competitor in the race of crime, now assumed the direction of affairs. Under their administration the prince was led to the commission of the most extravagant atrocities, and the doctrine was inculcated upon his mind that the only way to assert authority was by manifesting the extremity of its wrath. He was taught to believe that power consisted in oppression. They applauded each fresh instance of vengeance, and initiated him into a short method of relieving himself from every person who troubled or offended him by sacrificing the victim on the spot.

From the catalogue of crimes committed by a monster thus educated in blood we extract the following as an example of the horrors of despotism, under which supreme power over the lives and fortunes of millions of human beings may fall into the hands of a madman, for such was Ivan the Terrible:—"To support the system of profligate expenditure to which the whole life of this extraordinary man inevitably led, he laid on the most exorbitant taxes, and lent himself to the most unjust monopolies. Nor was he satisfied with exceeding in this way the most arbitrary examples that had preceded him; but, with a recklessness of human life, and a disregard of the common decencies and obligations of the worst condition of society, he proceeded to rifle his subjects of their private means, sometimes upon slight pretences, but oftener without any pretence whatever. It would almost appear that his appetite for sights of destruction had palled with ordinary gratification, and that he had jaded his invention to discover new modes of cruelty. Having exhausted in all its varieties the mere art of slaughter, he proceeded to make his objects violate before his eyes the sacred feelings of nature. He demanded fratricide and parricide at their hands: one man was forced to kill his father, another his brother; eight hundred women were drowned, and, bursting into the houses of his victims, he compelled the survivors to point out the places where the remnant of their wealth was concealed. His excesses carried him beyond all law, human and divine. He assumed the place, and even usurped the attributes of the Deity, and identified himself to a proverb with the Creator. Not content with indulging his insane passions, in the frenzy of an undisciplined mind he trampled the usages of Russia under foot, and married seven wives, which was held by the tenets of the Greek religion to be a crime of great magnitude. In the midst of these horrors Ivan did not fail to pursue both his devotion and his amusements. Assuming the authority of a god he did not forget the external forms by which divinity is revered, and his palace presented an alternate round of prayers and carousals. His chief pastimes were in keeping with the natural ferocity of his character. Bears were procured from Novogorod for his amusement, and his greatest pleasure was to watch from his windows when a group of citizens were collected in the streets, and let slip two or three of the hungry and irritated animals amongst them. The flight of the terrified Muscovites and the cries of the victims excited bursts of loud and long-continued laughter. It is said that he used to send a small piece of gold to those who happened to be injured for life in these perilous freaks, by way perhaps of insulting their agonies. Another of his entertainments consisted in the company of jesters, whose especial business it was to divert him, particularly before and after the executions. The jesters, however, frequently suffered dearly for bad jokes. One of the most distinguished of the court mimics was the prince Goosdef. On one occasion Ivan, being disappointed in a joke, poured the boiling contents of a soup basin over the prince's head. The unfortunate joker, in the pains of the moment, attempted to retreat from the table, but the tyrant struck him in a vital part with a knife, and he fell senseless to the ground. A physician was immediately sent for. 'Preserve my faithful servant,' cried the czar, 'I have jested a little too hard with



him!" "So hard," replied the physician, "that only God and your majesty can restore him to life: he breathes no more." Ivan looked contemptuously at the dead body, called the prince a dog, and returned to his amusements."

Ivan VI. was son of the grand-princess Anna and of Antony Ulrich, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. The empress Anna took him, in 1740, out of the hands of her niece, declared him her son, and gave him an apartment near her own. She soon after declared the child her successor, and her favourite Biron was to be his guardian and regent. Biron caused the oath of allegiance to be taken to the prince, and when he was banished the parents of the child assumed the reins of government until the daughter of Peter I., Elizabeth, ascended the throne. The young Ivan was taken from his cradle by soldiers, and shared the fate of his banished and imprisoned parents. He was at first imprisoned at Ivangorod, near Narva, it being intended to keep him always in Russia; but his parents, who were confined at first in Riga, were to be sent to Germany. He never saw them again, but always remained a prisoner in different places, particularly in Western Prussia. In 1756 he was carried to the fortress of Schlüsselburg. In 1763 Mirowitch, a nobleman of the Ukraine, who was lieutenant in the garrison of the above fortress, conceived the design of delivering the prince. He induced several soldiers to assist him, and by means of a forged order from Catharine he attempted to obtain admission to Ivan; but two officers, who guarded him, when they saw that resistance was fruitless, stabbed the unfortunate prisoner in consequence of an order formerly given by the empress Catharine that he should be put to death in case of an attempt to deliver him by force. She had already destroyed every proof of the claims of the prince to the throne, and prohibited, under penalty of death, the keeping of coins which could remind the nation of him. The chapel in Schlüsselburg, in which he was buried, was afterwards destroyed.

JACKSON, JOHN.—This eminent artist was born at Lavingham in 1778. He was apprenticed to the village tailor, but early in life showed a marked predilection for portrait painting. Some of his sketches having fallen into the hands of Sir George Beaumont, that distinguished patron of the fine arts purchased his indentures from his master and advised him to make an attempt to paint in oil, lending him, for his improvement, a three-quarter head, a portrait of the father of George Colman the younger, painted by Sir Joshua Reynolds. Jackson was thus provided with a prototype; but the prepared pigments were desiderata which the resources of a country village could not be expected to supply. Genius and perseverance, however, will find the means of surmounting difficulties insuperable to all but those who have that irrepressible ardour which boldly grapples with all things possible. There was in the neighbourhood a house-painter and glazier; and, the ingenious young artist being a favourite with every one, this humble handicraftsman opened to him his store; and from such rude *materiel* as his back premises afforded, the tyro contrived to compound a palette; and produced, to the astonishment of his patron, a copy of the picture, so veritably like in colour, execution, and effect, that Sir George was at once satisfied that nature had intended his *protégé* for a painter. It was the more fortunate

for the youth that Sir George Beaumont happened to be an amateur painter of great talent, well skilled in all the arcana of the art, a consummate connoisseur, and associated in the most friendly intimacy with all the first artists of the age. Under such auspices, it will not be matter of surprise that the young painter made rapid progress in his studies, and gave early presage of his future excellence as a master of the British school.

Soon after this period, and with the concurrence of the earl of Mulgrave, who had munificently rewarded him for some small portraits which he had taken from members of his lordship's family, Sir George proposed to Jackson the propriety of going to the metropolis to pursue his studies, saying, "You must attend the drawing-school of the Royal Academy in the evening, and copy pictures by day. Now you shall have 50*l.* annually during your studies, which, with a table at my house in town at my expense, will, I think, be ample for a youngster who is desirous of improvement in his art. Be steady, and you will be secure of my friendship, and that of my worthy friend Lord Mulgrave." It was so arranged, and the young painter, by his exemplary conduct, did all that was becoming him to deserve and maintain as he did the friendship, and even the affection, of these distinguished patrons to the end of their lives. Mr. Jackson, having accomplished the term appropriated to the study of drawing, commenced portrait-painter in the metropolis; and being supported by the influence of the earl of Mulgrave, and recommended by Sir George Beaumont, obtained much employment. For some years, however, subsequently to this, his portraits in oil obtained for him no great distinction.

On the 6th of November, 1815, Mr. Jackson was elected an associate of the Royal Academy, and on the 10th of February, 1817, a royal academician. In the year 1816 he accompanied General the Hon. Edmund Phipps in a tour through Holland and Flanders; and in 1819, in company with Mr. Chantrey the sculptor, he made the tour of Italy, by way of Geneva, Milan, Padua, Venice, Bologna, Florence, and Rome. At the imperial city he was elected a member of the Academy of St. Luke. Mr. Jackson was twice married. By his first wife he had a daughter, yet living. After remaining a widower three or four years, he married the daughter of James Ward, Esq., R. A., by whom he had three children.

Mr. Jackson manifested so great an affection for the place of his nativity, that for many years he seldom failed to make an annual visit to the scene of his early associations. As a mark of his reverence for the church there, he completed a picture, which he presented to the parish for an altar-piece, together with the sum of 50*l.* to enlarge the space from which it was to receive light: the subject, "Christ in the Garden," from the invaluable cabinet picture by Correggio, in the collection of the duke of Wellington. His grace lent Mr. Jackson the picture for this express purpose; but the figures were enlarged to the size of life. Notwithstanding this gift to the altar of the established church, Mr. Jackson was a sectarian, being one of the most esteemed amongst the congregation denominated Methodists, and one of the strictest of the persuasion. The death of this distinguished artist took place at his house in St. John's Wood, on the 1st of June, 1831,

**JACKSON, ROBERT.**—This learned member of the medical faculty was for many years at the head of the medical department of the British army while serving in the West Indies and on the continent of Europe. He distinguished himself by the introduction of several improvements in the military hospitals of which he held the office of inspector. His death took place in April 1827. Dr. Jackson was the author of several important works, among which we may mention a treatise "On the Fevers of Jamaica, with Observations on the Intermittents of America." "Remarks on the Constitution of the Medical Staff of the British Army," and "An Exposition of the Practice of Affusing Cold Water on the Body as a Cure for Fever."

**JACKSON, WILLIAM,** a musical composer, who was born in 1730 at Exeter, and received the rudiments of a classical education with a view to his following one of the liberal professions. His taste for music displayed itself however so decidedly while he was yet a youth that his friends were induced to place him under Travers, the organist of the cathedral belonging to his native city. Having passed two years in the metropolis, where he availed himself of the instructions of some of the best musicians of his day, he returned to Exeter in 1750, and, succeeding eventually to the situation of organist, there passed the remainder of his life. In 1782 he published two octavo volumes, containing "Thirty Letters on Various Subjects," which went through three editions. He also printed in 1791 "Some Observations on the Present State of Music in London." His musical compositions are still justly popular, and are distinguished by chasteness of conception, ingenuity, and truth of expression. He died in 1804.

**JACOB, GILES,** a dramatic writer and poet, who was born in 1686 at Romsey in Southampton, and was educated for the law, but afterwards became steward and secretary to the Hon. William Blathwayt, a celebrated courtier in the reign of King William. These are the only particulars of his life which have been handed down, and are what he inserted in his "Poetical Register," where he also informs us that he was a great admirer of poets. He died in May 1744. His admiration of poetry, although it could not make him a poet, led him to inquire into poetical history, and gradually produced his "Poetical Register, or Lives and Characters of the English Dramatic Poets," which, notwithstanding some few errors in it, is by much the best book of the kind of the period. As a law writer, few men have left more ample testimonies of industry than Mr. Jacob. He published "The Accomplished Conveyancer," "The Clerk's Remembrancer," "The Grand Precedent," "A Catalogue of all Writs and Processes of the Courts at Westminster," "Lex Mercatoria, or the Merchants' Companion," "The Laws of Appeals and Murder," from the MSS. of Mr. Gale, an eminent practitioner, "Lex Constitutionis, or the Gentleman's Law," "The Modern Justice," containing the business of a justice of peace, with precedents, and several other valuable judicial works. His "Law Dictionary" is to be found in most libraries. Mr. Jacob died in 1744.

**JACOB, HENRY.**—This learned divine was the founder of the first Independent congregational church in England. He was born in Kent, and received his academical education at St. Mary's Hall, Oxford. He entered into holy orders, and in the

year 1604 published "Reasons taken out of God's Word, and the best of human testimonies, proving the necessity of reforming our churches of England." In consequence of this publication he was obliged to fly to Holland, and at Leyden he became a convert to the Brownist principles, since known by the name of Independency. In Holland he published several treatises, and upon his return he avowed a design of setting up a separate congregation upon the model of those in Holland. This, in a short time, he carried into effect, and thus laid the foundation of the first independent congregational church in England. He was elected pastor of the church, and continued with his people till the year 1624, when he went to Virginia, where he soon afterwards died. He was author of many publications which were highly esteemed in his day.—Henry Brown, son of the preceding, was the author of many curious and learned works. He was born in 1607, and, after obtaining a fellowship in Merton College, was reduced to considerable distress by the parliamentary commissioners, who ejected him from his living. He died in 1652.

**JACQUIN, NICHOLAS JOSEPH.**—This close observer of nature was born at Leyden in 1727. He received a good education, and was early in life employed by the emperor Francis I. to collect West Indian rare plants. He was absent for six years, and in 1760 published an account of his researches. His great work is entitled "Horæ Austriacæ." He died in 1817.

**JACQUEMONT, VICTOR.**—This eminent naturalist, whose early death has been a great loss to science, was a native of France. He appears to have possessed an ardent thirst for the acquirement of knowledge, and, after acquiring a good classical education, he in 1828 proceeded to India. Of Jacquemont's mode of travelling in that country his own letters furnish an interesting picture, from which we may advantageously make a few extracts. The following is dated from the neighbourhood of Cashmeer, April 22, 1831:—"I promised myself never to believe in adventures, but I have been forced to yield to evidence, and you must become a convert likewise. The Indians and the Persians call Cashmeer the Terrestrial Paradise. We are told that the road to Paradise itself is straight and difficult; it is the same with the road to Cashmeer.

"At Sûkshainpore, on the banks of the Hydaspes, the first shade was cast over my ambulatory prosperity. The chief of this little town, which is a fief of one of the king's daughters, refused to obey the firmans from Runjeet Sing for furnishing my camp with necessary provisions. He shut himself up in his little mud fort with some miserable wretches, whose arms were match-locks, and threatened to fire on my escort if they insisted any further on his obedience..... The next morning I entered the Himalaya with my escort, and encamped at Mirpore, where a numerous company of mules was to have been assembled at my disposal to replace the camels unable to travel farther through the mountains. In place of mules I found at Mirpore a hundred knaves with their match-locks and a mud fort, indifferent to the orders of the Rajah, and who would have paid them even less attention had not my friend Gulâb Sing been encamped at the distance of a few days' march with three thousand regular troops..... At length I obtained a score of Cashmerian porters, only half of the necessary number; but I was so



annoyed at being detained in a place where the heat was intense, that, loading the twenty with the more necessary baggage, I pushed forward, leaving my mehmandar in care of the rest.... It was night when the rear-guard joined me... Soon after a fierce storm arose, which lasted all night... It appears, however, that Jupiter on this occasion only fired blank-cartridge, for his terrible racket neither killed nor wounded any body. But the torrents of rain which accompanied this frightful conflagration of the heavens, melted my donkeys, my horses, my soldiers, my porters, as if they had been made of sugar. At sunrise I found only my horsemen, among whom there was some kind of discipline; but the rain had rendered them as torpid as serpents buried in snow, and their poor steeds were so horribly stiff that they looked like wooden horses. This little select band, by degrees, put itself in motion, literally dug out some of my foot soldiers, and succeeded in assembling from right and left twenty Cashmerians. All the rest had disappeared.... Our road was one of extreme difficulty; it was necessary to dismount every moment; and, in spite of every care, two of my troopers' horses fell down a precipice, whence they were taken severely bruised and very lame. For my part I was always on foot, my hammer in my hand, constantly quitting the path, which was only a low and narrow opening, through a close jungle of thorny shrubs, to gain some neighbouring height, in order to take with my compass the direction of the strata. Prudence required that I should be accompanied in all these deviations by some armed attendants. \* \*

"This morning my troop passed over the mountain ridge at sunrise; well-disposed to breakfast at the first halt. I went on foot, following my lame horse, in very bad humour, thinking about my disabled mehmandar, the difficulty of carrying him through the horrid roads, the impossibility of his accompanying me, the annoyance of asking the king for another in his place, &c, when I found myself with my rear-guard at the foot of a lofty mountain, with sides almost vertical and a flat summit, on the verge of which I beheld a fortress. They told me that it belonged to the king, and was guarded by three or four hundred soldiers, under the command of a royal governor. In fact, I saw some people of a very sinister aspect, with match-locks, sabres, and bucklers, coming down the only path which led to the summit, and the only one by which it was possible to pass.

"They saluted me, and told me that they came by order of their master to show me the road and guard my baggage. Their master, they added, was waiting above to offer me his salutations and a *nuzzar* (a present from an inferior to a superior). All this appeared very probable, and after an hour's painful climbing, I reached the summit a little behind my escort.... I found my caravan reposing under an immense fig-tree, the only tree of this strange place. I ordered them to continue their march; but they told me that the people of the fort had prevented them from advancing further.

"A great number of the garrison came up to me; they crowded round the horse on which I was mounted, but curiosity seemed their only motive, for the ranks were opened at my command. Still the crowd was so great that my escort was lost in it; at length, impatient of delay, I commanded them to

bring the governor as quick as possible. He came in the midst of a new crowd of soldiers, worse-looking than the preceding, and so miserably clad that I was forced to ask Mirza which of those ragged beggars was the chief. Through respect for the king, whose officer he was, I dismounted to receive his compliments. He offered me a *kid*, which my *maitre d'hotel* took away. I scarcely waited the end of his harangue to express my indignation at the hindrance offered to my caravan; I vehemently demanded if it was true that he had given such an order. Neal Sing, for such was the name of the bandit, appeared a little disconcerted by my violence, and, without answering my question, he offered to give me as many soldiers as I pleased to guard my baggage. I replied that he and I were the only inhabitants of this desert, that I wanted not his soldiers, and all that I requested was that he would march them off. He gave me to understand that such an order on his part would assuredly be disobeyed, and renewed his offer of an escort, which I deemed it prudent to accept.

"My position was rapidly becoming that of a prisoner. Mirza spoke to Neal Sing only with joined hands (in token of submission), whose tone became proportionally elevated. Finally the governor, after a long exposition of the wrongs he had suffered from the king and from his minister Théan Sing, declared to me—with joined hands, observe, and in the most humble and submissive tone—that having, by the possession of my person, means of forcing the king to redress his grievances, he would keep me prisoner until he obtained justice, and that my person, my escort, and my baggage, should serve him for hostages and security.

"I saw with secret, very secret, displeasure, the effect of the governor's eloquence as he warmed in the recital of his wrongs. A general clamour from the starving and hungry multitude frequently drowned his voice, and the menacing conclusion of his speech was not the part least applauded. Each as he listened examined his lighted match and shook off the ashes. Several of the soldiers wished to speak in their turn, but I imperiously commanded the horrid wretches to keep silence, and after that I only heard murmurs so feeble that the chief himself ventured to repress them. The calmness of my language and the haughty air which I assumed, as if without an effort, imposed on them. My contempt overwhelmed them. They had never heard one of their rajahs speak of himself, as I did, in the third person; Runjeet Sing is the only person that does so in the Punjab; and whilst I paid myself this respect I spoke to them as mere slaves. By this means I removed the greater part of them from their chief, whom I treated with the same familiarity, but with an air of benevolence and protection. I brought him under the shade of the fig-tree I already mentioned, to discourse with him less publicly. I made him sit down humbly on the ground, whilst one of my camp-chairs was got ready for my use. He seemed eager to enter on business, but I called my *maitre d'hotel* to bring me a glass of *eau sucrée*, which took a long time to prepare. I complained of the heat, and ordered another of my domestics to hold a parasol over me, and another to fan me with a plume of peacocks' feathers. I took all my little comforts, not only without abating my usual style, but adding largely to it, leaving Neal Sing on the ground in all his humility, to reflect on

the greatness of the crime he had meditated, and the important consequences that might result. I then explained to him under what auspices I had come into the country, and the terrible vengeance which the king would exact for any injury I received in his states, to convince the English government that it had not been done by his instigation.

"My honest friend protested that he entertained no criminal designs against me. He doubted not that the king, knowing me to be in his hands, would pay all arrears to extricate me. I represented to him that after offering such an outrage to the powers of Runjeet he could never flatter himself with the hope of a sincere pardon, and that sooner or later he would be cruelly punished. I affected to say this not as menacing him, but as if influenced solely by a regard for his interests, and this artifice was not altogether unsuccessful. Neal Sing then proposed to set me free and retain only my baggage. I rejected this idea at once, assigning reasons which made him feel more sensibly the distance between us. To travel without my tents! my books! my clothes! I, who changed twice a day! The proposal was absurd, impossible! Then, looking at my watch, I desired my *maître d'hôtel* to get breakfast ready without delay. I knew well that he had not, and could not have anything ready, since all my attendants had been made prisoners by the followers of Neal Sing, and did not dare to open a single package. The *maître d'hôtel*, at his wit's end, asked me where he was to find it or get it. 'Do you not hear?' said I to Neal Sing, 'milk is wanted; send at once to the next village and have it brought without delay.' The brigand was a little confounded by this policy, and in his uncertainty despatched some of his band to procure the required beverage. When they had gone about a hundred paces I commanded my *maître d'hôtel* to recall them, and explain that I wished for the milk of the cow, not of the buffalo or goat, and that they should see the animal milked themselves.

"The rest of my adventure is simply comic. The robber-in-chief declared that he would not take the money unless it was my good pleasure to give it. He made me almost laugh by the humility of his protestations. Hereafter he would be my servant,

since *he had eaten of my salt* (a common mode of expression in all the Indian languages); only for his poverty he would have offered me a *nuzzer* very different from a kid; but I, who had treated him so generously, knew well his perfect submission to all my wishes and his extreme poverty."

Of Jacquemont's death and burial we have the following interesting particulars from the pen of Captain Briolle. It forms part of a letter from Bordeaux, dated May 28th, 1833. He says, "Happening to be at Bombay last December, when M. V. Jacquemont had completed his scientific tour, I hastened to visit a fellow-countryman, whom all the journals of India elevated to the rank of the most distinguished of naturalists, but who, in consequence of the fatigues and privations he had to encounter in his toilsome researches, was unfortunately attacked by a liver disease of a most alarming character. I found him in bed, discoursing learnedly on his malady with the best physician of the country, to whose care he had been entrusted by the government, and explaining to him, with the greatest calmness, that in three or four days he should be relieved from his agony, but at the expense of his life, because he felt that the abscess would break internally, in which case there was no chance of recovery. His physician (Dr. MacLellan) having retired, Jacquemont very highly praised his talents, and the attention bestowed upon him by the government of Bombay; but he again added, that he had not more than three or four days to live, that the aid of art was useless, and that having completed all his MSS., except a short account of Thibet, he should die with the consolation of having contributed all in his power to the progress of science, which, however, was still far from being complete. The poor fellow, in fact, died the fourth day after this conversation, by the internal effusion that he predicted, preserving to the last moment a calmness, a sweetness, and a presence of mind worthy his noble soul."

The government of Bombay, desirous to show honour to the memory of a man so distinguished by his talents and private virtues, ordered a magnificent funeral, at which all the civil and military authorities attended; and the body of M. Jacquemont was interred with military honours.

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